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THE COMMON WELFARE

UNCLE SAM'S HEALTHIEST YEAR

Preliminary reports of the forthcoming bulletin of the United States Bureau of the Census on Mortality Statistics for 1909, compiled by Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur, chief statistician for vital statistics, indicate that 1909 in the United States was the healthiest year of which any record has been kept. The death rate for the registration area was 15 per thousand as against 15.4 in 1908, and as against an average of 15.9 for the quinquennial period 1901 to 1905.

The registration area in 1909 comprised 55.3 per cent of the total estimated population of continental United States as against 51.8 in 1908. The estimated population for this area for 1909 is 48,776,893. The bulletin on mortality for 1909 was delayed until the official population figures for 1910 were available. In the light of these census figures all estimates of death rates in the 1909 report have been revised, thus correcting the rates in many cities. The total number of deaths was 732,538, an increase of 40,964 over 1908. Of this number, 54.4 per cent were males, as compared with 54.3 per cent in 1908. March, as usual, showed the greatest number of deaths.

The leading cause of death in 1909 was tuberculosis, from which 81,720 deaths occurred, or 11.15 per cent of the total mortality. The death rate from tuberculosis was 167.5 in 100,000, a decline of 6.4 from 1908. The Census Bureau says this is the lowest rate on record for the registration area, although it should be remembered that the addition of Ohio in 1909, with a low rural mortality from tuberculosis, would tend to depress the death rate for the entire registration area. It is remarkable, however, that the aggregate of registration cities, which is not affected by transfers from the group of cities in non-registration states to the group in registration states, shows 54,461 deaths for 1909 or practically the same number as for 1908, which was 54,466, a decrease of only 5 deaths.

The death rate from cancer shows an apparent increase from 74.3 in 1908 to 77, and an increase in the number of deaths from 33,465 to 37,562. The fact that cancer is one of the diseases having a peculiar age distribution warns one to be cautious about drawing too many conclusions from this crude rate.

Typhoid caused 10,722 deaths in 1909, or 653 less than in 1908. The rate fell from 25.3 to 22 per 100,000. This is the lowest rate since 1900, and is nearly one-third less than that for the five year period 1901-1905 (32.2). It is still, however, twice as large as that in England and Wales, showing that there is much preventive work to be done in reducing the mortality from this disease.

Influenza, or "grip" showed a large decrease, from 9,989 deaths in 1908 to 6,649 in 1909. The Census Bureau considers this remarkable, since bronchitis and pneumonia, diseases classified under respiratory diseases but usually closely associated with influenza, showed, for bronchitis about the same number of deaths, and for pneumonia a marked increase for 1909.

Pneumonia, in the aggregate, caused more deaths than other diseases, except tuberculosis. The number increased from 61,259 or 136 per 100,000 population, in 1908, to 70,033 or 143.6 per 100,000 population, in 1909, being only 7 less than the number, 70,040, from tuberculosis of the lungs. The rates, however, for both years were lower than for any previous year of the decade.

Among the causes of accidental deaths, in the order of numerical importance for the year 1909, were the following: Railroad accidents and injuries, 6,659; drowning, 4,558; burns and scalds, 3,992; injuries at birth, hereafter to be classified under diseases of early infancy, 3,508; injuries by horses and vehicles, 2,152,

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not including injuries by street cars, 1,723, and automobile accidents and injuries, 632; injuries in mines and quarries, 1,997; inhalation of poisonous gases, including conflagration, 1,837; other accidental poisoning, 1,779; accidental gunshot wounds, 944; heat and sunstroke, 816; cold and freezing, 251; lightning, 150. There were 1,174 fatal injuries by machinery, chiefly in factories, but the large number, 10,108, of accidental traumatisms of unspecified nature makes it necessary to consider many of the figures given above as only minimal. There were also 2,854 deaths from homicide or 149 less than in 1908, and 8,402 deaths of suicide, as compared with 8,332 the year before.

Of the total number of deaths in 1909, 732,538, no less than 196,534, or 26.8 per cent, were of children under five years of age, and 140,057, or 19.1 per cent, were of infants under one year of age. In general, one death out of five during the year 1909 was of an infant under one, and a little more than one death in four, or about 27 per cent, was of children under five. The registration cities showed slightly higher and the rural part of the registration states slightly lower proportions than those for the registration area as a whole. The proportion of deaths of children under five to the total deaths in the year is far greater than that of any other five-year period.

THE HINDU, THE NEWEST IMMIGRATION PROBLEM

Pacific coast states are suddenly awakening to a new immigration problem in a rapidly increasing influx of Hindus. It is reported that over 5,000 of them entered the port of San Francisco during the past twelve months. The

A NEW IMMIGRANT PROBLEM.

pictures upon this page, sent to THE SURVEY by Rev. George E. Burlingame of San Francisco, show typical groups on the steamship Nippon Maru on her arrival at San Francisco late in August with nearly one hundred Sikhs from the Punjab.

Travelers along the Pacific coast states are impressed by the appearance of these white turbaned newcomers. British Columbia seems also to be receiving a large number and it is a common sight to see them on the streets of Vancouver. A large number arriving at San Francisco settle in the Sacramento valley of California. They come to America to work in lumber camps and on railroad construction.

The same sentiment on the Pacific coast which opposes Japanese immigration is developing quite as strongly against the Hindus, and organizations

HINDUS ARRIVING IN SAN FRANCISCO.

have been formed to restrict and if possible prevent the admission of an element which is felt to promise little of advantage and much of difficulty to far western states. Many are already being turned back at quarantine to whom admittance was refused under the Immigration Bureau regulations. According to Mr. Burlingame's observations, two problems are obviously involved in this new phase of foreign invasion. The civic and social question concerns the ability of the nation to assimilate this class of Hindus and their probable effect on the communities in which they settle. Their habits, their intense caste feeling, their lack of home life—no women being among them—and their effect upon standards of labor and wages, all combine to raise a serious question as to whether the doors should be kept open or closed against this strange, new stream. The other question concerns the welfare of the thousands who are already here and the communities in which they have settled. This is likely to put to a severe test the civic and religious forces which are faced with the new duty of Americanizing and evangelizing them.

Surely the first need, however, is an adequate investigation, so that we may know the extent and conditions of this new immigration problem.

WOMEN CHAINMAKERS REFUSE TO BE SWEATED

The first attempt to apply the new English trades boards act, described in THE SURVEY of January 29, has been the occasion of a strike followed by the lockout of 500 women chainmakers. The enquiry of the House of Lords, in 1887, into the sweating system showed this trade to be the worst of the home industries. At Cradley Heath, where the lockout is now going on, women, for the most part mothers of families, work twelve hours a day hammering heavy chains by hand over crude forges in their shanty homes. For this work, which requires skill as well as most exhausting labor, the pay is from one and one-half to three pence an hour, and the usual weekly earnings are from five to six shillings. The larger employers pay,

[illegible]ule, the higher rate, but in this [illegible] as in the tailoring trade in [illegible]ca, only a small investment of [illegible]al is necessary to start in business and the result is a number of small bosses, who take advantage of unrestrained competition among the workers to pay starvation wages.

On August 22 the Wage Board set the minimum pay at three and one-half pence an hour, but the act of January provided that, with the consent of the workers, a six months' extension of time could be allowed the employers before the new scale went into effect. The Cradley Health workers were asked to sign an agreement to this effect and most of them did so, as they now claim without any knowledge of its contents, as the majority could not read and only knew that the paper was in some way connected with the new scale. They soon realized their mistake, however, and they claim also to have found that the masters were forestalling, heaping work upon them so that when the new scale of wages went into effect a slack season would ensue. Two hundred women refused to continue work at the old rate. The Woman's Trade Union League took hold of the situation and sent Mary MacArthur to Cradley Heath, and as the Trade Union Federation has undertaken to pay a weekly strike benefit of five shillings, as much, that is, as many of the women were earning, the number soon rose to 500 and there is every reason to believe that the four hundred chain hammerers not yet out will join the ranks of their sisters. The Masters' Association has the letter of the law on its side, but as the public and some of the better employers have been on the women's side from the beginning there is a very good chance that they will win.

NATIONAL FIGHT ON BABY KILLERS

The country has rallied quickly and struck some telling blows in the fight against baby-killing drugs, following the first gun—the now famous report of Dr. Wiley of the Federal Department of Agriculture, on patent medicines, beverages and other preparations containing habit-

forming drugs. The list, which was printed in THE SURVEY for June 18, exposed many "soothing syrups" and "teething powders," and these were quickly made the objects of a special attack by many of the most influential newspapers in the country, which published them widely under the heading "Baby Killers":

Mrs. Winslow's Soothing Syrup (morphine sulphate).
Children's Comfort (morphine sulphate).
Dr. Fahey's Pepsin Anodyne Compound (morphine and sulphate).
Dr. Fahrney's Teething Syrup (morphine and chloroform).
Dr. Fowler's Strawberry and Peppermint Mixture (morphine).
Dr. Groves' Anodyne for Infants (morphine sulphate).
Hooper's Anodyne, the Infants' Friend (morphine hydrochlorid).
Jadway's Elixir for Infants (codein).
Dr. James' Soothing Syrup (heroin).
Koepp's Baby's Friend (morphine sulphate).
Dr. Miller's Anodyne for Babies (morphine sulphate and chloral hydrate).
Dr. Moffett's Teethina Teething Powders (powdered opium).
Victor Infant Relief (chloroform and cannabis indica).

In New York city, Health Commissioner Lederle is taking aggressive steps. The New York situation was strikingly brought out by an experience a New Jersey lawyer recently had in New York city. He had a druggist and his customer arrested for selling and buying morphine without a physician's prescription, only to find that New York had no law like that in New Jersey forbidding such unregulated sale. Since then the Board of Health has made a ruling forbidding the retail sale, except upon the prescription of a physician of morphine or the salt of morphine, cocaine or the salt of cocaine, either alone or in combination with other substances. The druggists at first were in some doubt as to whether soothing syrups, expectorants, consumption cures and other so-called remedies were included. Commissioner Lederle, however, has directed the strict enforcement of the amendment to the regulations, although a delay was requested until the arguments on the subject had been considered.

The secretary of the Metropolitan Association of Retail Druggists, which includes a third of the drug stores, states that the members voluntarily stopped the sale of soothing syrups and any drug that contains morphine, codeine or heroin. The secretary favors a strict interpretation of the ruling. A large corporation having a chain of stores throughout the city is advertising a list of preparations it refuses to sell without prescription. The list includes paregoric, syrup of white pine, Mrs. Winslow's Soothing Syrup, Jackson's Pectoral Syrup, Chlorodine, and Sun Cholera Mixture.

Philadelphia has taken some practical steps toward the abatement of the evil. At the instigation of Doctor Newmayer, head of the infant mortality division of the Bureau of Health, the Philadelphia Association of Retail Druggists has adopted resolutions condemning the sale of a selected list of the nostrums. The doctors of the bureau have found, as a result, that the drug stores in most cases are refusing to sell the medicines named above without prescriptions.

The health authorities intend to follow up this step by prosecuting unlicensed practitioners, who sell patent medicines. Mothers are to be taught that it is not necessary to administer drugs every time their babies cry. The city doctors and nurses explain how often the trouble is due to clothes that bind too tightly, to thirst, lack of sleep, or irregular feeding.

In Chicago the Civic Federation has conducted a systematic campaign of educational publicity on the subject. Posters blossomed forth in bright colors on walls and fences, articles were contributed to the foreign press of Chicago, the Health Department supplied much material in its weekly bulletin. Besides the co-operation of the clergy, nurses and field workers of the United Charities, and the social settlements the park boards aided by displaying posters and distributing cards to the mothers themselves.

The campaign against the nostrums must include positive educational work to be effective. Mothers are taught the value of clean milk, cool boiled water, and general cleanliness, as a part of the usual summer work for babies in many cities. City authorities all over the country have

been quick to use in their health activities the ammunition against soothing syrups, supplied by the national government.

CITIZENS' CAMPAIGN WAGED IN ILLINOIS

The first battle in the "irrepressible conflict" for the recovery of representative government in Illinois had what the newspapers called a whirlwind finish. The citizens woke up late to the realization of how far they had lost control of their Legislature. As previously described in THE SURVEY[1] they fell back upon the right of free assemblage, and started to face the worst and do their best.

Although their awakening was too late to effect decisive results at the direct party primaries, in defeating the worst or nominating enough better men for the Legislature, yet there was time to make the beginning of an end of the deeply entrenched bi-partisan conspiracy which has so long misruled and disgraced the state. State organization was given the Legislative Voters League, hitherto composed of Chicago citizens and largely devoted to electing better representatives from Cook county. By the co-operation of advisory committees throughout the state it was able to report to the voters in every district, its findings and recommendations concerning every legislative candidate. While there was no hope of at once overcoming the gangsters' advantage in their hold on party organization and in the legal right of their adherents to "plump" three votes for one candidate, yet the issue was at least squarely lodged with the citizens of the state, so that they will be forced to face it from now on both at the primaries and at the elections. They have already repudiated sixteen bi-partisans who misrepresented them and may retire more at the polls in November.

But the plan of campaign aims far beyond any attempt to change office holders either at the next or succeeding elections. It purposes to change the method of legislative procedure. Taking advantage of the advisory public-policy referendum law to agitate and educate the people to this further end, the Committee of Seven dared to initiate the long and laborious effort for constitutional amendments to secure direct legislation, to extend the civil service system, and to penalize corupt practices. The initial step required 110,000 voters' signatures to a petition for a popular vote on the question whether the Legislature should pass these measures, subject to the ratification by the people at the polls.

Only thirty days before this petition had to be filed, the committee undertook the arduous task of securing these signatures from all parts of the state. The members had neither money nor organization. They had to depend on volunteer help. Not half of the names had been secured a week before the petition had to be filed. Then the last dependence was upon American pluck and the energy of Western enterprise. Assurance could be made doubly sure only in Chicago. Petition wagons were kept at the corners of the most crowded streets to get passers-

A "PETITION WAGON" IN CHICAGO.

[1] THE SURVEY, September 3, P. 750, Lincoln's Soul Goes Marching on in Illinois.

by to sign from the sidewalk. Around these extemporized standing desks, which were projected over the wheels just beyond the curbstones, citizens thronged all day long for several days. Powerfully supplementing this device, three of the great newspapers and some smaller journals printed the petitions with blank spaces for signatures, requesting the voters to sign, clip and forward. When they were gathered up, just in time for filing, these interesting results attested the people's first response to the appeal for what the newspapers called "decency": There were 133,846 petitioners for the extension of the civil service; 134,010 for a corrupt practices act; and 137,268 for the initiative and referendum; 405,124 in all. Fully one-half of the signers are downstate voters, the other, citizens of Chicago and Cook county. The signatures sent from Springfield, the state capital, numbered 13,864.

The immediate result of this agitation will be to register the people's will concerning these three measures on "the little ballots" at the November election. Then it will remain to be seen whether their "representatives" in the Legislature will really represent them by referring these constitutional amendments to the voters for their ratification at the following election. If the legislators to be elected in November still refuse to respond to the bidding of their constituents, the citizens' only recourse will be to nominate and elect two years hence those who will do so.

But the chances are favorable for earlier success. The Civil Service Reform Association claims that its battle is practically won, as over half of the candidates have pledged themselves to work and vote for the enactment of a comprehensive and adequate civil service law, not only for the state, but also for Cook county, where alone two thousand appointments in the public service are still under the spoils system. The county central committees of both parties have declared for the enactment.

A large number of the candidates have also promised to vote for the other measures. It is hardly credible that a majority of the Legislature will risk their political lives in refusing the people a chance to vote on these proposed constitutional amendments. The popular vote favored the initiative and referendum, five to one, eight years ago, and citizens all over the state are now aroused and uniting to support all three amendments.

Meanwhile the circulation of the petition has been a powerful factor not only in awaking the people to oppose the corrupt men and methods betraying them and disgracing the state, but also in educating and training citizens to make the best use of the initiative and referendum, when they must meet the increased responsibilities and exactions of direct legislation.

Since the above note was set up in type, both the democratic and republican state conventions have endorsed in their platforms the initiative and referendum, the extension of civil service and a corrupt practices act.

INDIANA CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

The care and prevention of insanity received especial emphasis at the Indiana State Conference of Charities and Correction, held at Marion, September 10-13, with over 400 delegates in attendance and more than a thousand local people registered. The presidential address, by Dr. S. E. Smith, superintendent of the Eastern Hospital for the Insane, dealt with the problem of the mentally defective, which has been taxing the courage and mind of the social worker and legislator in Indiana for years. In spite of the recent opening of a new hospital at Madison, Dr. Smith pointed out that there are still hundreds of mentally defective for whom the state is not prepared to care. He proposed a remedy which might relieve the situation automatically. This is the colonization of the insane. Quiet chronic cases and subjects of periodical insanity, and even a fair proportion of convalescents, could be transferred to the colonies and employed in a way that would contribute to their support and well-being. The conclusion of the president's message was an impressive plea for the prevention of in-

sanity, by plain discussion of its causes in the home, school, church, and physician's office.

The program included such names as Mrs. Albion Fellows Bacon, who has been directly responsible for a housing reform law in Indiana; Ernest Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross; Mrs. Kate Waller Barrett, president of the National Florence Crittenton Mission of Alexandria, Va., and Caroline Bartlett Crane of Kalamazoo, Mich. Mrs. Barrett's address was a fine presentation of the regenerative power of motherhood.

The conference executive committee followed the customary plan of propaganda for social work, by placing workers in the pulpits of the city and by a mass meeting addressed on the subject by the governor, Thomas R. Marshall. Over 2,500 people listened to his address outlining the history of public charity and correction in Indiana, and presenting its moral basis. General sessions embracing topics under the heads, juvenile, county and township, state and city charities, were held, but were supplemented by the more intimate round table discussions upon allied topics. By far the most important discussions were at the round table over which Prof. U. G. Weatherly presided. They were devoted to the interests of the Indiana Child Labor Committee. Though the central topic of this discussion was to be Industrial Training, the meeting was stirred by a report read by E. N. Clopper of Cincinnati, a member of the National Child Labor Committee, giving the results of an investigation in Indiana cities of the night messenger service. Reading from a report containing the quoted remarks and detailed experiences of messengers in Indianapolis, Terre Haute, Evansville, Fort Wayne and other cities, he showed the moral degradation to which immature boys were exposed in the night messenger service. The knowledge of this shocking condition will have the effect of strengthening the hands of the Indiana State Committee and the National Child Labor Committee. The former at this meeting elected Professor Weatherly president.

The local committee gave the 400 social workers the opportunity of inspecting local institutions, among which are the National Soldiers' Home, the county jail, hospital, poor asylum and orphans' home.

The conference chose Indianapolis as the next meeting place and adjourned after selecting these officers:

President, Prof. U. G. Weatherly, Bloomington; vice-presidents, Judge J. Collins of Indianapolis, Charles W. Morses of Indianapolis, Prof. C. C. North of Greencastle, Judge Marshall Williams of Marion, Mrs. T. D. Barre of Muncie, Judge Marshall Hacker of Columbus, Mrs. E. Crisler of Greencastle, Dr. N. C. Van Nuys of Newcastle, Superintendent A. E. Carrol of Fort Wayne, Judge James Clark of Danville, Dr. Words of Indianapolis, Judge James Combs of Frankfort; secretary, Mrs. W. Campbell of Anderson; assistant secretaries, H. M. Elliot of Marion, F. D. Loomis of Indianapolis; chairman of executive committee, Dr. S. E. Smith of Richmond.

SHIRTWAIST SHOPS AFTER THE STRIKE

An investigation of the shirtwaist trade in New York, made not long after the settlement of the strike[1] last spring, by Pearl Goodman and Elsa Ueland, students in the New York School of Philanthropy, shows that 356 out of the 450 shops in New York city "signed up" with the union, in many cases the agreement containing compromises on some points. Nineteen shops, for instance, remained on the open shop basis, a very few retained the sub-contracting system and a large number agreed to pay for overtime at regular rates only, instead of time and a half or double time. Under the agreement, it will be remembered, wages were arranged by a committee in each shop. As a result of this prices in different shops were found to be, at the time of the investigation, so widely divergent that generalization was impossible as to whether there had been any, or any considerable, improvement in the average wage throughout the trade. In regard to hours, the union is shown to have been strikingly successful, all the settled shops adhering to a fifty-two hour week and a surprisingly large number of non-union shops adopting the same standard. Equally successful were the workers in

[1] See THE SURVEY for February 10, 1910.

securing the observance of the two hours' overtime limit, though the number of days for overtime work sometimes exceeded the three a week in the original demand. This limitation of overtime, however, does not seem to have affected the length of the dull season, for as early as May many shops were found doing little or no work. One worker among many instances, whose average during the busy season was eighteen dollars a week, stated that his last week's wages had been $1.29. How the union regulation requiring that the work be divided among all employes during the slack season affected the pay envelope, the investigators do not say. The amount of slack and idle time was found to vary according as the shops worked on the stock, order, or contract plan. Contract work for other shops is done in the lowest grade of shops, is the worst paid and has the most irregular season. The majority of the shops work on orders from samples, and this method causes rush seasons, often coming very unexpectedly, varied by slack and idle periods, covering about four months in the year. It is the unexpectedness with which orders come in that forces the employes to report daily during the slack season and "wait around" a good part of the day. The stock, or stock and order combined, method means a longer season, but the rapid changes of fashion prevent employers from keeping enough stock on hand to make this method of work general. The next steps to be taken by the union for improving conditions in the shops are, in the opinion of the investigators, to devise some method of extending the season, to adopt a fixed wage scale, such as has been gained by the cloakmakers, as a means of doing away with the very low rates of pay in the contract shops, and of having a working basis for future wage adjustments, and to inaugurate some regular system of apprenticeship that will abolish the excessive specialization in many shops. All of these steps would tend to a uniform standard throughout the trade, the absence of which is the chief obstacle in improving the condition of the workers.

INQUIRY INTO UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of unemployment thus far secured in the United States are very unsatisfactory, for the work of securing accurate data on this important industrial problem has scarcely begun in this country. Special interest, therefore, will attach to the second report of the New York State Commission on Employers' Liability and Causes of Industrial Accidents, Unemployment and Lack of Farm Labor. Having made its report to the Legislature upon Employers' Liability and secured the enactment of its recommendations into law, the commission has now turned its attention to the other subjects assigned to it.

George A. Voss, chairman of the subcommittee on unemployment, and William M. Leiserson, who has been engaged by the commission to take charge of its investigation of unemployment, have spent the summer in Europe making an inquiry into the recent efforts to solve this difficult problem in foreign countries.

Meanwhile, printed inquiries have been sent out from the office of the commission in New York to all trade unions and employers reporting to the State Department of Labor. The secretaries of the trade unions are asked such questions as these:

> Is unemployment a grave problem in your trade?
>
> How much time during the year does the average workman at your trade lose?
>
> Is your trade seasonal? If so, how many months is it busy? How many months is it slack? How many months is there no work?
>
> What is the least number of members that you have had unemployed at any time during the last year? What is the greatest number? etc.

The employers were asked to give the number of their employes for each month of the year 1909, and also, if possible, the greatest and least number employed during each of the last ten years. They were asked also:

> During 1909 how many months was your plant running full time? How many months part time?
>
> How many days was your plant idle during 1909, and what were the reasons for closing down?

Are you always able to get all the help you want?
What kind of labor do you find scarce?
What kind of labor is over-supplied? etc.

Finally both employers and trade union secretaries were asked to give their opinions in regard to the establishment of state labor exchanges, and also to furnish the commission with any observations they cared to make in regard to the causes, extent and effects of unemployment and the remedies therefor. The response to these inquiries has been very gratifying. Replies have been received from 728 employers and 388 trade unions, and they are still coming in, so that there is a prospect of securing statistics of exceptional value.

INFANT BLINDNESS IN MASSACHUSETTS

Dr. Simon Flexner's condemnation of certain medical schools and colleges which are turning out inefficient practitioners is effectively supported by recent investigations of the research department of the Boston School for Social Workers. Through a study of ophthalmia neonatorum in five cities of the commonwealth the investigators discovered that the usual prophylactic employed by the graduates of a certain well known French-Canadian school is lemon juice. Mr. Pickwick's friend, Dr. Sawyer, could get some pointers from these M. D.'s.

Taking into consideration the general lack of knowledge and the carelessness of doctors in charge of newly born children, it is not surprising that the Massachusetts investigators found, as a result of interviewing ninety-five physicians in five cities, that only seventeen per cent of the babies were protected from possible blindness by the routine use of a prophylactic. The records of 5,949 births were examined—forty-eight per cent of the total births of the five cities—and forty-two per cent of the physicians never used preventive measures. Forty-one per cent did or did not take proper precaution according to their own judgment.

The new law which has gone into effect in Massachusetts, allowing $2,500 for the free distribution of a prophylactic, ought to clear up matters considerably, for with every vial of silver nitrate, which will be sent to all physicians in the state, is a folder describing the absolute necessity for precautionary measures if infantile blindness is to be prevented.

The investigation also showed laxity of practitioners in complying with the law requiring that cases be reported. In the cities investigated it was found that 18,421 births had been recorded in 1909. Thirty-three cases of ophthalmia neonatorum had been reported to local boards of health, while 108 cases were discovered by the investigators.

In spite of the fact that the midwife has no legal status in Massachusetts, she plies her trade extensively, especially in the foreign quarters of smaller cities. In four of the cities investigated, where 14,795 births had been recorded in 1909, 2,083, or seven per cent, had been recorded by midwives who, however, seem no more to blame than physicians for blindness among babies.

The Massachusetts Commission for the Blind has issued a social service study of 116 cases of ophthalmia neonatorum cared for in the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary. Summarizing the situation this pamphlet says:

The general practitioner has yet much to learn of the disease, and the parents know nothing of it. Upon these two groups—the practitioners and the parents—the baby must depend for the gift of sight, and the campaign of education must be carried on to include the two.

So far as this study shows, only four babies of the six made blind within the year are alive today (three in this state); but the fact that six babies were made blind should not be lost sight of. Dead blind babies tell no tales and so make no impression on the public; but in closing the case against infant ophthalmia, these dead babies, as well as their perhaps less fortunate fellow-victims who live to grope their way through life, should appear as evidence. Those made blind, and for whom the state has to provide special and expensive education, do not begin to tell the whole story of ophthalmia neonatorum; nor do the totally blind babies complete the records of this disease; there are also those who have been made blind in one eye, thus handicapped in sight and appearance, whose chance of going through life successfully is hardly more than half that of the person with normal

vision. Still others are disfigured by scars on the eyes, and disabled by defective vision. When one considers that the question of ophthalmia neonatorum no longer admits of debate,—that the cases that do not respond to proper treatment are so rare as to be left out of the reckoning,—the number of blind and disabled from this cause in a single year is appalling. And the pity of it is that the burden is put upon a helpless baby,—and this thing need not be!

MEMPHIS STRUGGLES FOR PLAYGROUNDS

If persistency counts in bringing home a sense of social responsibility to a community, the efforts of the Memphis, Tenn., Playground Association will be crowned with success. Here, as in many other southern cities, the development of a community interest is slow and uphill work. But recent indications point to a new era.

The association, of which Mrs. Thomas M. Scruggs is president, voted last May to secure the fullest possible public expression as to the need for public playgrounds and baths, and suggestions as to ways and means, by a list of suggestive questions to be submitted to all the organized bodies of the city. These questions called attention to Memphis's prosperity and its comparative lack of provision for its unfortunates, emphasizing particularly its apparent neglect of its children. The lack of recognition here that "the most valuable asset of a city is its children," is evidenced by the failure to provide adequate public schools and playgrounds for them.

Though the Playground Association last March purchased a site for a playground, club and free bath and offered, in co-operation with the city, to pay all but $6,000 of the expense of building, the Board of Education has failed to make an appropriation to meet the deficit. Nevertheless, the association has not lost courage, but has enlisted the working people in its campaign. In the Labor Day parade every man wore a small paper shield bearing the inscription, "For Memphis Children, Public Playground and Public Baths." This was the suggestion of Rosa Lee, one of the directors of the association, to whom also was due the playground float, conspicuous in the line of march.

JUDICIAL DISREGARD OF LAW

THE SURVEY of September 10 referred to the reorganization of the Children's Courts and Magistrates' Courts in New York city under the provisions of the law drafted by the Page Commission. THE SURVEY expressed regret that the newly appointed chief justice of the Court of Special Sessions should have continued in the Manhattan Children's Court the system of monthly rotation of judges. Similar opinions have been expressed by the New York *Tribune* and the New York *Times*. Chief Justice Russell, in a communication to the *Tribune* of September 11, defends the monthly assignments. THE SURVEY has made further inquiries, and finds that the facts are even more unfortunate than was suggested in its issue of September 10. While not questioning the excellent intentions of Chief Justice Russell, we cannot escape the conclusion that he has been led into a very serious error, and that he should retrace his footsteps. The Children's Courts in New York city are legitimately a matter of interest to juvenile court workers throughout the country, and the matter seems to us sufficiently important to discuss somewhat fully.

In order to understand clearly the present situation, it should be recalled that for some years the custom in the Manhattan Juvenile Court had been that of a monthly rotation. The six justices of the Court of Special Sessions, First Division, were assigned to monthly periods of service. In the Brooklyn Juvenile Court, the six justices of the Court of Special Sessions, Second Division, had been assigned to bi-monthly periods of service. Not all of the justices cared especially for the service in the Children's Court, and consequently some of the justices served for a longer period than two months, so that the court occasionally had the benefit of the service of a judge continuously for a period of four months or longer.

The system of monthly rotation in Manhattan and bi-monthly rotation in Brooklyn was carefully considered by the so-called Page Commission, and unqualifiedly condemned. The Page Commission was comprised in part of members of the Senate, in part of members of the Assembly, and in part of citizens selected by Governor Hughes. The chairman of the commission, Alfred R. Page, after serving very effectively as a state senator, was elected last autumn a justice of the Supreme Court. The commission represented in its membership both of the leading political parties and many varying shades of opinion. Its counsel had been a justice of the Court of Special Sessions and later attorney-general of the state. The deliberate conclusions of this commission should naturally, therefore, have great weight in interpreting the statutes framed by it. On the question of rotation, this commission said:

> It has been urged that the judge of the Children's Court should devote all his time to that work and that a limited number of judges, selected for a completely separate court, would more efficiently carry on this important work.
>
> The commission is in entire sympathy with the proposition that the Children's Court requires something more than brief or temporary sittings of a judge.
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> The judge sitting at the Children's Court should, so far as practicable, follow the case of a child from the beginning until its final disposition. Under the present system the justices in the First Division sit for a term of one month only twice each year, and in the Second Division for a term of two months only once in each year, unless by voluntary arrangement they exchange their assignments.
>
> This is a radical defect which needs remedying; for the commission is of the opinion that it is vital to the successful administration of this work that the justice before whom the child is originally brought shall follow the course of that child through all the stages, which end either in permitting the child finally to go at large or in committing the child to a reformatory institution. The justice before whom the child originally comes is familiar with the details of the case, has presumably caused to be investigated every fact or circumstance throwing light upon the child's conduct, history and surroundings, has formed his own estimate of the child and his theory of what can be done with it, and he should follow that case in every judicial detail to completion.
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> Our observation has shown us that there are certain of the justices of the two divisions of this court who are peculiarly adapted for the work of children's courts, who have the patience and enthusiasm which are so necessary to successful accomplishment, and who would be glad to devote themselves for long periods of time to this particular branch of work. On the other hand, other justices, fully as capable in other directions, are not by temperament fitted to deal so well with the children.
>
> More than this, a justice passing on the cases of children should fully acquaint himself with the character and conditions of the institutions to which he must commit these children. He must be so fully informed that he knows exactly what he is doing in each case.
>
> There should be a direct provision that in the assignment of a justice to sit at the Children's Court consideration be had as to the fitness of the justice and the permanency of the assignment, and the intention of the Legislature should be made clear that so far as practicable the justice assigned to the Children's Court should devote his sole attention to that work.

The precise language of the statute enacted on the recommendations of this commission was as follows:

> In assigning justices to sit in the Children's Court, he (the chief justice) shall have regard for the fitness of the justice so assigned, and, so far as practicable, shall make such assignments for substantial periods of service in said Children's Courts. (Laws of 1910, Chapter 659, Section 14.)

The conclusion cannot possibly be avoided that the term, "substantial periods of service," as used in the statute, meant something other than, and essentially different from, the monthly and bi-monthly rotation which had been described and condemned by the commission and which this statute was intended to abolish. Under almost precisely the same statutory phraseology, enacted also on the recommendation of the Page Commission, the chief justice of the City Court in Buffalo had assigned one judge to sit continuously, except during vacations and unavoidable absences, in the Children's Court of that city.

In the light of these facts, it seems to us impossible to escape the conclusion that the assignments by Chief Justice Russell were in direct violation of the spirit, if not of the letter, of the law.

We referred in our previous issue to the Manhattan assignments. We have

since secured the assignments also for the Children's Court of Kings County (Brooklyn), and find that in place of the bi-monthly rotation, there has been substituted, with unimportant exceptions, a system of monthly rotation. The system of monthiy rotation has also been extended, practically without exception, to the newly established Children's Courts in Queens and Richmond counties. The table of assignments to the various Children's Courts in New York city suggests a checker-board. It is as follows:

ASSIGNMENTS OF JUSTICES TO THE CHILDREN'S COURTS.

	New York County.	*Kings County.*	*Queens and Richmond Counties.*
September 1910	Deuel	Fleming	Ryan
October 1910	Zeller	Salmon	Ryan
November 1910	Wyatt	Deuel	Russell
December 1910	Salmon	McInerney	Forker
January 1911	Wyatt	Wilkin	Ryan
February 1911	Salmon	Wilkin	Moss
March 1911	Olmsted	Moss	Fleming
April 1911	Wilkin	Fleming	Olmsted
May 1911	Hoyt	Ryan	Salmon
June 1911	Hoyt	McInerney	Wilkin
July 1911	Deuel	Wilkin	Russell
August 1911	Hoyt	Wilkin	Deuel
September 1911	Hoyt	Ryan	Wyatt
October 1911	Wyatt	Moss	Hoyt
November 1911	Wyatt	Deuel	Russell
December 1911	Salmon	McInerney	Forker

It will be observed that in the Manhattan court for a period of sixteen months there are but three instances in which a judge sits for a longer period than one month continuously; in Kings county during sixteen months there are but two instances, and in Queens and Richmod counties, but one. Our columns are open for any explanation as to how these assignments can be considered to be "for substantial periods of service."

It should be borne in mind that the periods of probation, or more strictly speaking of parole as it is termed in the Children's Court of Manhattan, are as a rule a month or longer. They should of course be much longer. But even on the basis of one month of parole or probation, it is evident that very few children will finish their term of probation within the period of service of the judge who placed them on probation or parole. It is idle, in our judgment, to think of establishing an effective system of juvenile probation under these circumstances. Not only is the Manhattan situation unimproved by the new assignments; but a most serious blow has been dealt to the effectiveness of probation work in the Juvenile Court in Brooklyn.

Furthermore, the statute, as quoted above, states that in these assignments the chief justice "shall have regard for the fitness of the justices so assigned." This also should be interpreted in the light of the opinion of the Page Commission as quoted above. Apparently, then, Chief Justice Russell, within a very few weeks after his appointment, is so fortunate as to find that of a total of fifteen justices in the Court of Special Sessions, as now constituted, no fewer than thirteen possess special fitness for presiding in children's courts. Our columns are open to Chief Justice Russell also to explain his interpretation of the word "fitness."

One explanation of why Chief Justice Russell has made these assignments is to be found in his letter to the *Tribune* of September 11, in the course of which he says:

> Service in the Children's Court is very attractive to all the justices, every one of whom justly aspires to taking a share in this work. The points of attraction are doubtless the fact that the entire jurisdiction is in the hands of the single justice who holds the court, undivided with others; and the further fact that the scope and variety of matters justiciable in such tribunals are not limited to misdemeanors, but include offenses which, if committed by adults, would be felonies. Add to this that unparalleled opportunities are afforded at such a post of duty to influence the conduct and character of the juvenile delinquent, and it is seen that any justice may well believe that here lies the noblest chance in his life to do the best of the world's work.

In other words, the deciding factor in making these assignments has not been the welfare of the children brought before the courts, not the findings of the Page Commission, not the statute, but the desire of the different judges to sit in the Juvenile Courts. This raises an interesting question. Is the purpose of the Children's Court to afford pleasurable occupation for the judges of the Court of Special Sessions? Are the efficient management of the Juvenile Court and the welfare of the children of New York city to be subordinated to the desire of

the various judges to sit, from time to time, for a brief period in the Juvenile Court? The Page Commission was not unaware of these considerations. They were urged upon it most strongly. Nevertheless, the commission could reach no other conclusion than that the system was bad and therefore should be broken up, It therefore recommended legislation which, in its judgment, would accomplish this result.

We submit that to any ordinary reader the language of the statute, read in connection with the facts above stated, permits of no other interpretation than that which we give. We therefore renew our statement of belief that these assignments violate, if not the letter, the spirit of the law and afford an unfortunate example of judicial disregard for law in which the convenience and inclinations of the various justices outweigh the plain language of the statute and the welfare of the children.

SOCIAL WORK FOR MEN IN THE CHURCHES

ORRIN G. COCKS

The graduate department of the Intercollegiate Branch of the Y. M. C. A. is interested in putting to work the graduates of colleges as they come to New York. It has found that no more than eight or ten per cent are joining the churches and attributes this to the lack of opportunities for social work. It has recognized the need of a base for inspiration for those attempting social service and has acquainted itself with the movements in the various denominations. It has seen the necessity of stirring up some churches to their social opportunities and has presented to them a program for larger work of this nature.

The logical group to do this work is the men's organization. The leagues and clubs are rapidly advancing beyond the lecture and discussion stage. The Congregationalists, Episcopalians, Methodists, Baptists and Presbyterians have local federations and in each case have introduced social service in the community as an object.

It is interesting to note also that interdenominational groups have been formed in various parts of Manhattan and the Bronx which have begun to take up social questions. In some cases they are composed of representatives of churches alone and in others a combination of the social and religious forces of the community. The Local Needs Association of the lower East Side, composed of representatives of all the forces present there, has been interested in the tuberculosis clinic for Italians, the construction of playgrounds under the new Manhattan bridge, the opening of the yard of public school 21 for mothers and children and the transferring of city property for playground spaces. The Lower West Side Church and Civic League, uniting the social and religious interests of the district on the West Side between Houston and Forty-second streets, has apportioned the neighborhood by blocks to various organizations, has collected lewd postal cards, circulated a petition regarding the tracks on Tenth avenue, increased the street signs on corners, and taken action on garbage removal. An organization was lately started at Hartley House to include the district between Forty-second and Fifty-ninth streets. This also has drawn together the religious and social interests of that district. The Laymen's Christian Federation, composed of representatives of fifteen churches between Fifty-ninth and Ninety-sixth streets, has developed a fraternal spirit, has closed one house of ill-repute and is discussing social work in the congested district on San Juan Hill. A federation of men's organizations has lately been effected in Harlem with a broad program for the fall. The church and civic interests in the Bronx are united and working toward the establishment of a hospital in that needy section. This interdenominational movement should be carefully noted.

The Laymen's Christian Federation has recognized the need of leadership by a man who can give his best time and thought to the work and is considering

the employment of a social secretary. This would seem to be the most logical step for the churches to take individually or in combination.

Suggestive plans of definite work formulated by those who are in touch with the needs of localities and of various groups should be put in the hands of the leaders of men's clubs, so that they will work for well-recognized needs under observation of disinterested experts. The graduate department has gathered together a preliminary list including relief of the poor, delinquency, education, parks and playgrounds, amusements, milk supply for babies, tuberculosis, inebriates, false weights and measures, housing and vagrancy.

It should be well recognized that there should be the most intimate and general co-operation with those organizations now working to improve moral, social and civic conditions.

The graduate department of the Students' Club has agreed for the present to act as such a clearing house between the work to be done and the men who can do it. The following plan was presented to representatives of all the men's organizations of Manhattan and the Bronx on May 17:

> The men of the church organizations recognize the need of definite social work taking the energies of the church men for the sake of the city, the churches, and the men now doing little practical work. The need is evident. The men are ready. There remains the formation of a wise program and method of procedure.
>
> It is assumed that the men's organizations, under proper direction and with a wise plan, are the logical bodies to take up in the churches such social work.
>
> It is proposed that individual churches, a combination of churches of different denominations in a neighborhood, or the denominational group be urged to employ at least one secretary who shall be highly trained along social lines, who shall have executive ability to put untrained men at work, and who shall have an undoubted religious motive in doing this.
>
> It is understood in every case that co-operation with existing social and moral agencies doing satisfactory work be encouraged.
>
> The graduate department of the Students' Club agrees, until the work can be placed in the hands of a group of trained directors, to put into shape a definite list of opportunities for social and moral work throughout the city, which can be taken up by individuals, committees, or organizations. It will submit such suggestions, with the approval of the ministers of the churches, to the men's organizations. It will also assist in finding the most important and interesting work to concentrate upon and in beginning such work.

If, as Edward T. Devine contends, religious work consists largely in the motive behind the work, it is plain to be seen that there is opportunity for indefinite expansion beyond the meager group of things offered to men in the ordinary church. The younger men of the churches today realize the need of more work in and through their churches. It would be well for the social organizations to recognize the vast latent forces existent in the men's groups of the churches and aid these men to work out the difficult problem of making their power felt where it is most needed.

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF ALCOHOLISM

HOMER FOLKS

No one fact, other than the hard fact of poverty itself, confronts social workers, in whatever particular field they may be engaged, so constantly as alcoholism. The drunkard's family has ever been the insoluble problem in home relief, public and private. The drunkard's children have ever been the despair of child-caring agencies. Authorities on insanity accept alcoholism as one of the dependable sources of supply for their constituency. General hospitals either bar the doors against the alcoholic and inebriate, or, if public institutions and therefore obliged to receive all classes of patients, find the alcoholic ward a source of ever-recurring trouble. The conscientious almshouse superintendent finds his best plans miscarried, and the discipline and régime of his institution broken up, by the in-and-out alcoholic rounder. Those who are undertaking the newer lines of preventive work find themselves at once

face to face with alcoholism. The tuberculosis campaign is in many respects also a campaign against intemperance. The promising movement for the prevention of insanity finds alcoholism one of the two very definite factors clearly indicated as positive causes of certain important forms of mental breakdown. In every department of the correctional field, alcoholism is ever present. The lower courts are clogged with habitual drunkards; the upper courts are distracted by questions as to the responsibility of the criminal who is part way along on the road to an alcoholic insanity. Probation commissions are issuing leaflets on how probation may sometimes help the drunkard. Several states have established or are establishing hospital colonies for inebriates. In short, without attempting to define precisely the rôle of alcoholism as cause or as effect, it is perfectly clear to every social worker that alcoholism is present as a serious factor in a great part of his work.

Such being the case, we should naturally expect to find social workers, above all others, careful students of the subject of alcoholism. We should naturally expect them to have clearly defined views on excise legislation. We should naturally expect to find them taking an active part in promoting such changes in laws and in administration, as experience shows tend to check alcoholism as a factor in social disorder. With a few striking exceptions, however, social workers and organs of social work appear to be peculiarly without comprehensive information as to the facts, or strong convictions as to how this important factor in their field is to be dealt with. How many of them, for instance, are familiar with the four volumes comprising the reports of the Committee of Fifty, on the Physiological, Legislative and Economic Aspects of the Liquor Problem and on Substitutes for the Saloon, or even with the one volume summary of the series, published in 1905.

This attitude on the part of the social workers is probably due, in part, to their inability to enter heartily into the ordinary "temperance campaigns," of the soundness of which the social worker has grave doubts; partly to the absence, until recently, of sufficiently clear and definite scientific confirmation of the alleged evil effects of alcohol; and partly to an instinctive feeling that nothing can be done about it; that over-indulgence in alcohol is so firmly intrenched in the habits and customs of the people, and that the business interests concerned in the sale of liquor are so powerful politically and otherwise, that the outlook for accomplishing any definite results, even if we were quite clear as to the results which should be aimed at, is far from encouraging. The feeling that nothing can be done about it is largely due to a provincial attitude. Few of us have attained to a national point of view on legislative questions. We think of the conditions and legislation of our own particular city or state as typical of the conditions existing generally throughout the country. We do not realize on what radically different lines the excise problem is handled in the various sovereignties comprising the United States. The mere fact of this diversity is, in itself, evidence of the unstable equilibrium of its status in any particular state. This attitude is not creditable to the social worker, nor will it be possible for him much longer to hold it.

If we mean what we say when we talk about controlling the preventable causes of poverty; if we are really in earnest in our campaigns for the prevention of tuberculosis and insanity; if we have not lost all vital faith in remedial measures; if we are, socially, progressives, not to say, insurgents; we must look squarely in the face the relation of alcoholism to our various problems, study the results of various systems of law and administration on the social effects of intemperance, and be prepared to throw our influence and our active support in favor of those things which are found to be working out helpfully. For instance, Governors Hoch and Stubbs of Kansas have repeatedly stated in public addresses that the prohibitory law in Kansas has greatly diminished the popula-

tion of the jails and poorhouses, and has emptied several of them. The alleged facts are exceedingly important, if true. We cannot remain indifferent in the presence of assertions having such a vital bearing on the matters with which we are daily concerned. The comparative lack of interest for a long time on the part of social workers in the new forms of old evils brought about by the Raines law hotels, is a similar instance.

The studies made by the Committee of Fifty, from 1893 to 1903, undoubtedly presented the best available statement of experience up to that time. Important experience, however, has been had since the investigations of that committee were closed, and it is extremely desirable, from the point of view of the social worker, that the studies undertaken by the Committee of Fifty should be brought up to date. This is one of the things to be done; there are others.

We need not await further information from the scientist before adopting a more rational method of dealing with persons arrested for public intoxication, and particularly those arrested repeatedly. It is perhaps hardly in order to speak of a more rational system, for it is difficult to detect in our present dealings with this class of persons, any evidence of rationality. The Massachusetts statute, permitting the release without court appearance of persons arrested for the first time, appears to have fully justified itself. The permissive law enacted for the city of New York in 1910, enabling that city to adopt, in its discretion, a comprehensive plan of dealing with persons arrested for public intoxication, and with inebriety in its various stages, is the most comprehensive act which has yet found its way to the statute books. It is to be hoped that the largest city in the country will lead the way by giving these new provisions an early and full trial. It is clear that neither the workhouse, nor the hospital for the insane, nor the general hospital, is a suitable place for the treatment of the inebriate. The institution which is to deal with him should have features of all these three classes of institutions. It must have the disciplinary authority of the workhouse; the mental, moral and occupational treatment provided by the modern hospital for the insane, and the skilled medical attendance of the general hospital. It will be less expensive—not more so—to deal with inebriates in this sort of an institution, than to care for them as we are now doing.

The campaign of education which must undoubtedly be undertaken in the near future to bring home to the multitude the facts as to the relation of alcoholism to disease, and as to certain economic and social aspects of intemperance, must be undertaken, in all probability, by the social worker, as the campaigns for the prevention of tuberculosis and insanity have been. The materials for such an exhibit, as Miss Higgins of the Associated Charities of Boston has pointed out, are rapidly becoming available, and only await the skilled interpretation which has been applied so effectively in the tuberculosis campaign. We confidently await the appearance in the near future of the "Exhibition of the Effects of Intemperance," and predict for it a place among the exhibitions on tuberculosis, on congestion, on tenement houses, and on other social evils, second only to the tuberculosis exhibition.

We may properly look to the various schools of philanthropy to send out trained workers, not only well informed as to the social effects of alcoholism, but full of confidence that whatever needs to be done about it can be done; that, as a cause of poverty, it is to be classified with the causes that are subject to social control.

The successful campaign initiated by Robert A. Woods for the "bar and bottle" bill in Massachusetts last winter; the appointment by the National Conference of Charities this year, for the first time, of a committee on drunkenness, and the appearance of this special number of THE SURVEY devoted to alcoholism, are, we trust, but the first evidences and fruits of a new interest and a new purpose on the part of the social worker in relation to alcoholism as an obstacle to social betterment.

ALCOHOLISM AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

LILIAN BRANDT

There is probably not a reader of THE SURVEY who is not convinced (or who does not take for granted) that the use of alcohol—internally—is a serious social problem. For many decades the drunkard's family was accepted as the type of Anglo-Saxon poverty. Later, less obvious relations between intemperance and poverty and crime were observed; and in comparatively recent years physiologists and psychologists have been establishing facts about the action of alcohol on the human body which not only confirm the conclusion of non-scientific observers, but go very much further.

As long ago as 1853 the situation was summed up very much as it might be today:

> All are agreed as to the baneful influence upon health and morals resulting from the excessive use of alcoholic drinks, and of the importance of guarding against this abuse of them by every means within our power. But so long as the opinion prevails, that in moderate quantities the use of these drinks is both proper and salutary, it will scarcely be possible to guard the masses against indulgence in them to excess—every effort to stay the progress of intemperance, with its attendant evils, disease, poverty, insanity and crime, will be unavailing.

This statement is found in the preface to a hundred-guinea prize essay on the Physiology of Temperance and Total Abstinence by Prof. William B. Carpenter, an eminent physiologist connected with the University of London. Professor Carpenter thought there was an important province for "the medicinal use of alcohol in appropriate cases," but his other conclusions were:

> That the capacity of the healthy Human system to sustain as much bodily or mental labour as it can be legitimately called upon to perform, and its power of resisting the extremes of Heat and Cold, as well as other depressing agencies, are not augmented by the use of Alcoholic liquors; but that, on the other hand, their use, under such circumstances, tends positively to the impairment of that capacity;
>
> That where there is a deficiency of power, on the part of the system, to carry on its normal actions with the energy and regularity which constitute health, such power can rarely be imparted by the habitual use of alcoholic liquor; its deficiency being generally consequent upon some habitual departure from the laws of health, for which the use of Alcoholic liquors cannot compensate;
>
> That it is the duty of the Medical Practitioner to discourage as much as possible the habitual use of Alcoholic liquors, in however "moderate" a quantity, by all persons in ordinary health; and to seek to remedy those slight departures from health, which result from the wear and tear of active life, by the means which shall most directly remove or antagonize their causes, instead of by such as simply palliate their effects.

The general effect of the scientific studies of recent years has been to reduce the emphasis on such terms as "intemperate use," "excessive indulgence," "abuse;" to show that habitual "use" is "abuse," that any regular indulgence is "excessive."

It is now asserted that alcohol is not to be regarded as a stimulant, that it depresses and weakens the action of the heart, interferes with digestion, affects the nervous system unfavorably, and lessens the normal resistance of the body. That occasional individuals addicted to its use are able, probably on account of extraordinary inheritance, to do an exceptional amount of hard work, or even to execute unusual artistic or creative tasks, does not militate against these firmly established conclusions, which rest partly upon experiments on various of the lower animals nearly related to man, and partly upon experiments and observations which have been made on man.

Kittens, under periodical doses of alcohol, large enough to produce intoxication, have been found to suffer a "psychic collapse"—lose their playfulness, intelligence, and even their fundamental instincts. Dogs develop marked timidity. Rabbits, dogs, and kittens all exhibit an unusual susceptibility to infection. Certain diseased conditions of liver, heart muscles, kidneys, and stomach develop. There is some evidence, although so far it is slight, that the progeny of alcoholic animals are less numerous than they should be and physically inferior. Abor-

tion is frequent. Young animals and pregnant animals seem to be more susceptible to the effects of alcohol.

It is not improbable that animals may be more susceptible than human beings to the injurious effects of alcohol; and for this reason experiments which have been conducted on intelligent, sometimes highly educated, men, to discover the effect of very small quantities of alcohol, are of even greater interest. The conclusions which have been accepted by scientists are that even a "moderate" amount of alcohol, if taken habitually, tends to have the following effects, to different degrees in different individuals:

1. To diminish the amount of mechanical muscular work performed, as measured by the ergograph;
2. To weaken the power of attention, as indicated by the length of time required to write down certain figures or letters;
3. To lessen efficiency in the performance of work like typesetting, in which it is comparatively simple to measure the amount accomplished in a given period;
4. To retard the mental processes involved in
   (a) Adding single numbers,
   (b) Writing down words suggested by a given word,
   (c) Memorizing figures.

The curious thing about this is that the individual affected imagines he is working faster, thinking more clearly than usual. "This is one of the disadvantages of wine," said Dr. Johnson, "it makes a man mistake words for thought." In modern scientific phraseology, it "interferes with the power of forming correct judgments" and "lengthens the time taken to perform complex mental processes." The sensations of comfort and relief from fatigue are similar deceptive illusions; the stimulation and exhilaration are due to the fact that the alcohol deadens the power of the higher nerve centers to register sensations. It has been found, moreover, that apparent stimulation produced by small doses of alcohol after a certain degree of fatigue was reached could be reproduced, in much greater intensity, by small doses of sugar.

A drug which has these effects on mind and body, and which is consumed in amounts which anyone who cares for such statistics can readily find specified, must of necessity be an important factor in many of our social problems. We hardly need further evidence in order to accept for the United States the conclusion reached by the English Inter-Departmental Committee on Physical Deterioration in 1904, that "the question of 'drink' occupies a prominent place among the causes of degeneration."

A tremendous lot of evidence, however, has been adduced to prove that this is so. The relation of alcohol to infant mortality, fecundity, accidents, crime, poverty, insanity, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, tuberculosis, disease in general, expectation of life, divorce, suicide, prostitution, industrial efficiency, backwardness in school, and no doubt to many other social problems, has been set forth again and again, and in most cases seems self-evident. Some of the statistics which are used as evidence are above reproach, while others, unfortunately, have no significance. The most widely quoted statistics, for example, are percentages (worked out to two decimal points!) which tell exactly how much of the poverty and exactly how much of the crime in the United States is "due to" intemperance. Other percentages (generally content to dispense with decimal fractions) give "conservative estimates" of the proportion of disease, insanity, mental defect, epilepsy, and various other evils, which is "caused by" intemperance. There is as yet little scientific basis for any such percentages. We have not even the data for determining whether the proportion of intemperate persons among the insane, for instance, is greater or less than it is among the general population of the same age-distribution. It seems incredible that such naive methods as have been resorted to for securing these popular percentages should have received tacit approval, as they have, by almost universal acceptance of the results. It is an especially curious phenomenon that they are quoted gravely and authoritatively by medical scientists who would not think of countenancing similar methods in their own investigations. Is it due to courtesy? Do they accept the conclusions of students of social questions without scrutinizing

their methods, just as we accept the conclusions of the scientists? Or do they think that scientific methods have nothing to say to social problems?

Disregarding, then—obliterating, if it were possible—these percentages of different evils which have been attributed to alcohol, let us see what evidence there is that is worth keeping in mind. Fortunately, there are other methods than the statistical by which facts may be established, and there are other ways of recognizing a relation between two facts than by finding what proportion the one is of the other.

The use of alcohol tends to produce poverty. It is an expensive habit, and unless there is a fair surplus income, it generally means cutting down on food, clothing, shelter, or other of the necessities of life. Whatever nutritive values the alcoholic beverages may have, they are an expensive form of food, and they do not, at any rate, nourish the members of the family who do not partake of them. The income, moreover, is apt to become irregular and to decrease, for everybody knows that drinking habits are a handicap in getting and keeping work. Other things being equal, employers prefer men who do not drink, for there is a consensus of opinion, apart from scientific proof, that alcohol interferes with efficiency. It is probable that this handicap is much greater now than formerly, not only because of a changed attitude on the part of many employers, especially large corporations, but also because of the changed nature of the work which we have to do. Factory work, work on railways, office work, intellectual work, are all incompatible with drinking habits.

With these considerations in mind, and further deductions which naturally occur, it is sufficiently obvious that intemperance is a cause of poverty, even if we relinquish the well-worn percentages.

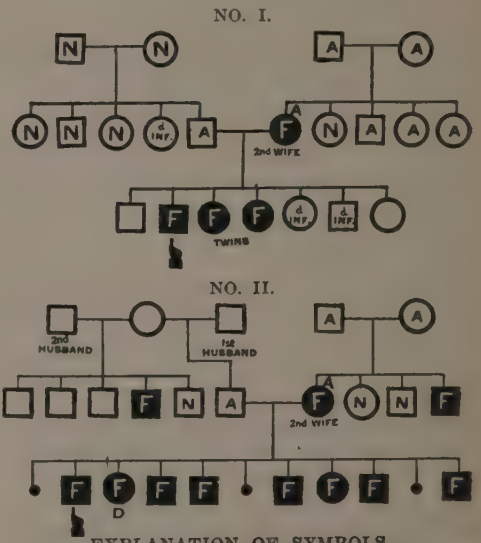
Conversely, of course, poverty is an important cause of intemperance. Overwork, undernourishment, insufficient oxygen, worry, lack of recreation, have probably quite as much to do with producing drinking habits as alcohol has to do with bringing about these characteristic conditions of poverty.

The relation of alcohol to crime is even more obvious. In so far as drunkenness is in itself an offense which renders one committing it liable to arrest, sentence, and imprisonment, the percentage such arrests, sentences, and commitments to prison are of the total number can be ascertained, and these percentages are almost everywhere startlingly high, generally over fifty. They are, however, rather a commentary on the irrational methods of dealing with this offense than an indication of the prevalence of intemperance. The drinking habits of inmates of penal institutions can also be ascertained with some degree of probability, and such inquiries have frequently been made, producing percentages as high as ninety-six and even one hundred, which are beyond a doubt higher than in the general population. Further than this, however, no trustworthy statistics have been put forward. The proportion of prisoners whose fathers were addicted to the use of liquor, or mothers, or grandparents; the proportion who ascribed their crime to their own use of alcohol, or to the use of alcohol by some one else; the proportion who "were in liquor at the time of forming the intent" to commit the crime, or for whom the use of alcohol was "a cause leading to the condition which induced the crime"—these laboriously compiled statistics mean very little. For a conception of the real relation of the use of alcohol to crime, we must fall back on what has been observed of the action of the drug on the will and the emotions, and on what is matter of common knowledge. Its relation to sexual immorality has not perhaps been sufficiently emphasized. Its deadening effect on the higher nerve centers is responsible for many a girl's first step toward prostitution; it is an even more important factor in creating the demand for the service of prostitutes; and the business relation between the liquor traffic and the traffic in the bodies of women is an important element in the situation.

Alcohol is undoubtedly a factor in producing disease and death. Certain diseases are caused directly by it and by nothing else. It predisposes to, and aggravates, many others, notably tuberculosis, cancer, and syphilis. It is one of

the causes of suicide, and of accidents, industrial and other kinds. Physicians generally recognize that the prognosis is graver in pneumonia, cholera, erysipelas, and other infections, if the patient is even a moderate drinker. On the other hand, immoderate drinking may be the first symptom of a disease, instead of its cause, and this frequently leads to erroneous conclusions. The general effect of alcohol on health has been summarized statistically from records of certain English insurance societies, which indicate that at the age of thirty the abstainer has the prospect of three and one-tenth more years of life than the non-abstainer in the same general economic class, and that he will have only about half as many weeks of illness from year to year; that of a hundred abstainers twenty years of age, eleven more will live to be seventy than of the same number of the general population. American figures, derived from the experience of the Mutual Insurance Company of New York some years ago, showed that the actual loss occasioned by the death of non-abstainers was ninety-six per cent of the maximum expected loss, while the corresponding percentage for abstainers was only seventy-eight.

The relation of alcohol to mental disease and defect is more disputed. Mental disorders may be due chiefly to an underlying psychopathic constitution which is responsible for the intemperance as well. There are certain forms of insanity, however, which are caused only by alcohol; and alienists generally agree that many other cases are precipitated by it and also that inebriety in parents or grandparents is one of the important causes of that instability of the nervous centers which is at the bottom of much of the insanity. As to feeble-mindedness and epilepsy there is considerable difference of opinion among the authorities. There are some who think that alcoholism in parents has been exaggerated as a cause. Others, however, feel that it can hardly be exaggerated, and many family histories have been collected which seem to support this view, though there are not yet available any thoroughly satisfactory studies on a large scale. The two family trees on this page, furnished by one of the best institutions in the country for the care of the feeble-minded, are illustrations of conditions which are found again and again. In the first family, an alcoholic man, the son of normal parents, took for his second wife a feeble-minded alcoholic woman, whose mother and father, brother and two sisters were alcoholic. They had seven children. About the oldest and youngest we have no information. Three of the others are feeble-minded, and two died in infancy.



EXPLANATION OF SYMBOLS.

Squares represent males; circles, females.
A: alcoholic.
D: deaf.
F: feeble-minded.
N: normal (a blank square or circle indicates that no information about characteristics is on hand).
d. inf.: died in infancy.
Small black circle: miscarriage.
The hand shows which child is in the institution furnishing the history.

In the second family there was a similar union of an alcoholic man with a feeble-minded alcoholic woman of alcoholic parentage, and it resulted even worse: three miscarriages and eight feeble-minded living children, one of whom was also deaf, and seven of whom are, so far as we know, at large in the population of the state.

This is part of what is justly regarded as the crux of the whole problem—the effect of the use of alcohol on the children of the user. No argument or evidence is needed to prove that the chil-

dren of an intemperate father or mother are exposed to the risk of neglect and privation and abuse of many sorts. Whether or not they start life physically and mentally handicapped has not yet been settled. Competent observers have testified that abortions and premature births are more common in alcoholic women than in others. In a group of women prisoners in Liverpool the death rate among infants of the inebriate mothers was found to be over twice as great as the death rate among infants of the sober mothers. Ten temperate families of Berne who were under observation for a dozen years had sixty-one children, fifty of whom were normal, while only five died in infancy. Ten intemperate families of the same social class during the same period had fifty-seven children, of whom only ten were normal, while twenty-five died in infancy, and twelve were feeble-minded or epileptic. This is startling confirmation of what has been generally believed, but the cases observed are too few to establish as facts the conclusions suggested. And now comes a study from the Eugenics Laboratory of the University of London which seems to show that there is very little difference in health, physical development, and intelligence, between the children of temperate parents and those of intemperate parents. While these conclusions are so surprising that the authors of the report are almost apologetic about it, there is an explanation, suggested, indeed, by the investigators, which will reconcile them with our general idea that an alcoholic parent is an undesirable kind for a child to have. If alcohol is, as it has been called, "a potent agent of elimination," then the survival of habitual users of it to the age when they have children in school presupposes unusual original vitality, which might counteract, to some extent, the deteriorating effect of the alcohol; and the higher infant mortality among the children of intemperate parents would mean that their children who survive to school age are a more selected class than the children of sober parents, who are not eliminated so early.

It has been argued that just because alcohol is a "potent agent of elimination" it is to the advantage of racial development not to interfere with its action; that it is an influence in eliminating the unfit; and that the historical fact that the nations which use alcohol are tending towards sobriety is evidence that its use is a desirable step in evolution. This is the same argument that every now and then turns up to sport with the idea that all care of defectives and weaklings is but putting spokes in the wheels of evolution. It disregards the fact that such care, if it is rational in character, assists evolution, does not hinder it. It also disregards the fact that the destructive influences which eliminate the unfit tend to undermine the strength of others and make them unfit. Society is not made up of two rigidly separable groups: "the fit," to be conserved; and "the unfit," to be eliminated. There are many ways of eliminating the unfit. Nature's way is infinitely slow and cruel and wasteful. The way of an enlightened society is quick and merciful and economical. It consists in transforming the unfit into the fit as far as that can be done, and in diminishing the number of the unfit who are born or developed after birth. Wise social measures do not interfere with evolution; they may determine the plane above which evolution shall be allowed to go on by its own slow and costly methods, just as they may determine in business relations the plane above which competition may go on unrestricted.

It is not, after all, merely, or even chiefly, because of its relation to dependence and crime, and other problems which constitute a burden on private philanthropy and the public treasury, that the use of alcohol is a social problem. These are but the extreme manifestations of its injurious influence. The dependent and the criminal are a very small part of the total population. It is the tendency towards these results in persons who do not reach such limits, and even in those who are in no special danger of reaching them, that is a matter of gravest social concern. Far more important than the number of paupers and criminals made by alcohol is the loss of efficiency and vitality produced by it in the large part of the population which never gets into these two groups. As a "potent and deadly agent of physical deterioration" alcohol is indeed a national problem.

COTTAGE FOR WOMEN AT DUXHURST, ENGLAND.

The illustrations on this and the following page were forwarded to THE SURVEY by Lady Henry Somerset of England, who established in 1894, "The Industrial Farm Colony for Women," at Duxhurst, Reigate, England. This institution is constructed on the cottage plan and every effort is made to maintain a home-like atmosphere. Its establishment was an experiment but its success has been very great. Lady Henry Somerset says in one of the reports:

> The years which the colony has existed have been sufficient to prove that inebriety in women is not a hopeless, incurable evil, but that it yields to wise treatment. It may be said a thousand times that a woman who gives way to drink is irreclaimably lost, but of all the wandering ones whose feet were guided to Duxhurst, considerably more than half have been restored to womanhood, usefulness and happiness. And this percentage is obtained even when we reckon the insane, the dying, those unfit for treatment, and those who do not stay the full twelve months; if we deal only with those who fulfill what we consider the conditions necessary to cure, the percentage is much higher.

RAISING CHICKENS HELPS REFORM.

INSTRUCTION IN WEAVING.

CULTIVATING HEALTH AND CHARACTER.

THE "ROUNDER" IN THE MAKING.

THE HABITUAL DRUNKARD

BAILEY B. BURRITT

ASSISTANT SECRETARY STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION

In the current discussion of the various aspects of the alcoholic question much emphasis is rightly placed on "prevention." "Prevention" is the keynote to the present campaign of public education and the results of the present movement will be valuable. But aspects of the problem other than prevention, merit consideration. The most immediate of these, because the one which constantly thrusts itself upon the attention of all who come in contact with the problem, and one which will continue until the necessarily slow working process of education for prevention can approach its ideal, is what should be done with the habitual drunkard. In other words, increased attention to the treatment of the victims of alcohol must go hand in hand with the increased emphasis upon prevention.

One of the greatest results of the energetic campaign which has been waged for the abolition of tuberculosis in the last few years, is a very great increase in the number of institutions, hospitals, sanatoriums and dispensaries which have been established in which the victim of tuberculosis can be treated in the incipient and in the slightly advanced stages of the disease. There has been, as well, a very great increase in the institutions in which the chronic and incurable case can be comfortably and well cared for, in such a way as to remove all possibility of menace to the health and well-being of society. A similar increase in provision for the treatment of the victims of alcohol must be made before the prevention of alcoholism can secure results comparable with those already attained in the prevention of tuberculosis. We must not only urge prevention and educate the public to the fact that a decreased consumption of alcoholic liquors means an increased longevity, and take steps to provide playgrounds and gymnasiums and health-giving activities which will interest young men, and give them a social life in surroundings which will not lead them into habits of excessive drinking; we must also provide for the best and most scientific treatment of persons who are in the process of becoming habitual drinkers, and even more particularly must we provide for the confirmed and incurable drunkard who needs custody, care and treatment, not only for his own sake, but more especially for the sake of society whose well-being he constantly menaces.

WHAT IS NOW DONE

The city of New York is quite typical of other large cities in the United States in its treatment of drunkenness. In the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, which represent sixty per cent of the population of the whole city, 24,277 persons were arrested for intoxication in the year 1909. 12,483, or fifty-one per cent were discharged by the courts. In the remaining boroughs about 16,000 persons were arrested for the same offense.

Seventy-five per cent of all persons not discharged by the courts are fined amounts ranging from one cent to ten dollars. Approximately two-thirds of all fines are amounts between one dollar and three dollars. Fines are paid in court, by relatives and friends of persons arrested or by the persons themselves, in about one case out of every three cases fined. The remaining cases fined are committed to the city prisons and the workhouse in default of payment of fine, to serve time, one day for each dollar of the fine, but in a few cases the fine is paid in the district prisons by relatives or friends and the person is then released. If the fine is not paid and is greater than three dollars the person is transferred from a district prison to the workhouse; if less than three dollars he serves time in the district prison.

Approximately twenty per cent of all persons held by the courts are committed to the workhouse directly under the cu-

mulative sentence law, which provides for an automatically increasing sentence which is dependent upon the number of times the person has been committed during the two previous years. This is very unsatisfactory, however, as the means taken to identify the persons are very inadequate and many escape the operation of the law altogether.

Briefly, then, the intoxicated person or habitual drunkard who is arrested and who comes before a court is either discharged, fined a small amount, or imprisoned from one to ten days. Of these three things that happen to him probably the discharge is on the whole the most satisfactory. It is certain that no good purpose is served by fining the person a small amount to be paid at once with the alternative of going to the city prison or workhouse. In most cases the man comes to court after a spree in which he has spent his last cent. One of two things must then happen: either he must serve time for the fine, one day for each dollar, or it must be paid by his wife or some member of his family or some relative. These can usually ill afford to pay even so small a sum, but make the sacrifice in order to save themselves and him from further disgrace. About two-thirds of the persons fined serve time in the city prisons or in the workhouse for failure to pay the fine imposed. In New York city only one-third of these fines are over three dollars; twenty-two per cent are one dollar or less. The result is that about two-thirds of all cases are fined from one to three days or barely long enough to get over an acute attack of alcoholism. They are then released while the thirst for more alcohol is still strong, and immediately beg or borrow money to get under the influence of alcohol once more. If they fail to do this they perform some menial service for a saloonkeeper and thus secure the drink which they crave. Within a few days such a person is again arrested, taken to the police station to sleep off his first stupor, and from there goes before the court to be fined again, and again sobers up in the city prison or workhouse. From the point of view of the individual it is apparent that this method of treatment is neither deterrent nor reformative. If the man is an occasional offender it would be better to allow him to sober up outside a prison; on the other hand if he is an habitual offender he should be isolated from alcohol for a considerable period, and healthful work in healthful surroundings should be given him. So apparent to the magistrates is the inadequacy of this treatment, that over one-half of the cases are discharged although the fact of their drunkenness is not questioned. The magistrate simply cannot provide for the treatment of the habitual drunkard because there is no city or state provision for such treatment.

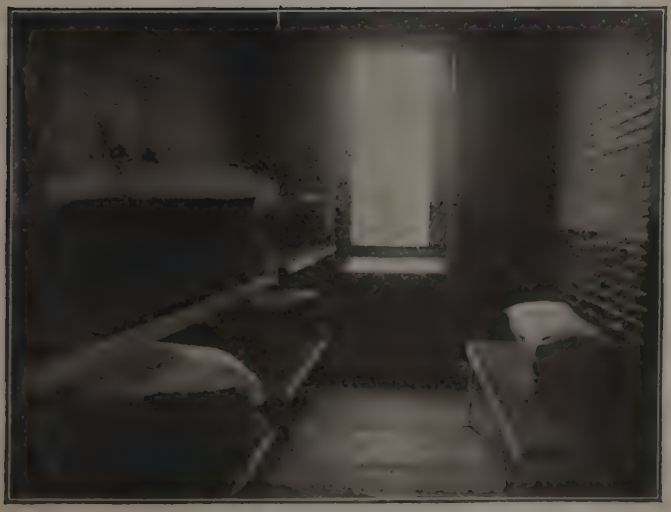
CUMULATIVE SENTENCE

A direct sentence to the workhouse under the cumulative sentence law in New York city, provides that a person who has not been committed within two years shall be released upon the expiration of five days. If he has been committed once during the preceding two years he must serve twenty days. For every subsequent committal during two years he must serve a period twice as long as the period of his last detention, provided that such period is not longer than six months. This is in principle a good law, and about twenty per cent of all persons held by the court are so sentenced. In practice, however, several things prevent securing good results from this law.

In the first place there is no scientific system of identification at the workhouse, and identification is largely a matter of personal recollection of the officials of that institution. Another thing that prevents the cumulative sentence law from securing the results intended, is the fact that a person's record for serving time in default of payment of fine is not taken into consideration in determining the length of period he shall serve. Only direct commitments to the workhouse are considered. But even if a proper system of identification were rigidly enforced and a person's fine record considered a part of his cumulative record, New York city would still be deriving little benefit from the law under present conditions, because the workhouse is little more than a place of detention, and is

AT THE STATE INSTITUTION FOR INEBRIATES, KNOXVILLE, IA.

THE WORKHOUSE,
BLACKWELL'S ISLAND.
NEW YORK.



CELL FOR FIVE PRISONERS,
BLACKWELL'S ISLAND,
NEW YORK.

TREATMENT FOR DRUNKARDS: OPEN-AIR OR DARK CELLS?

How long will other states lag behind Massachusetts, Iowa and Minnesota.

wholly unsatisfactory for the treatment of habitual alcoholics for these reasons:

Opportunity for healthful outdoor work is very limited.

Remedial measures are not employed.

Abundance of sunlight and air, which is absolutely essential, is impossible in a house of detention where eight persons are crowded into a cell eight feet by twelve with only one window.

An intoxicated person who is without criminal tendencies is forced to associate with confirmed criminals.

The net effect of an experience in the workhouse under such conditions is to create and confirm drunken habits rather than to reform them.

DISORDERLY CONDUCT

In addition to the persons arrested for public intoxication, a very large number are arrested upon other charges, particularly that of disorderly conduct, whereas the drunken condition of the person is in reality the cause of disorder and therefore of the arrest. For example, 62,225 persons were arrested in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx for disorderly conduct in 1908, a large percentage of whom were undoubtedly intoxicated when arrested. The court, prison and workhouse treatment of these is almost identical with that of persons arrested upon a charge of public intoxication.

MANY INEBRIATES NEVER ARRESTED

But there are a very large number of persons who are habitual drunkards who are never arrested and who never appear in court. In New York city about 7,000 of such cases are treated annually in the male alcoholic ward of Bellevue Hospital, and about 1,500 more in the Kings County Hospital. This leaves out of consideration the female alcoholic wards of those institutions and the cases which are cared for in private hospitals at the expense of the city. The so-called repeater or rounder is conspicuous in these institutions. The records of Bellevue Hospital, *e. g.*, show that there were 498 men treated for intoxication more than once between May 1, 1908, and May 1, 1909, and more than one hundred of these were treated from four to twelve times during that year. The means of identification used at Bellevue Hospital are also the personal recollection of the officials in charge of the ward, and there are doubtless many repeaters whom the records do not disclose. The effect of these repeaters upon the cost of maintaining the alcoholic ward at Bellevue is more strikingly brought out by the fact that during this year the total number of days' treatment of the 498 repeaters was 4,584, whereas the total number of days' treatment of 5,535 persons who do not appear to be repeaters was but 18,301. This shows that the average number of days' treatment for the repeater is about nine as compared with three and one-fourth for the patients treated but once, or in other words one-twelfth of the persons treated received nearly one-fifth of the days' treatment.

The following record of a patient thirty-six years of age, who has appeared twenty-three times in the alcoholic wards of Bellevue Hospital, is typical of the rounder's experience.

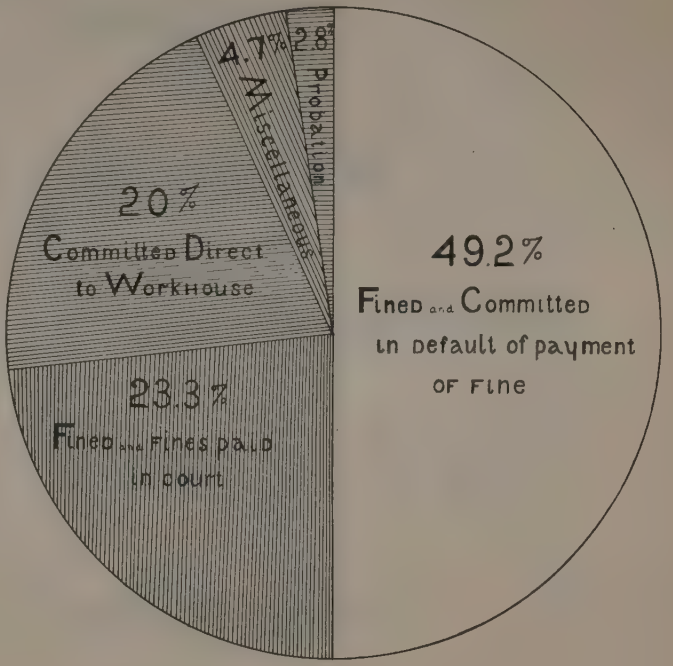
Admitted.	Discharged.	Days' Treatment.
September 6, 1904	September 7, 1904..	2
October 7, 1904	October 8, 1904....	2
November 4, 1904	November 5, 1904..	2
August 4, 1905	August 5, 1905....	2
June 19, 1906	June 20, 1906.....	2
August 28, 1906	August 29, 1906....	2
May 10, 1907	May 13, 1907.....	4
August 12, 1907	August 13, 1907....	2
September 26, 1907	September 28, 1907.	3
November 26, 1907	November 28, 1907.	3
December 25, 1907	December 26, 1907.	2
April 16,1908	April 18, 1908.....	3
June 24,1908	June 25, 1908.....	2
July 7, 1908	July 8, 1908.....	2
August 16, 1908	August 17, 1908....	2
September 18, 1908	September 19, 1908.	2
October 1, 1908	October 2, 1908....	2
October 13, 1908	October 14, 1908...	2
November 11, 1908	November 12, 1908..	2
November 28, 1908	November 29, 1908..	2
December 14, 1908	December 15, 1908.	2
December 26, 1908	December 27, 1908.	2
January 27, 1909	January 27, 1909...	1

Another large group of persons whose condition is even more pitiable, never appears before the courts. This includes those who have families sufficiently interested in them to keep them from falling into the hands of the police and the hospital authorities and thus publicly disgracing their families. This is done at a cost of constant care and anxiety. Not only must the man be supported, but he interferes with the economic productivity of the family, and is a constant drain upon their energy and happiness. Often such families have means, but even then

ARRESTED DRUNKARDS.

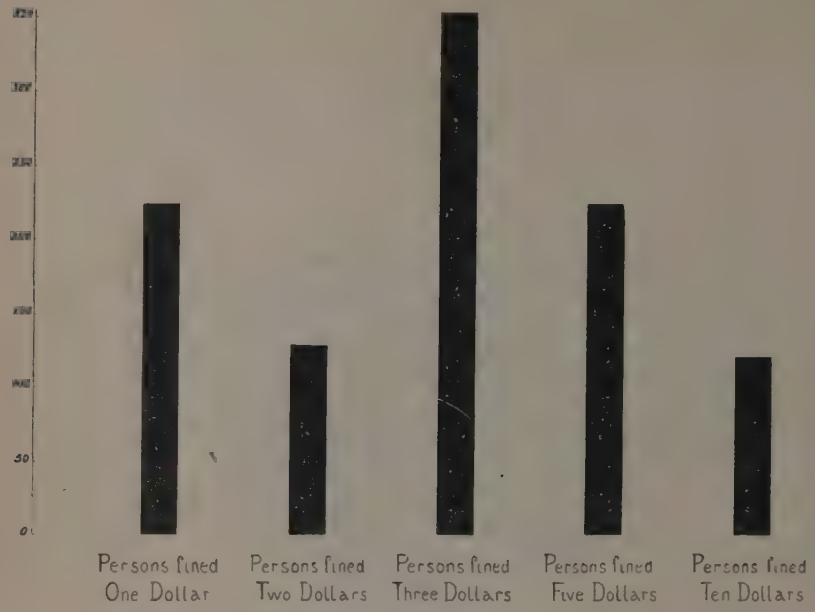
Fourth district court, New York city, 1909.

One-half of those arraigned are discharged.


2.8% Probation
4.7% Miscellaneous
20% Committed Direct to Workhouse
23.3% Fined and Fines paid in court
49.2% Fined and Committed in default of payment of Fine

What happens to those who are held.

FINES FOR PUBLIC INTOXICATION.
Fourth district court, New York city, 1909.



the case is almost equally bad. They would gladly place the drunkard in an institution under healthful surroundings where he could be isolated from alcohol, be treated medically, and be provided with healthful work, as little or nothing can be accomplished without more or less prolonged treatment in an institution. But there is in New York state no institution to which such a person can be committed for treatment, and there is, furthermore, no provision for the commitment of male habitual drunkards as such, to any institution. This is true for all of the states of the Union with but few exceptions. Massachusetts, Minnesota and Iowa have provided for state institutions, with commitment laws, and Connecticut, Vermont, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Nebraska have provided for the commitment of habitual drunkards to insane hospitals or other existing institutions. Physicians and friends of habitual drunkards in New York city sometimes inveigle them into Connecticut where they may be committed, but it is practically impossible to do anything with the vast majority of cases.

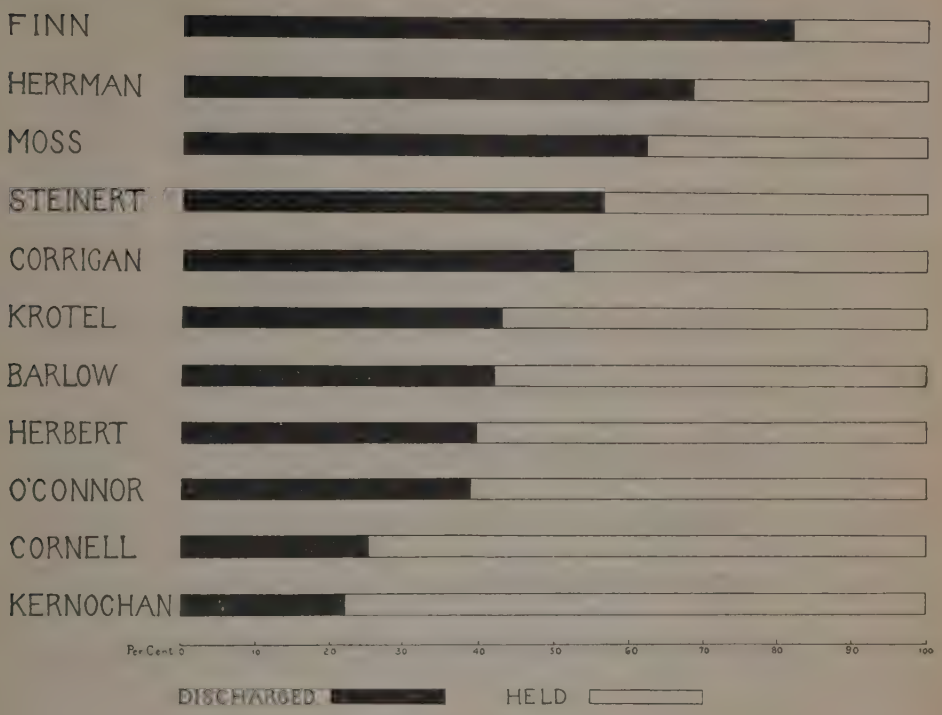
PRESENT METHOD A FAILURE

It is evident that at every point the present method of dealing with the problem is an acknowledged failure. Either nothing is done, in which case the man is a constant burden to his family, a menace to society and incapable of reformation or he is put through an in-and-out-process in the city prisons, workhouses and hospitals, the effect of which is to make rather than reform an habitual drunkard. It would be difficult for anyone to tell what good purpose can possibly be served by arresting a man who is drunk, depriving him of light and fresh air which he needs more than anything else, putting him on a diet of bread and coffee, when nourishing food is most needed, forcing him to be idle when healthful outdoor work is essential, compelling him to associate with confirmed criminals when, if ever, he needs good associates and friendly advisers, and requiring him to live with seven others in a room large enough for but one.

THE "ROUNDER"

The "rounder" is an inevitable product

DISPOSITION OF ARRAIGNMENTS.
Fourth district court, New York city, 1909.



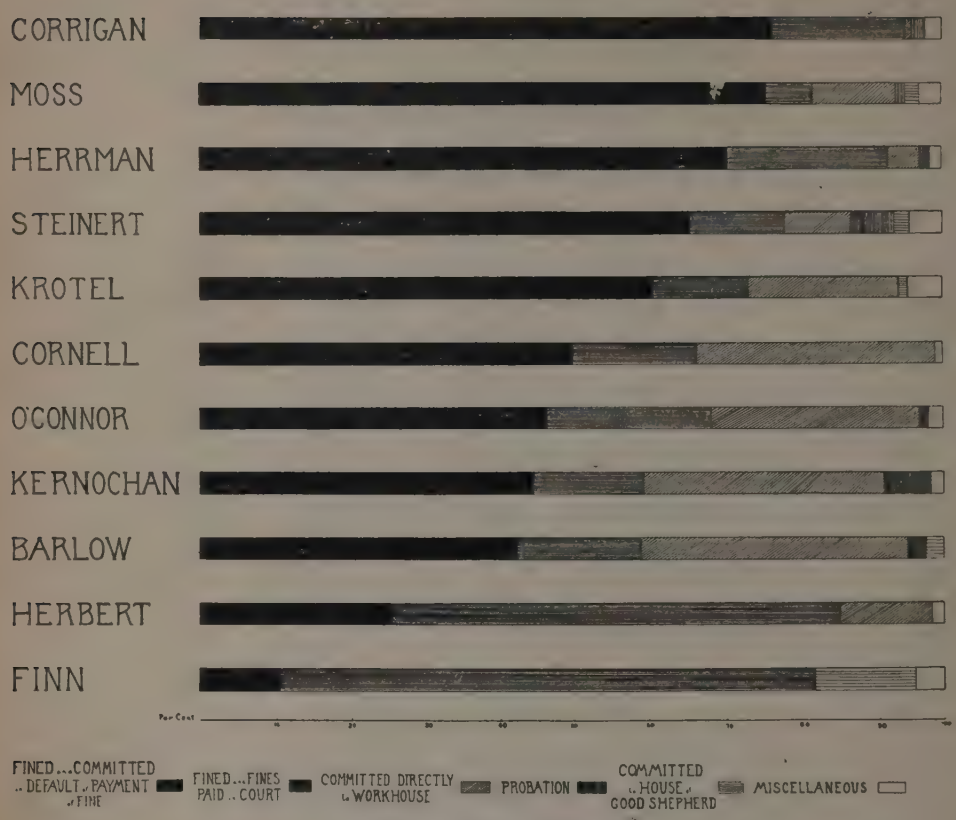
CHANCES OF FREEDOM.
They vary from twenty to eighty per cent, according to the judge.

of our present system. One searches in vain through the records of the Police Department, the records of the magistrates' courts, the records of the district prisons, and the records of public charitable institutions, for exact information as to the number of rounders and the number of times which they appear. Testimony is universal, however, among the officials of these departments, that this group constitutes a very large percentage of the total cases dealt with.

The statistics for the workhouse for 1907 show that there were 10,370 commitments of persons committed only once, and 28,264 more than once. These 28,264 commitments represent only 7,101 persons. 12,176 were commitments of persons committed from six to ten times during the year, *i. e.*, there were during 1907 more commitments to the workhouse of persons committed from six to ten times than of persons committed only once. These statistics refer to commitments for all crimes, and unfortunately the annual reports of the Department of Correction do not show what percentage of these "rounders" were committed for intoxication. Intoxication, however, is pre-eminently the crime for which repeated commitments are made, and it is entirely conservative to estimate that at least fifty per cent of commitments of persons committed more than once are for intoxication. It is evident, therefore, that the "rounder" furnishes approximately 15,000 commitments to the workhouse each year. These represent approximately 3,500 persons who appeared in court and who were committed to the workhouse from two to twenty times during the year 1907.

These statistics cover only those who go to the workhouse, and only about twenty-five per cent of all cases held by the court go there; the remainder pay

DISPOSITION OF CASES.
Fourth district court, New York city, 1909.



DRUNKARDS' PENALTIES.
Hard or easy according to the judge.

fines or serve time in a district prison. There is no means of learning what percentage of this remainder are "rounders," as neither the court nor the prison records give this information; nor are there any data showing how many of the sixty per cent of all persons arrested for intoxication and discharged by the courts are "rounders." While it is impossible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the number of "rounders", yet we can conservatively say that the work of the courts in dealing with arrests for intoxication would be diminished by at least one-half, if this element were removed. It is probable, also, that the work of the alcoholic wards in public hospitals would be reduced about an equal amount, if the "rounder" were removed from them. The summary of a few individual cases, selected from a large number of similar ones recently secured by the State Charities Aid Association, gives some idea of the histories of these "rounders." In one case a man now sixty-one years of age has been in the workhouse at least sixty-two separate times and has spent 3,165 days in that institution at a total cost for maintenance alone of $1,858.53. Another case was found to have been in the workhouse thirty-four times, in the alcoholic wards of one of the city hospitals thirty-one times, in the Municipal Lodging House twice, in the almshouse once and in two other hospitals two times each. He had spent a total of 1,943 days in these various institutions at a total cost of $1,323.12. Still another case, a man about fifty-five years of age, has been in the workhouse thirty-four times, in the

almshouse thirty-five, in Metropolitan Hospital once, and in Bellevue Hospital once. He has spent 5,884 days in those institutions at a total cost to the city of $2,492.37. This man is blind and has a blind companion who has a record almost equally as long. Records from Cleveland, O., and Boston, Mass., show that it is not infrequent for persons to appear in the penal institutions of those cities from fifty to one hundred times, and one record recently obtained from the city of Utica shows that a single individual has appeared before the police courts of that city at least 160 times for public intoxication.

CROWDED COURTS

In the year 1909, 158,999 persons were arraigned in the magistrates' courts in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx. This means that cases are disposed of at the rate of ten or twelve an hour or receive about five or six minutes each. In the case of persons arrested for intoxication not as much time as this is given. There is, as a rule, no evidence submitted beyond the patrolman's assertions as to the circumstances of the arrest. No investigation is made as to the man's home surroundings, and the magistrate in most instances has no means of knowing whether he has a home or not, whether he has a wife and children or anything about his habits except in so far as he takes the arrested person's own word. With a crowded calendar constantly staring him in the face, the magistrate is forced to come to an offhand judgment with regard to the merits of the case. It is substantially accidental whether the arrested person secures adequate consideration or not, because of the mere physical lack of time and means for the magistrate to inform himself fully with regard to the man, his habits and surroundings, and the facts leading to his arrest.

INDICTMENT OF PRESENT METHODS

The following may represent in brief the indictment against the present methods:

1. A short sentence accomplishes nothing, either in reforming the individual or in protecting society, and should be abolished.

2. A fine, to be paid at once with the alternative of serving time in the city prison or workhouse, amounts to a short sentence with its pernicious effects, in sixty-seven per cent of all the cases; in the remaining thirty-three per cent in which fines are paid in court, they are usually paid by impoverished relatives to save themselves and the person arrested from further disgrace. The present practice with regard to fines should be abolished.

3. An ordinarily self-respecting citizen who becomes intoxicated loses not only his self-respect, but frequently his employment, by being publicly exposed, brought before the court, and perhaps sentenced to prison to associate with the most vicious type of criminal classes.

4. No satisfactory means of identifying perons arrested and convicted of intoxication is applied either in the police station, the court, the district prison or the workhouse, and there is, therefore, no differentiation in the treatment of the occasional and the habitual drunkard.

5. In nearly all of the states in the Union, there is no institution to which an inebriate can be committed for treatment and no provision for commitment.

6. The "rounder" in hospitals, police stations, courts, prisons and workhouses is an inevitable consequence of short-term commitments and petty fines.

7. Punitive rather than remedial measures are emphasized.

8. No investigation of the arrested person's vocation, habits and home conditions is made, although the facts with regard to these are quite as essential for an intelligent disposition of the case as the fact that the person was intoxicated.

9. The courts are overcrowded to such an extent as to make satisfactory disposition of the cases impossible. Many of these cases never ought to appear in court, but should be released after investigation by responsible agents of the court. The cases that properly come before the courts should not be allowed to come repeatedly during the same year.

10. Public funds are wasted, inasmuch as a large percentage of the cost of the

police force, the magistrates' courts, the city prisons and workhouses, and the municipal hospitals is due to the "rounder."

PROPOSED PLAN FOR NEW YORK

The indictment against the present methods is severe, but the facts upon which it is based are well known by all and are not controverted. There is entire agreement as to the failure of the present methods. There may be minor differences of opinion as to the best way to deal with the problem, but there is substantial unanimity as to the general directions in which changes should be made. The following plan is in its general features that proposed by Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, and the writer, and submitted by them to the standing committee on hospitals of that association. The plan was afterwards approved by this committee and by the board of managers of the association, including Joseph H. Choate, George B. Canfield, Mrs. William B. Rice and others. It was presented to the Legislature of the state of New York in March, 1909, but did not pass at that session. It was, however, introduced again during the session of 1910 and was known as the Grady-Lee bill. It was passed by the Legislature and is now law, Chapter 551, Laws of 1910. This is an enabling act and requires action by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment to make it effective. There seems little doubt that the plan, which has appealed to the Legislature of New York, to Mayor Gaynor and to Governor Hughes, as reasonable, will likewise appeal to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment as practical, humane and economical. The law provides for the creation of a board of inebriety of five members appointed by the mayor, which will have entire supervision of the problem of public intoxication and inebriety. The commissioner of public charities and the commissioner of correction shall be *ex-officio* members of the board.

EXTENSION OF PROBATION

The plan involves provision for extending greatly the principle of probationary oversight of petty offenders. The purpose of arresting a man for public intoxication, in addition to preventing him from injuring himself and being a degrading public example, should be to prevent him as far as possible from again falling into a similar predicament. In the case of occasional offenders this can, as a rule, be accomplished more readily through the influence of a probation officer than it can by brief imprisonment of the offender. The personal influence of an individual who has a broad sympathetic understanding of human nature is far better than imprisonment. This influence is doubly effective if the person on probation realizes that a violation of the terms of his probation leads inexorably to severer measures. But the probation officer under the plan proposed would be not only a "Big Brother" influence, but an investigator for the magistrate who is to try the case. He would gather data with regard to the man's habits and home surroundings, the number of persons dependent upon him, etc., for the use of the court. The same officers would also serve as parole officers for persons about to be discharged from the farm colony for inebriates.

It is quite as important to provide for the after-care and supervision of a person who has been committed for treatment as it is to provide for his commitment. It makes possible a much earlier release, and at the same time assists him to secure employment, to fortify himself against old associations and old habits, and again to become a useful member of society. The knowledge on the part of the person released, that failure to abstain from the excessive use of intoxicating liquors will result in his return to an institution, acts as a very strong deterrent and assists him in getting readjusted without going back to his old habits.

In the new laws field officers are provided, who are virtually probation and parole officers. These will be under the supervision of the board of inebriety. Every arrest for intoxication will be reported to the board and a field officer will at once see the man, consult the central bureau of records, and if necessary make inquiries as to the truth of the man's

statements about himself. Any person placed on probation by the court for drunkenness will be under the supervision of one of these officers and, likewise, every person paroled from institutions under the jurisdiction of the board of inebriety will be under the supervision of these same officers. It is believed that this somewhat unique provision will make possible an expertness otherwise scarcely obtainable.

The principle of probationary oversight of offenders is comparatively recent in application, but the results obtained in Massachusetts, New York, and other states where the principle has had extended use are so satisfactory, that the principle may now be said to have passed the experimental stage. There is no class of offenders who are more in need of personal friendship, advice and cooperation than the persons who are habitual users of alcohol. To be successful, however, probation must of necessity be in the hands of broadminded, sympathetic and tactful persons. Even then it is not satisfactory in all cases of habitual drunkenness, but the plan proposed provides for severer measures where probation does not succeed.

NEED OF IDENTIFICATION IN COURT

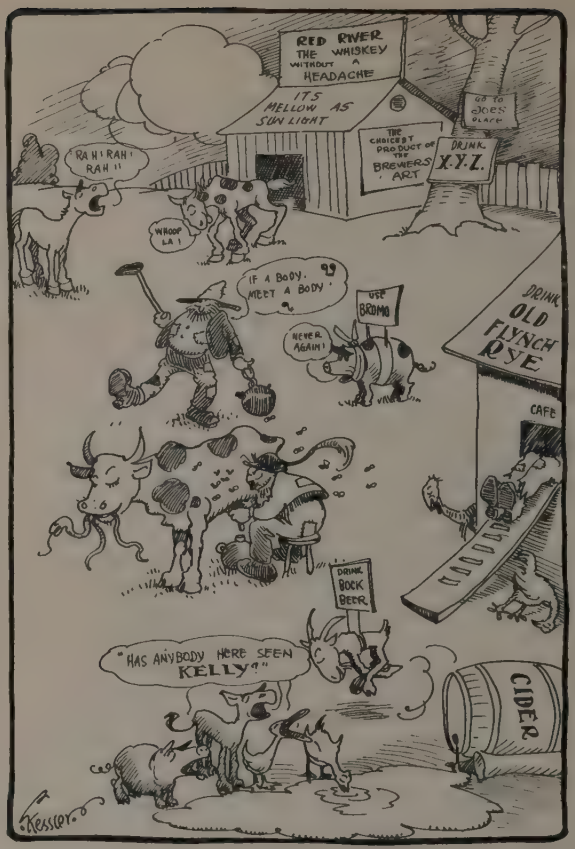
The lack of identification of old offenders is responsible for much of the present haphazard treatment of persons arrested not only for intoxication, but also for other offenses. The magistrate before whom a person arrested for intoxication is brought has now no means of knowing whether the man is brought before the court for the first or the fiftieth time, except in so far as he may be recognized by the magistrate or some court official, and yet this is precisely the information which is of the utmost value in disposing of the case. The finger print system, which affords an easy and practical method of identifying persons, should be established either in the police stations or in the courts to which petty offenders are taken. There is some prejudice against the use of the system, but it is entirely groundless. There is no more reason why an arrested person should not place on file his finger prints, than his name, occupation and residence. The placing on file of finger prints is very different from the placing on file of the photographs of arrested persons, which enables anyone to identify and associate with the criminal class any person whose photograph is on file. The finger print record, on the other hand, is a sealed book to all but the expert officials under whose supervision the file is maintained, and to them, even, except upon the presentation of an additional finger print record, which they must carefully study and classify. The only real prejudice against the system is that of professional criminals, habitual repeaters, and their friends among the practical politicians, who have a real interest in preventing any system of identification from being put in practice. It may be that such a system could best be inaugurated in connection with the courts, to be used only after conviction, as this would not make it necessary for an innocent man to have his finger prints taken and recorded and would thus far remove the prejudice. If it were established in the courts, to be used after conviction, the magistrate would then have the record of each person brought to trial investigated, and the sentence could then be adapted to the case.

HOSPITAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLONY

There is no royal road to a cure for habitual alcoholism, but the best medical authorities are unanimous in their belief in the farm colony treatment. The prime necessities in any treatment are: isolation from alcohol for a continuous period of time, abundance of light and fresh air, therapeutic baths, and as much outdoor work as the patient is physically capable of, together with the strong personal influence of individuals who are recognized by the patients as definitely interested in their improvement. These conditions will be made possible by the new law, which provides for the establishment of a hospital and industrial colony under the jurisdiction of the board of inebriety. There will, in addition to hopeful cases, always be a percentage of chronic inebriates who will be practically incurable. The protection of society

from their constant example and their degenerate offspring is necessary both from economical and moral considerations. One of the members of the London County Council speaking of such cases, says:

> These cases are a constant nuisance to us, a constant danger, and a constant expense; they breed their like, and make others follow their bad example. Cautions from the bench are of no value, fines are useless and prisons make them worse. We must detain them for longer periods, and take care of them for their own advantage, under conditions which may also make them good. If we do no lasting good to the majority of the first drawn from the courts, we at least relieve the community of them for three years, a period which may be repeated if the first produces no satisfactory result. We keep them from making fresh cases for us to deal with in the future, and, so long as we have charge of them, we know what they cost us, which is not the case at present. Without any cures the debit and credit side, in my opinion, will balance; if we do happen to cure some of them permanently, well and good; we may call those cases sheer profit.



Kessler in St. Louis Star.

HOW THE FARM COLONY PLAN FOR DRUNKENNESS IMPRESSED A CARTOONIST.

Practically every consideration points to the necessity for a farm colony for the care and treatment of habitual alcoholics. Such a colony should be sufficiently large to allow a classification and segregation somewhat as follows:

1. More or less incipient cases, that is, persons who offer considerable hope of recovery, and who are willing to enter into the spirit of the institution, and work for their recovery.

2. Advanced cases which are practically incurable. This class should be largely self-supporting and an abundance of outdoor work should be provided for them.

3. Refractory cases which do not readily enter into the spirit of the institution and require more or less restraint. These should be committed to the institution on a long term and should be largely self-supporting. Their treatment should differ from that of the first two classes, in that they should be more closely confined, watched, and their privileges generally restricted.

A SERIES OF GRADED REMEDIES

It is plainly evident that the man who is arrested for the first time for public intoxication should receive very different treatment from the man who is repeatedly arrested. As soon as persons who have previously been arrested for intoxication can be accurately identified, it will be possible to provide a graded series of remedies. It is believed that the following furnishes a practicable and desirable plan.

1. *First Offense.*—Release a person arrested on a charge of public intoxication without bringing him into court, when it shall have

been determined that he has not been arrested within the preceding twelve months.

2. *Release on Probation.*—Release an arrested person on probation for a period not less than six months nor more than one year, if it shall have been determined that the person has been previously arrested within the preceding twelve months; or

3. *Fine in Instalments.*—Release an arrested person on probation for a period of not less than six months nor more than two years, and in addition impose a fine, permitting such fine to be paid in instalments in such amounts and at such times as the magistrate may determine, such fine to be collected by the probation officer; or

4. *Indeterminate Commitment.*—Commit an arrested person six months maximum to a farm colony for inebriates on an indeterminate sentence for a period not to exceed six months, to be followed by a period of parole not to exceed one year under the supervision of a parole officer.

5. *One Year Maximum.*—Commit any person to the farm colony for inebriates for a period of not less than six months nor more than one year, to be followed by a period of parole not to exceed one year, provided such persons has previously been committed once to the colony.

6. *Two Year Maximum.*—Commit any person on an indeterminate sentence to the farm colony for inebriates for a period not less than one year and not more than two years to be followed by a period of parole not to exceed one year, provided such person has previously been committed twice to the colony.

7. *Three Year Maximum.*—Commit any person on an indeterminate sentence to the farm colony for inebriates for a period not less than two years nor more than three years to be followed by a period of parole not to exceed one year, provided such person has previously been committed three or more times to the colony.

8. *Violation of Probation.*—Commit any person who violates the terms of his probation to the farm colony for inebriates.

9. *Violation of Parole.*—Re-commit any person to the farm colony who shall have violated the terms of his parole from the colony, the term of commitment to depend upon the man's previous record.

10. *Unmanageable Cases.*—Commit any person who is refractory and does not yield readily to the discipline of the farm colony to the workhouse, penitentiary or other penal house of detention for the remainder of the period for which he was committed to the farm colony.

It will be noticed that the provisions of 2, 3 and 4 are left to the discretion of the magistrate, whereas the remaining provisions, with the exception of 10, work automatically.

COMMITMENT BY CIVIL COURTS

The states of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Vermont, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Iowa and Nebraska already provide for the commitment of habitual drunkards by civil courts upon the petition of relatives accompanied by proper medical certification. Bills were introduced in several additional states during the past two years, providing for such commitment and a Departmental Commission in England, appointed to investigate the workings of the inebriates acts, has also recommended a similar step for Great Britain. In most of the states, however, an habitual drunkard cannot be committed to any institution unless he has previously been arrested and convicted of disorderly conduct. When a man has completely lost his self-control and is a constant burden to his family and friends, it should not be necessary for him to become so obnoxious to the community in which he lives as to incur arrest and conviction of disorderly conduct before he can be committed to an institution, where he may be isolated from alcoholic drinks and such treatment as may be needed be given him. A direct commitment to such an institution would at once be for the man's own good, for the good of his family and for the well-being of society.

PLAN NOT UNTRIED

The plan suggested is new only in that it combines features which have separately been thoroughly tested elsewhere.

Release of first offenders without their appearance in court has been the practice in Boston since 1905, and has worked admirably. Over one-third of the persons arrested for intoxication do not appear in court. The release of such persons after their cases have been fully investigated is most desirable, and there is abundant evidence of satisfaction with the working of the plan on the part of official authorities and students of the problem in Boston. There is no gain to be secured either in reforming the individual or in protecting society, by publicly exposing such a person and haling him before the court, where he is made to mingle with the most vicious type of offenders. Many persons so arrested are

ordinarily self-respecting, law abiding citizens and such a person's self-respect is lessened and he is much more likely to become callous and eventually an habitual drunkard by such association. He is, furthermore, likely to lose his employment and the respect of his fellow workers and acquaintances, in many cases where a prompt release would make it possible for him to get back to his work without much loss of time. It also makes for economy in that much time of the court and the police authorities is saved. This is particularly true in the case of the courts, as it relieves them of considerable unnecesssary work, and thus makes it possible for them to give much more time to the cases which really need to come before them. The release of such a person is also a mercy to his family, who suffer by having to pay fines, or by being deprived of his support during commitment, and most of all by the loss of his employment. The results in Boston undoubtedly justify the extension of the principle to other cities. Warren F. Spalding, secretary of the Massachusetts Prison Association, says: "So far as I know there is no criticism whatever of the law or of its administration. Those who know best are unanimous in saying that the effect upon those arrested is good; that it does not encourage carelessness in drinking."

PROBATION

Attention has already been called to the success with which probation has met in Massachusetts, New York and elsewhere. Over one-half of the states at present have laws making some provision for placing offenders on probation. It is, therefore, by no means an untried principle, and the desirability of extending its application is attested by all who are familiar with its workings.

INSTITUTIONS FOR INEBRIATE

Neither are special institutions for the treatment of the habitual drunkard, a new and untried experiment. In 1879 England passed the habitual drunkards act, which provides for the licensing of private retreats to which habitual drunkards can be committed upon their own application. The number of institutions established under this act has increased until there are at present twenty-two. In 1898 Parliament, realizing that the previous act did not make any provision for the inebriate repeatedly coming before the courts, passed an inebriates act which provides for the establishment of "certified inebriate reformatories" to which such persons can be committed directly. These institutions are either established by local authorities and supported by public taxation or are established and supported by philanthropic bodies. There are at present eleven such institutions in England. In addition to these the state has established two institutions for the treatment of inebriates. These are primarily custodial institutions, and receive the more refractory cases from the private retreats and the certified inebriate reformatories.

It is difficult to determine just what percentage of the total number of persons treated in these institutions are restored to useful positions in society. Naturally the private retreats report a much larger percentage of cures. The estimates of the various institutions relative to the percentage of persons restored vary all the way from thirty to seventy per cent, but it is evident that, even in the cases that do not reform, the English method of treatment is much more satisfactory than the American in-and-out-of prison process.

It is evident from this that England is thoroughly committed to the policy of maintaining special institutions for the treatment of inebriates. A commission was appointed by Parliament in 1908, to investigate the operation of the law relating to inebriates. The commission went into the subject fully and its report was printed in two volumes in December, 1908. The report of the commission recommends further extension of facilities for the treatment of inebriates, and an extension of the legal provision for the commitment of habitual drunkards upon the application of friends and relatives. The purpose of legislation with reference to the problem is well expressed by the report in the following quotation:

> The intention of the act is not explicitly stated, but presumably it is (1) to protect the community against inebriate offenders; (2)

to provide facilities for their reformation. The implication, from the terms of the act, is that both these objects are better attained by relatively prolonged detention than by repeated committal to prison, which has been proved useless by long experience. We thoroughly agree to this.

INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

While England has been constantly progressing toward the solution of the problem, the United States has been content with making a few sporadic and ineffectual attempts to deal with it. Massachusetts with its state institution and its provision for release of first offenders has made a more serious attempt than any other state. The article by Mr. Ford in this number describes the results obtained.

Other states in the Union are following the example of Massachusetts. The state of Iowa, in 1904, passed a law establishing an institution for inebriates at Knoxville, Ia. The following paragraph taken from the second biennial report of the institution indicates what results are being obtained.

> We feel that our work here has shown conclusively that there is help for an inebriate in an institution of this character. The number received during the biennial period ending June 30, 1908, was 774. From among this number we have received a report from something over 300 who never have gone back to drink, and are living up to the requirements of the law and report each month to the clerk of the district court.

The Legislature of Minnesota in 1908 passed a law providing for a state institution and it is now in process of construction. The state of Pennsylvania passed a bill in 1903 providing for the commitment of persons to inebriate institutions, and in 1909 both houses of the Legislature passed a measure providing for a state institution, but this was vetoed by the governor of the state because of the depleted condition of the treasury.

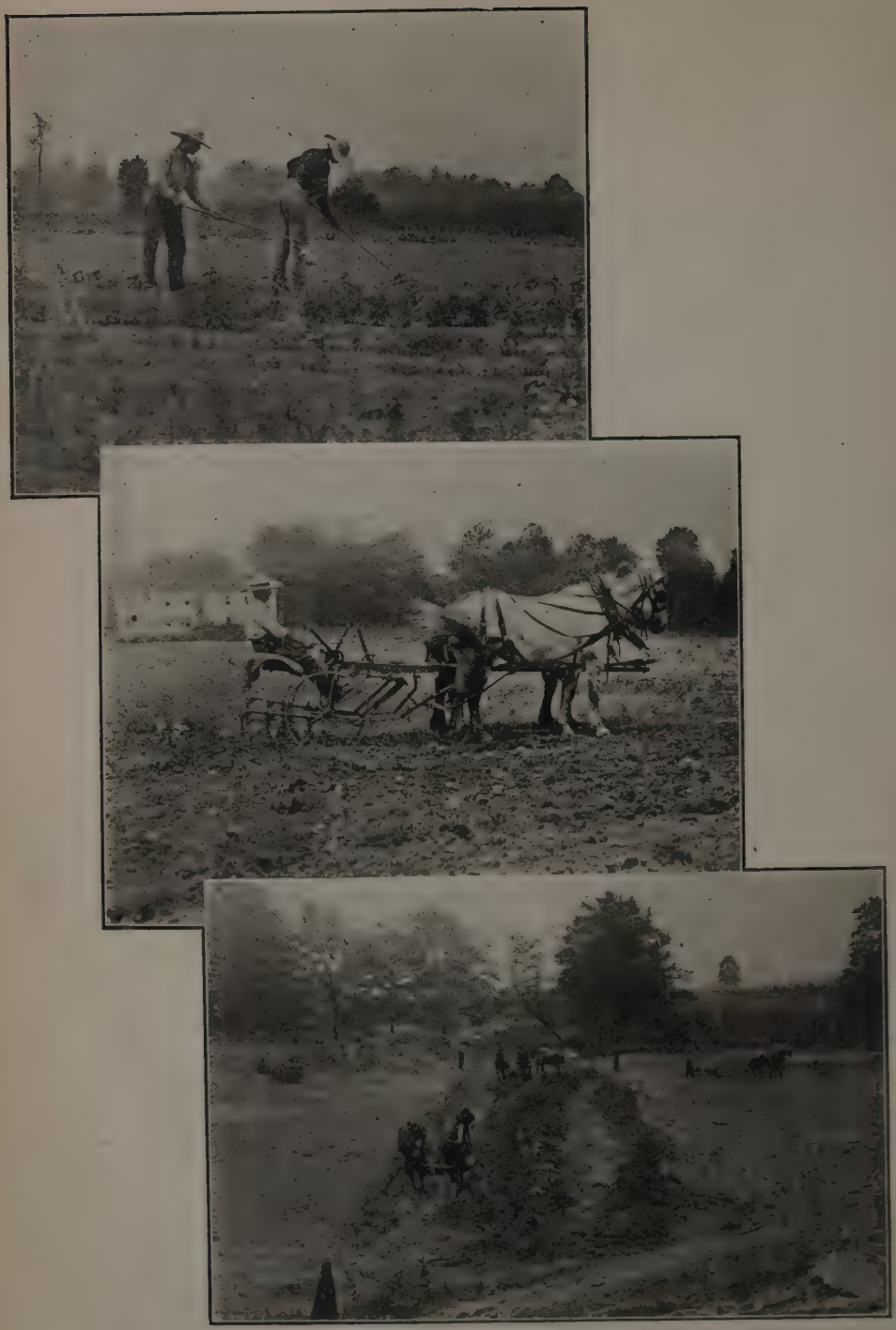
Measures providing special institutions for inebriates were under consideration during the last year in the Legislatures of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut, and the state of Michigan passed a law providing a commission of five members to investigate the whole problem.

CLEVELAND FARMS

The city of Cleveland has perhaps advanced further than any other American city in the provision of farm colonies to which persons arrested for public intoxication and other minor offenses may be committed. It has provided a farm containing approximately 1,000 acres of land. This makes possible a favorable environment and varied opportunities for good, wholesome, outdoor work for the inmates. Harris R. Cooley, formerly director of the Department of Charities and Correction, in response to inquiries with regard to the possibilities of the farm colony treatment for the habitual alcoholic, replied as follows:

> We have taken a number of the victims of drink to our farms, but we have no regularly established department for this work. We have to use the old legal machinery. The men are sentenced to the workhouse or House of Correction. There we give them treatment and as soon as they are in proper physical condition, we transfer them to the outside life and work at the Correction Farm Division of the Cooley Farms. These farms consist of nearly two thousand acres in one body and present a great variety of outdoor employment.
>
> I trust the time may come when we will have an indeterminate sentence for these men, so that we can hold them on the farm until they are restored to normal condition. We have one man who has been sent to the workhouse over ninety times for intoxication. About four months ago his legal time expired. I had a talk with him and advised him to remain at least for the winter on the correction farm. This he has done and he now says he will stay until we think he is able to stand. Another man who has a family was paroled on condition that he was to remain in the country. Our deputy draws his wages and his wife comes out after the money. From our experience with these cases, I am sure that we could bring good results in special departments established for this work, provided we could have the men sent to us for a sufficient length of time. I am exceedingly glad that other cities are taking up this work. For these men, who have fully demonstrated their inability to withstand the temptations of the city life, it is so much more rational to control their environment on a great farm in the country than it is to attempt to reconstruct and restrict the conditions of an entire municipality.

It is apparent that the tendency toward a plan similar in part or in whole to the plan which has been outlined is steadily



CLEVELAND'S CORRECTION FARM.

Outdoor work and few guards are better than crowded cells.

gaining ground and promises to become well nigh universal. This tendency grows inevitably out of the recognition of the wasteful and inefficient methods applied at present. The fact that so many different states are experimenting with different aspects of this problem is making it possible to develop a much more rational treatment of the unfortunate victims of alcoholic liquors than would otherwise be possible, and the next few years will undoubtedly mark a distinct advance in the solution of this difficult problem.

ALCOHOLISM AND DISEASE

CHARLES P. EMERSON, M. D.

SUPERINTENDENT, CLIFTON SPRINGS SANITARIUM, CLIFTON SPRINGS, N. Y.

The problem of the relationship which alcoholism bears to disease in general is an exceedingly difficult one for a physician to present in a manner which will satisfy many, if indeed any, of his readers. One reason for this difficulty is that, in the very heated discussions on alcohol delivered and published during the past few decades since "temperance" and "prohibition" became subjects of national importance, arguments borrowed from medicine have been urged as overwhelmingly convincing both against and for the use of alcohol in any form, in any amount, and for any purpose. It is only fair to say that these arguments have, for the most part, been borrowed from, not presented by, members of the medical profession, and that in the attempts to make the arguments convincing and yet simple enough for children to understand, the truth has at times suffered.

Please allow the writer to plead that he, a total abstainer, is guilty of an intemperate antagonism to the use of alcohol in all forms as a beverage and (excepting in the rarest cases) as a stimulant. Yet in this brief paper he will try to consider the subject impartially and from the medical viewpoint only. The problem is a very subtle one. That the use of alcohol is one of the most, perhaps the most, important factor in the causation of many diseases I am convinced. But to prove this, using medical data only, is difficult, since the evidence is not simple; much less can it be illustrated by the pictures of diseased stomachs, etc., which are used to frighten children into habits of abstinence.

In considering this question it is difficult, and yet it is quite necessary, to make a sharp distinction between the effects of the alcohol itself and the effects of certain other factors which also are usually present in the life of the alcoholic. These other factors may themselves be dependent on the alcohol habit, or they may be independent of it. It is they which contribute largely to the results for which alcohol usually gets all the blame. For instance, a healthy and fairly well-to-do man becomes a habitual drinker. This is soon discovered. He loses his good position, enters some more menial employment, and sooner or later is engaged in hard manual labor, much exposed to the inclemencies of the weather. He cannot afford the good living to which he is accustomed but now must eat much cheaper and coarser food. The problems of life become more difficult and in his sober hours he worries more and more. While intoxicated he yields to other temptations with venereal diseases as a natural result. Years go by, and finally the diagnosis of his physical condition reads as follows: Thickened arteries, Bright's disease, myocarditis (weak heart muscle), complete paralysis of the left side. His social diagnosis is: Poverty, an invalid wife, four children, one of which is epileptic, one feeble minded and one blind.

The temperance lecturer points to such a family and says "Behold the dire effects of alcohol." The physician answers, "True, alcohol deserves the blame of each and all of the injuries mentioned in these two diagnoses." For not one of these results need have happened had the man remained a total abstainer. And yet

some of them might. In what sense was alcohol to blame for them all? Can we separate its direct influence from its indirect? I know that many object to any such distinction. But since these same persons cite the surely indirect results of alcoholism as undoubtedly direct, and as "sure medical proof," it is only fair to point out a distinction with a very definite difference. In the example given above it is perfectly possible that alcohol did not directly injure either this man's body or his family. The hard muscular work, the exposure to cold and wet, the poor food, the irregular habits of life, the worries, and the diseases he contracted, these might explain all and more too. But alcohol was nevertheless to blame. The part which it played was indirect, it was subtle, but it was the leading part. And yet to claim this we must depart from the strictly medical reasoning, as our friends understand this, although it is strictly medical as physicians understand it.

A MEDICAL OR A PENAL PROBLEM?

In the causation of physical disease the chief attack of alcohol is not against a man's heart, liver, or kidneys, but against the two most important citadels of his health: his mental life and his resistance to disease. Even a very small dose of alcohol has a direct toxic influence on the brain, which may be merely functional and temporary, but if repeated often enough becomes organic and permanent. Even the least result is a slight, temporary loss of self-control, a slightly and temporarily weakened will, a slight, transitory loss of authority on the part of the higher ideals. The lowered resistance to the invasion of disease and the accompanying lessened ability to recover from a disease are the result of the chronic poisoning of all the tissues of the body. This may be slight and temporary, but if the use of alcohol be continued long enough it will become more serious. These two most important effects of alcohol are direct, they are quite fundamental, and yet to the popular mind they are rather unconvincing.

Among the important subsidiary factors, which, as we have mentioned, produce many or perhaps most of the results usually ascribed to alcohol, are work, exposure to wet and cold, irregular hours, poor food, worry, and most important, immorality with its very frequent complication, venereal disease.

Hard manual work and alcoholism are very closely related. Not only is such work the only kind open to many habitual drinkers, but the effect of hard work on even the temperate laborer is a temptation to drink. And the same may be said of poor food, for the drinker gets little else, and the temperate man who finds only poor food at home is sadly tempted to patronize the saloon. That persons addicted to the use of alcohol expose themselves to cold and wet unnecessarily admits of no denial. Because of their benumbed sensibilities they remain in the wet and cold more than they would if sober; and they suffer more from this exposure than would temperate men under similar conditions. But it is also true that the temperate man who is for any reason much exposed to wet and cold is sorely tempted to drink. More important still is the close relationship between alcohol and immorality, which unfortunately for many is almost synonymous with venereal diseases, the princes among the destroyers of physical health! The first link of this chain of cause and effect is in very, very many (some say practically all) cases a slight degree of physical stimulation by alcohol together with the accompanying blunting of the fine moral sense. In the following years

PHYSICIANS PRESCRIBE OUTDOOR WORK.

of vice alcohol may not be any factor whatever. It is the start for which alcohol is so often to blame.

We must grant that there are many illustrations of the truth that almost any form of alcoholic drink may be taken in moderation throughout a long life, without, so far as we can see, impairing in the least the general health of the individual. But the effects produced by alcohol depend less on the inherent toxicity of the alcohol, and more on the condition of the person who drinks it. We may illustrate this by another common poison, that of typhoid fever; for it is the poison produced by the typhoid bacilli which causes all the symptoms of this disease. Expose four men to this poison in the same way (for instance, let them drink equal quantities of the same infected milk). The one man dies of malignant typhoid fever; the second, after a long, severe illness, gets well; the third has a short, mild course; the fourth remains perfectly well. The difference was not in the poison originally ingested (of course this poison increased tremendously in the bodies of the sick men); the original difference was in the men themselves, in their susceptibility to this poison. In much the same way equal amounts of the same liquor will have quite different effects on different men. Their susceptibility to alcohol will depend on two groups of factors. First, on inheritance, for the sons of drinkers especially, but the sons of men who overwork mentally under high nervous tension are also, as a rule, much more susceptible to alcohol than were their fathers. Second, the man who in a temperate climate lives a natural, easy, open-air life, with good food and few worries, usually can drink heavily with relatively little injury. This is the reason why the alcohol problem is today so important. There are now in our cities so many who work under intense nervous strain, with little sleep, irregular hours of meals, and with short or no vacations. These are especially susceptible to the toxic effects of alcohol; and yet these are the very ones whom alcohol as a stimulant tempts the most.

That some men can steadily for years use moderate amounts of liquor and show practically no injury as the result is no argument against temperance. We are now studying the interesting and important subject of healthy "infection car-

riers" and adjudge them dangerous. The "perfectly healthy" child whose throat and nose contain many virulent diphtheria bacilli is considered as a public menace, since, although thanks to his own good resistance he does not suffer in the least, he spreads the disease among his fellows, many of whom, more susceptible to this germ than he, will sicken and some probably die. And the same is true of the healthy typhoid bacillus carrier who is to blame for many of our widespread epidemics of this disease. Surely there is just as good reason for considering the man who can drink with little or no danger to himself as a menace, if the example of his drinking leads to the destruction of weaker fellow men.

We will now consider the direct physical effects which alcohol has on the body tissues. May we emphasize that alcohol harms because it is one of the many poisons. There are very few diseases which are wholly due to alcohol. One of them is a form of "peripheral neuritis," that is, of temporary weakness, even paralysis, of hands and feet lasting from a few weeks to months. A somewhat similar condition results from chronic lead poisoning while in other patients it follows diphtheria, typhoid fever or other acute fevers. The alcoholic form is sometimes, but rarely, associated with mental disturbances which no other poison produces. And of course chronic alcoholism is the sole cause of delirium tremens, an acute mental upset with characteristic symptoms.

Alcohol is the chief cause of the common form of one important liver disease, hardening or "cirrhosis," of the liver. And yet other rare and yet equally serious forms of cirrhosis of the liver are not the result of alcoholism.

KEEPING DOWN THE COST.
Work by patients helps maintain the institution.

The above are perhaps the only conditions for which alcohol is chiefly directly responsible. In the causation of the many other diseases for which alcohol is commonly blamed it does play an exceedingly important rôle. And yet like that of the shrewdest criminals this rôle is a hidden one.

Alcohol was believed to be a very important cause of hardening of the arteries or "arteriosclerosis." This condition, directly or indirectly, causes the death of the great majority of persons who have reached middle age; for arteriosclerosis is the chief cause of the common forms of chronic Bright's disease, of weakening of the heart muscle (chronic myocarditis—not valvular heart disease), of apoplexy, etc. There is now some doubt that the habitual use of alcohol does directly cause arteriosclerosis; certainly if it does it is not a very important cause, for hard physical work, worry, long continued nervous strain, overeating, lead poisoning, gout and especially primary Bright's disease and venereal diseases are by far more important causes of this condition.

Habitual drinking is one of the important causes of chronic gastritis, a very common chronic stomach trouble. Errors in diet and careless habits of eating are probably more important causes. These stomach troubles cause in their turn various "dyspepsias" and disturbances of malnutrition. Heavy beer drinkers have enlarged stomachs and enlarged hearts, but these seem due to the quantity of fluid consumed rather than to the alcohol there is in it.

Alcohol is blamed for very many cases of acute Bright's disease (acute nephritis) since this so often directly follows a "spree."

And yet the direct cause is not so much the alcohol as the exposure to cold and wet, for drinkers expose themselves unnecessarily, and while intoxicated are especially susceptible to cold. Exposure for any reason to cold and wet is one of the commonest causes of acute Bright's, while any poison in large enough doses, as carbolic acid, turpentine; overdoses of many strong medicines, and the poisons of many of the acute fevers, especially those of scarlet fever and diphtheria, are important in this list. Considering the amount of alcohol drunk it would seem a very rare cause of acute nephritis, and some even deny that it is ever a direct cause. There is more evidence that the habitual use of alcohol is a direct cause of another form of Bright's disease (subacute parenchymatous nephritis), and yet it is not as important as a cause of this as are malaria, tuberculosis, etc. But certain forms of chronic Bright's disease are far more common than are the above, and of these alcohol may possibly, but not certainly, be an important cause. It surely is in conjunction with other factors. The most important cause of this condition is artediosclerosis, and so alcohol, in addition to its direct responsibility, is also to blame in just so far as it is responsible for the thickening of the arteries. Certainly if the patient already has a chronic nephritis the use of alcohol will make it much worse.

Heavy drinkers suffer from nervous diseases which are the results of the direct action of alcohol on the sensitive nerve tissues. Some become epileptic, some insane, while others show a slow dementia. But these cases are not very common considering the number of hard drinkers. And the chronic alcoholic is in considerable danger of mental breakdown in case of illness or accident, for although he may not have been a hard, although a steady, drinker, yet an accident of any kind, such as a broken bone or a fever, may precipitate delirium tremens so suddenly that the injury or fever is quite overlooked.

But by far the most important result of alcoholism is a general reduction of the vitality and resistance of the body, and this is synonymous with an increased susceptibility to disease. We all are frequently exposed to diseases, but we do not contract them, thanks to our "resistance." But drinkers are more susceptible than are normal persons to almost all diseases. This is well illustrated by tuberculosis, for it is variously estimated that from fifty to eighty per cent of all consumptives were formerly victims of chronic alcoholism. Chronic alcoholics also cannot recover easily from disease; that is they lose in the fight for life. The percentage of deaths in pneumonia, for instance, is much higher among alcoholics than non-alcoholics.

The evil effect of alcoholism is much better seen in the children than in the parents. This transmitted injury is seldom illustrated by the "fearful examples" which are held up for warning, such as insanity, epilepsy or imbecility, although these occur much too often, but usually it is merely a slight reduction of the resistance of these children to disease and an increased frailty under the wear and tear of ordinary life. Their bodies seem not made of as good material as normal; for instance, they develop arteriosclerosis more easily than did their parents. Finally, the children of alcoholics are far more sensitive to the effects of alcohol than were their parents. To their fathers alcohol dealt invisible wounds which must be suspected rather than demonstrated, but them it destroys.

In conclusion, we would repeat that alcohol is one of the most, if not the most, important factor in the production of general disease, and is dangerous since its influence is so insidious, so difficult of demonstration. Its main attack is on the nervous system; its trusty lieutenants are the weakened will and the blunted moral sense; the actual blows to the body are struck by the weather, the work, the food, venereal disease, etc., which the patient must endure. Its immediate relationship to disease cannot truthfully be demonstrated by colored plates of diseased organs but its relationship is nevertheless fundamental.

The cure of alcoholism is very difficult both theoretically and practically. The treatment must be directed primarily

to the will, and here the insidious danger of alcoholism is apparent, for alcohol injures this first, man's one means of defense. But the treatment should be studied out carefully with great attention to detail, for sentiment too often directs it. There is no drug cure. Drugs may for a while cause a disgust for liquors but that is all. The environment is of great importance. The patient is best treated under conditions (in an institution if necessary), where he is protected from temptation at those times, which are quite sure to occur, when the will is too weak to resist. Alcohol weakens the will by poisoning the brain. The man may have an intense desire to overcome the habit, but the ability to will to resist temptation will depend much on physical conditions, the health of the body as a whole and of the nervous system in particular. For that reason the physical condition should be improved. Probably every organ is in some measure injured. The diet, the routine of life, a regular occupation (easy work in the open air is best), all need careful direction. And the man should stay under these conditions long after he appears entirely well, for the future will depend more on the "reserve" a man has than on his superficial condition and honest intentions when dismissed from treatment. Granting that a man inherits a strong body there is good chance for cure; but the son of a drinker (even a moderate one) has most of the chances against him.

But from the very first the fight is really mental. Not only must the patient want to overcome his habit (they practically all do) but he must be able to will to resist temptation, and the strength to will is a question of both the mental and the physical. But by the mental we include the spiritual, first and foremost. The rescue mission workers, the priests and the clergymen, these hold a record for genuine cures of alcoholism of which physicians may well be envious. They direct their attention to the man's mental, moral and spiritual life, paying particular attention to his environment. The will is alcohol's chief point of attack, and there must the main defense be made. The man realizes his need of a strength not his own, and with this he often wins.

THE FOXBOROUGH "CURE."

THE FIRST FARM COLONY FOR DRUNKARDS

JAMES FORD
INSTRUCTOR, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL ETHICS, HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Massachusetts, owing to its large urban population occupied chiefly in mills, factories and shops, has found the problem of drunkenness serious and has devoted much attention to both penal and curative treatment. Under the local option law alcohol in its various forms has ordinarily been fairly accessible in dis-

BOWERY TEMPTATIONS FOR THE DOWN AND OUT.

tricts where population is aggregated. Strict laws relative to public behavior, which find "intoxication in a public place" to be a misdemeanor, although usually interpreted by the police with fair latitude, result in the apprehension of such intoxicated persons as appear unable to care for themselves, quarrel, stagger, or otherwise render themselves publicly obnoxious. In 1909 there were 90,550 arrests on the charge of drunkenness, of which 45,124 were within the city of Boston. Drunkards are frequently arrested on a charge of disturbance of the peace, petty larceny and more serious crimes. Indeed ninety-four per cent of all the prisoners of the state were recorded by the penal commissioners in 1909 as intemperate by habit.

PRACTICE IN MASSACHUSETTS

The plan of criminal procedure varies widely throughout the states of the United States. The Massachusetts plan involves release, probation, fine, suspended sentence and imprisonment. After the person arrested has recovered from his intoxication, he is permitted to "make a statement in writing, . . . giving his name and address, setting forth what persons, if any, are dependent upon him for support, his place of employment, if any, and whether he has been arrested for drunkenness within the twelve months next preceding, and requesting to be released from custody." If the probation officer, after looking up the man's previous record, believes his statement to be true and finds that he has not twice before been arrested for drunkenness within the preceding twelve months, he may release him forthwith without arraignment. In 1909 of the 90,550 arrested 78,450 made the optional statement, 67,821 were adjudged to be true, and 33,798 were released without trial.

The next step of the criminal procedure in order of severity is probation. The purpose of probation is threefold: first, to secure evidence supplementary to the prisoner's statement of his home and of his industrial and social environment; second, on the basis of this evidence to advise the judge as to the proper disposition of the case; and third, by sympathetic counsel based on a thorough understanding of the prisoner's personal problem, and by modification of the pris-

RECRUITS FOR THE BREADLINE.
Drunkenness helps swell the army of alms seekers.

oner's environment through putting him in touch with new constructive agencies—school, church, club, employment, etc., adapted to the case in question—to deflect him permanently from intemperance. Probation, though perhaps more concerned in Massachusetts with juvenile delinquency, was applied in 1909 to 8,177 cases of drunkenness.

The fine—ordinarily of five dollars, sometimes ten dollars—was applied to 23,667 cases. Of those fined 10,433 were imprisoned for non-payment. Since 1905 Massachusetts law has permitted, at the option of the judge, the suspended sentence, which allows the prisoner, if unable to pay his fine at once, to earn the fine and pay it to the probation officer. The suspended sentence has been adopted in certain courts and has been highly successful. Statistics are not available.

Imprisonment in local jails and county houses of correction was ordered in 8,709 cases. 10,433 other cases were imprisoned for from eight to twenty days in jail or houses of correction for non-payment of fine. Of the 8,709 sentenced to imprisonment, 8,298 were sentenced for a term of less than six months, 396 for from six to twelve months and but fifteen for one year or more. Indeterminate sentence was ordered for 2,472 men and 234 women at the State Farm, for fifty-one men to the Massachusetts Reformatory and for ninety-five women to the Reformatory Prison for Women. Of the total 21,994 prisoners committed for drunkenness during the year, 19,142 were thus sent to jails and houses of correction—chiefly on short terms—and only 2,852 received indeterminate sentence to the better known reformatory institutions of the state.

Other cases appeal to superior court or are placed on file, which is equivalent to release from the court. No uniformity in procedure obtains among Massachusetts courts. Each of the above measures is applied with surprising variation to young and old offenders.

CRITICISM OF MASSACHUSETTS

Granted the applicability of penal measures to drunkenness certain comments on the above disposition of cases may be indicated. Release, which was

applied in thirty-six per cent of the cases arrested, is usually a wise procedure for first offenders, because for them arrest, followed by a night's imprisonment and admonition from the probation officer, is often an adequate deterrent from repetition of the offence. Release may, however, encourage inebriety in old offenders, who either escape detection within a given court or are arrested within different jurisdictions—for an insufficient probation staff seriously curtails co-operation between courts. Probation, which is essential to incipient cases, was applied in 1909 to but eight per cent of the drunkards arrested. The recent State Commission on Probation under the able direction of Deputy Commissioner Mulready is continuously strengthening this department in so far as their small staff and limited means permit. New and improved records and improved quality of officers have already resulted.

The fine, which is used almost exclusively in certain courts, is the most economical punitive measure for the state, if the incidence of the fine is upon the offender himself. If the fine is paid by innocent friends or by the drunkard's family, this measure may cause suffering and prove utterly unjust. Furthermore, if the prisoner or his friends cannot at once pay the fine and imprisonment ensues, the prisoner and his family are doubly punished and the state loses both the fine and the cost of the drunkard's maintenance in prison. The alternative provision, suspended sentence, has been adopted somewhat slowly by Massachusetts judges. It is advantageous in that it saves the state both the fine and the prison cost, and especially because it places the prisoner once again in the hands of the probation officer for constructive treatment.

Imprisonment for drunkenness, whether as result of direct sentence or of nonpayment of fine, is an exceedingly serious measure. It may deprive the drunkard's dependents of his earnings, may result in the loss of job by the drunkard, thus occasioning a dangerous period of unemployment upon release. Association with criminals in the prison may aid in making the drunkard a criminal. Prison is necessary for vicious, criminal or degenerate drunkards. It may mean ruin for certain types of intemperate workingmen.

Statistics of recidivism in prisons,

THE HOMELESS ARE NOT ALL DRUNKARDS, BUT MANY DRUNKARDS ARE HOMELESS.

which record 14,440 cases recognized as imprisoned within the same institutions two or more times and 1,262 cases seventeen or more times, are proof of the ineffectualness of the correctional system for certain types and afford justification of the adoption by the state of curative measures.

SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS

Throughout the past century there has been growing realization that intemperance, at least in certain of its forms, is either a disease or the expression of diseased mental or physical condition. In 1868 a joint special committee was appointed by the Legislature of Massachusetts to "consider the matter of inebriation as a disease, and the expediency of treating the same at Rainsford Island." The committee approved of the hospital treatment of inebriety, but was "not of the opinion that such an institution, established and supported exclusively by the state, would realize the best results." It found Rainsford Island to be an unsuitable location, and urged that "if humane and philanthropic persons would found such an institution the state could well afford to be a most liberal patron." Leave was asked to report to a subsequent Legislature but no decisive step was taken.

The culmination of years of agitation was reached in 1885 when the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, after a number of public hearings and consultation with medical experts, recommended to the General Court that an institution for inebriates be established by the state. The quality of this report is evidenced by the following extracts: "... discrimination should be exercised by the courts in reference to the character and reputation of those committed to it (the asylum). ... The expense of their maintenance in the institution so far as it exceed their earnings from farm labor and other occupations should be borne and paid by the state, except that each inmate having property or means of supporting himself should be required by law to pay for his maintenance out of his estate. ... The situation of such an institution should be in the country remote from any large town, but near the line of some railroad, and a tract of good farming land, of at least 150 acres in extent. ... The sale of intoxicating liquors within a radius of several miles of the institution should be forbidden under a penalty. ... As occupations ... farm labor, gardening, and readily acquired and light mechanical employments are recommended." This report and contemporary agitation resulted in immediate provision for inebriate patients in hospitals for the insane. In 1889 the establishment of the Massachusetts Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates at Foxborough was authorized, and in 1893 the hospital was opened.

COMMITMENT AT FOXBOROUGH

In the early part of its history the Foxborough Hospital received inebriates of confirmed and even vicious or degenerate types, until workhouse methods were necessitated. By 1907 the institution had fallen under popular disapproval; a state investigation was made, and although no specific delinquency was found in the old management the hospital was entirely reorganized. A new board of trustees, carefully chosen to represent the state probation service, the medical and legal professions and general citizenship, was appointed. Robert A. Woods of Boston was made chairman of the board. The services of Dr. Irwin H. Neff as superintendent were secured. To his able direction and to the initiative of the present board of trustees the greatly increased scope and effectiveness of the work of the Foxborough State Hospital may be ascribed.

Hospital treatment for inebriates is based on the assumption that inebriety is a pathologic state and amenable to curative treatment. It is not assumed that all cases of drunkenness are pathologic. On the contrary, the recent special report of the board of trustees of the Foxborough Hospital carefully classifies drunkards into three main groups: the accidental drunkard, the occasional drunkard, usually of the holiday or week end type; and the habitual drunkard. It is only within this last group that intem-

MASSACHUSETTS TEACHES DRUNKARDS VARIOUS USES FOR WATER.

perance is commonly beyond the will of the drunkard and that curative rather than correctional treatment is demanded. Even among habitual inebriates—the victims of a morbid craving for the drug, alcohol—not all cases are apparently to be permanently benefited by hospital treatment. Indeed there is among drunkards a large proportion of individuals in whom intemperance is but an expression of prior mental or physical degeneracy. Others have caused in themselves mental impairment through years of excessive drinking and are, in just so far, unfit cases for hospital treatment. There is another large group, too, who have begun drinking in excess only after they are past the prime of life—hoping perhaps by stimulants to retain their ebbing powers. Owing to the very physical and mental breakup of this period—technically known as the period of involution—the patient is seldom able to co-operate in his own cure, thus rendering hospital methods of slight avail. The most hopeful case for hospital treatment is rather the normal man whom bad hygiene, poorly cooked food, domestic troubles or business worry has driven to the constant use of alcohol, until ever increased craving and ever decreased vitality result in true narcomania. This group and the periodic drunkards for whom hospital treatment is valuable during attacks form the most curable classes of habitual drunkards. Experience has shown, however, that it is unsafe to term any type of habitual inebriate incurable until after prolonged inspection. For each new case is a problem in itself and must be considered according to its own history and make-up, hereditary and environmental.

METHODS OF COMMITMENT

There are three ways in which patients are admitted to the hospital. The first and oldest method is commitment by the court upon petition of friends or relatives, followed by medical examination. The second method is the voluntary application of the drunkard; seven per cent of all admissions to the hospital are of this sort. A third and recent method, designed to effect easy co-operation between the hospital and the criminal court, is the placing of young habitual drunkards on probation on condition that they spend a certain specified period at the hospital. In this way it is hoped that cases arrested for drunkenness and recognized by the probation officer as pathologic cases may be saved from penal measures and cured of inebriety while the disease is yet young.

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MEANS TO RESTORE DRUNKARDS

The means by which the hospital restores the inebriate to manhood and to economic productivity vary necessarily with the case. But certain rules are almost universally applicable. The patients should be restored to physical health by proper nourishment, sanitary conditions, regular hours, and out of door work and recreation. Diseases of the body, which sometimes largely condition inebriety, must be cured by proper medical care. All this, however, has been done for many years by our better prisons and reformatories without curing chronic inebriety. For in addition to rebuilding the body it is essential to strengthen the will to resist alcohol and to prepare an environment favorable to the free play of this will. The mental treatment of patients takes the form of daily interviews, whether in the office of the superintendent and assistant physicians or in the field, workshop, or recreation rooms. The interest of the patient in his case is sought and co-operation in the cure solicited. If such co-operation can be secured the patient's case is a hopeful one. If, after the strength of body has been restored, the mind still fails to respond to the suggestion of cure, the chances of lasting improvement are very slight. For this very reason voluntary cases are ordinarily hopeful in that they imply the consent of the patient. This further accounts for the less frequent curability of the prison rounder type in whom inherited degeneracy or years of acquired depravity render mental response impossible.

Shortly after the admission of the patient to the hospital, when the first effects of debauchery are healed, there comes a period of restlessness, characteristic of convalescence, in which the patient wishes to get away. Despite repeated experiences to the contrary, he sincerely believes he will not drink again, at least not in excess. In this trying period the educative process is begun. The body must be trained to regularity of habit, a recognized bulwark against intemperance; the mind must be made to see the situation and its remedies; the will must be induced to co-operate; and, not the least important, an occupation must be found for the patient, which will keep his interest and his health and better prepare him for employment upon his withdrawal from the hospital. Many patients have been casual laborers. For these the hospital should become so far as possible a trade school, where the patient may become proficient at a trade in which the work is regular and the remuneration adequate. Men already skilled at a trade can often be kept at that work at the hospital, or may at the discretion of the superintendent be put to work at something entirely different, thus to awaken fresh interest and give them a new grasp on life. Out of door work, such as farming, horticulture, grading of lawns, care of poultry, live stock and stables, erection of buildings, and construction of sidewalks and roads, is often most desirable and at the same time can be conducted to the ultimate profit of the hospital.

Hospital treatment is desirable, in that it permits the reconstruction of the drunkard apart from his old associates and influences. A hospital is, however, at the best an artificial environment and therefore a protracted stay for most patients is inadvisable. On the other hand, there is danger of a too sudden return to the old or even to a new environment, away from the sustaining influences of the hospital. This danger has been met by a new and exceedingly important measure initiated last year by the board of trustees of the Foxborough Hospital—the establishment of an out-patient department.

AFTER-CARE OF CASES

The first duty of the out-patient physician, an office now held by Dr. John A. Horgan, is to become acquainted with the patients while in the hospital. The next requisite step is a visit to the patient's home while he is yet in the hospital. This is done both as a means for acquiring added working data relative to the case and, quite as important, for the purpose of instructing the family in the nature of the disease, inebriety, thus preparing them for the proper reception of the patient upon his return home.

REAWAKENING INTEREST IN WORK.

In this way querulousness or its opposite, weak indulgence of the drunkard by wife, mother or other members of the household, has been changed into intelligent aid, based upon an understanding of the patient's strength or weakness.

A small degree of protection of the patient from the presence of alcohol on the family table, or from old, destructive associations will render the determination made in the hospital more possible of fullfilment, even though other conditions remain to some degree adverse. Beyond the protection of the patient lies the formation of a truly constructive environment. Through the family or the out-patient physician work is found ready for the patient on his exit from the hospital, so that no period of unemployment and consequent discouragement may destroy the newly acquired self-mastery. Sometimes conditions require a new trade, but in general it is believed that a patient is not cured who is unable to return to his original industry and remain abstinent. The effort is made, however, to place the patient among helpful friends, in a temperance society, or church, or fraternal organization where better influences predominate. Often some individual is found who will represent the out-patient physician during his absence. Meanwhile visits of the out-patient physician or visits to the hospital at requisite intervals by the patient keep alive the influence of the hospital until the patient is firmly established in the outer world and abstinence has become habitual. Sometimes a patient has been overconfident of his powers and has left the hospital too soon. In such case no effort is made to retain him for there is no advantage in restraining a patient when he is determined to leave; he is no longer amenable to cure. If, however, the out-patient physician finds him after an unsuccessful battle with the old environment, he may be may be able to persuade him to return to the hospital, and thereafter a permanent cure may be effected.

The out-patient physician thus is the link hitherto lacking between the hospital and the outer world. He continues the treatment after the patient has left the hospital and prevents miscarriage of the hospital's efforts. As yet the hospital has but one out-patient physician. but in May, 1910, for example, he made in all forty-four visits to thirty-four homes of patients about to receive final discharge. He made 114 visits to the homes of sixty-six patients on leave of absence, and made thirty-one visits to the homes of patients already discharged.

Not content with the prevailing mode of penal treatment of drunkards in Massachusetts, or with the type of patients committed to the hospital, the trustees of the Foxborough Hospital have undertaken various measures to secure the requisite treatment for each type of drunkard. First, physicians of the state have been instructed through circulars and conferences of the hospital's methods and the type of cases desired. Second,

social workers after conferences and visits to Foxborough have begun to send proper cases and to work with the out-patient physician in the oversight of discharged patients. Third, the judges and probation officers have met with representatives of the hospital, and especially with the out-patient physician, to whom in many instances prospective patients are turned over for inspection before being committed to the hospital. In this way old, degenerate and otherwise hopeless cases, who by their presence in the hospital would bring an atmosphere of despair, are often eliminated at the place of arrest and younger or more desirable cases are increasingly received.

AN OLD FARM AS A REFORMER.

Administrative building Massachusetts State Institution at Foxborough.

NEW PLANS UNDER WAY

In 1909 it became evident to the Foxborough trustees, that a preliminary study of the conditions of drunkenness and of the prevailing modes of treatment within the state was essential, before radical changes of method and proper co-ordination could be effected. With the authorization of the Legislature a special report of the trustees of the Foxborough State Hospital, entitled Drunkenness in Massachusetts, was prepared and presented to the General Court of 1910. It contains a survey of drunkenness in Massachusetts and of the present ways, penal and curative, of dealing with it. Out of conditions as found, the board determined that certain immediate steps were necessary to adapt treatment to each type of case in question. Following the classification of drunkards into accidental, occasional and habitual, and the sub-classification of criminal and non-criminal, the board urges in general the release of accidental drunkards, and probation, fines, suspended sentence and rarely short term imprisonment for the occasional drunkard. The commonwealth is urged to abandon the practice of imprisonment for non-payment of fine. For habitual drunkards, if vicious, criminal or degenerate, indeterminate sentence to the State Farm is deemed best. For non-criminal habitual drunkards, if hopeful cases, treatment at the State Hospital by one of the usual three methods of admittance is recommended. The present hospital at Foxborough, however, is found to be inadequately equipped for the reception and requisite treatment of all eligible alcoholic and drug cases. Two other classes, inebriate women and incurable non-criminal men, are found to be ignored or wrongfully placed in prison or hospital under prevailing methods. It was recommended, therefore, that the state appropriate money for the purchase of a large tract in three adjoining townships, whereon a new hospital for men, a hospital for women, and a farm colony for incurable male inebriates might be erected through the labor of inmates. The Legislature appropriated $50,000 and land is now being sought. The three institutions as planned are to be under uniform management, a plan beneficial both for deeper study of the nature of inebriety in its various phases and for economy in finance.

When the plan is finally in use it will be possible for the hospital and its adjuncts to receive all pathologic cases whether male or female, curable or incurable. The incurable will be sent on indeterminate sentence to the farm colony and kept at productive labor apart from criminals and under medical care.

Transfer of cases from the farm colony to the hospital will be rendered possible under this uniform superintendence of cases which prove curable. It is hoped that all cases adjudged to be habitual drunkards, actual or incipient, will thus ultimately be sent either to the hospital on probation or to the colony on sentence, Under medical supervision they can be sub-classified and each case placed under the influences which it needs. Cases which prove refractory could be moved to the State Farm or to a house of correction.

By this plan, comprising release, probation, fine, suspended sentence, imprisonment for arrested drunkards, and hospitals with out-patient department and farm colony for both voluntary and court cases, it is hoped that the manufacture of criminals and sots from pathologic drunkards may cease, and that each type of drunkard, pathologic or wilful, may be brought to the peculiar corrective or curative treatment which his individual case demands. In this way needless drunkards can be eliminated from our courts and prisons, and a fair proportion of cases restored to health, economic productivity and valued citizenship.

IOWA STATE INSTITUTION FARM.
A skirmish line in the battle with inebriety.

SUNDAY PLAY[1]

JOSEPH LEE
PRESIDENT PLAYGROUND ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

I believe our Sunday laws forbidding play and sport are in the main an evil. I believe that they do much harm and prevent a great deal of good. I believe that games and play on Sunday, under proper restrictions as to time, place and noise, should be not only permitted but encouraged. I believe that the provision in our game laws forbidding fishing and shooting on Sunday is wrong. It is a rich man's law. It would be better to forbid these forms of sport on any day except Sunday, so as to reserve the game for the one day in the week when the average citizen can go after it.

That Sunday is to a great extent, for city children at least, a day of lawlessness and demoralization cannot, I think, be successfully disputed. There are, so far as I am aware, no statistics upon the point, but I have gathered a considerable amount of testimony from social workers to the effect that Sunday is at present the especial day for the planning and carrying out of mischief and lawbreaking in various forms, and that in particular it is, among city boys, very largely devoted to gambling. Whatever the ex-

[1] Address delivered at the fourth annual congress of the Playground Association of America, June 9, 1910.

planation may be, Sunday is, as a matter of fact, for great numbers, if not for the majority of our children, a radiating center of evil tendencies for the entire week.

And that Sunday should have a demoralizing effect would seem to be the inevitable result of our present Sunday laws. If its influence were not in great measure an evil one, it would not be for the omission on our part of the sort of measure best calculated to make it so. We rightly prohibit work on Sunday so far as practicable. Our laws to that effect are essential to the existence of Sunday and constitute a most beneficent piece of legislation. But by forbidding play also, we have done our best to make the day, for our young people at least, a day of idleness; and the distinction between enjoining idleness and promoting evil is one hardly worth insisting on.

It is true that we do permit some forms of Sunday play. Reading, gossip, paying visits, are lawful, as are also riding, yachting, automobiling and aviation. Walking also is permitted; but so far as games suited to young people and not requiring an independent fortune are concerned, we make our prohibition fairly general.

It is true, also, that we foster and support the church; and going to church represents for many, even of our young people, a most valuable part of what Sunday means and ought to mean. But we cannot spend all the waking hours in church, even if the hours we spend there are all waking hours. When church is over, there is still a long day left to be filled up, and sedentary pursuits would never wholly fill it for the young. It would seem as though we had entered into a certain sort of partnership, more common during the Middle Ages than it is today,—our contribution being to find the idle hands while the party of the other part, a reputed expert in that line, agrees to do the rest.

You know what happens when you make a dam across a brook. It backs up on people's lawns and orchards, floods their cellars, carries off their apples and other movable possessions, tears their shrubs and flowers, and drowns their hens. In short, it trespasses generally on their property and their goodnature, to the detriment of both. Whose fault is it in that case that these depredations occur? Who is in reality the creator of such area of devastation? In the analogous case now under consideration we have hitherto blamed the brook. I think it is time that we traced the evil a little nearer home.

Our present Sunday laws are like that unwise sort of factory legislation which forbids children to work without requiring them to go to school; except that our Sunday legislation goes a step further in forbidding play as well. It thus holds the first place as an example of legislation enjoining idleness and producing crime.

What has got us into this position is the fact that our Sunday laws are a survival, a shell left on the seashore, from which the living creature has departed, the negative side of an institution that no longer lives. The Puritan Sunday law was a positive, not a negative, enactment. The Sunday it prescribed was not a day of idleness but of observance. Going to church was mandatory, and church was carried on for several hours twice during the day. It must have been a torture to the young people, but at least it occupied them instead of merely cutting off all natural occupation and, except for an hour in the morning, leaving nothing in its place. We retain the restrictions after the conception of the Sabbath for which they stood has been abandoned. The fortress has become a prison. What was once armor against Satan and his wiles survives as an incumbrance that delivers us more helpless into his hands. It is as though we went down to business each morning rigged out in the breast plate and buff coat of some Puritan ancestor, carrying a flintlock along with us by way of walking stick, merely because these accessories were once useful as protection against Indian attacks.

There is already evidence of a practical and increasing recognition of the true cause of Sunday lawlessness. In New York the park board has opened Central Park for tennis and baseball on Sunday

afternoons. Similar Sunday opportunities are furnished in Chicago and elsewhere. In Boston we have learned to permit certain kinds of sport such as swimming, skating and tobogganing (not all at the same time of year); but anything in which a ball is used is still anathema. I believe that such exceptions to our Sunday law will grow until our whole public provision in the matter of Sunday play has been radically modified, and that the sooner such a change is brought about the better will it be for us. Exactly what modification should be made is a matter that must be worked out by experience and that will always be dealt with somewhat differently in different communities. In general, I believe that all kinds of games and sports that are permissible at any time, including ball games, should be allowed on Sunday, under proper restrictions as to time, place and noise. I do not believe that such modification will take from Sunday any of the attributes that have endeavored it to us. On the contrary it is in the interest of Sunday, of its fuller realization, that we shall remove the fetters we have placed upon it.

But the great evil of our Sunday laws is not in the harm they do but in the good that they prevent. Their worst sin is against Sunday itself. Their revision is called for not merely because they have pushed poor human nature to the wall and forced it into lawbreaking in self-defence, but more especially because they have deprived this most beneficent institution of half its proper service to mankind.

What we need first of all to understand in looking at this question is that a day of idleness is not a day of rest. Our Sunday laws in prescribing idleness do not safeguard the Sabbath; they forbid its true observance. Rest for the young, for the healthy of any age, for anybody who is still in any sense alive, does not consist exclusively in lying down. What rests a man is not the attempt to stop the machinery of life, but the turning of the vital force into refreshing channels. The inevitably futile attempt to do nothing has the same effect on the human mechanism that is produced on a steamboat in a head sea when the screw comes out of water. The machine keeps on whirling just the same, only it racks the ship instead of sending her ahead. A boy will be more tired at the end of a day spent in idling about than after ten hours of some vigorous pursuit in the open air. We cannot too deeply take to heart the fact that for the human spirit loafing is not repose, but a source of fatigue and even of disease. Enforcement of Sunday idleness is, for a great proportion of the community at least, including all of the healthy young, the prohibition of Sunday rest.

And Sunday is not for rest alone. Its true service is a positive, not a negative one. It is not like the night, simply for sleep—a blank space between one working period and another. It is, on the contrary, a time set apart for the most important action of the week. It should be our fullest day and not our emptiest.

The churches have been right in this; and they have themselves supplied what is to most people an essential part of the re-creative experience for which Sunday stands. No Sunday legislation will be wise or adequate which fails to give them its protection and support. Church services should, for instance, be protected against the making of unnecessary noise in their neighborhood.

But Sunday is older than the church, and its purposes are wider than those that the church fulfills. The month and its division into weeks, if Darwin's hypothesis is correct, is older than man himself. Stamped in the physiology of all the mammals, and dating back to the time when the lives of our amphibious ancestors were governed by the period of the spring tides, the ancient sovereignty of the week seemingly justifies a generalization of Falstaff's sagacious boast, that we are ruled as the tide is by our noble and chaste mistress, the moon. At all events, whatever its physiological or historical foundation, the need of Sunday lies deep in human nature and would still be there even if there were no church; and it has other expressions than church going, important as that is.

There is, however, one other use of

Sunday, which is analogous to church going and usually a part of it; namely, recollection, in the sense of the Italian word *racogliamento,* the re-collection or re-assembling of the soul. In every stream there should be now and then a pool in which the hurry and the noise cease and we can see into the depths. Sunday is the day to allow the dust to settle and look around, to pull ourselves together, to observe our bearings on our more universal relations, note the variation of the compass, and lay out our course anew. Such a periodic re-assembling is necessary to the integrity and permanence of life, to the cumulative value of character. And for this purpose as well as for church going, wanton and unnecessary noise on the Sunday should be suppressed. Match games, for instance, at which crowds are permitted to assemble, should be relegated, so far as feasible, to the remoter portions of the town.

But not even for the spiritual advantages of Sunday quiet must sounds incidental to other uses of the day be too strictly suppressed. People must still be allowed to play the organ and to sing hymns, even though it disturbs your meditation, and the same is true of other profitable observances.

An essential use of Sunday is as family day. It is the day on which the father is at home, the day for playing the new piece on the piano, for singing hymns and songs, seeing the baby's new tooth and making the old man himself show what he can do in reading aloud, or any other stunts he thinks he knows. It is the day for going to the beach, for country excursions and trolley rides, for visiting museums and parks. I believe it should be a condition on violation of which the charter of any well-mounted museum or library should be forfeited, that it should be open on Sunday afternoons.

In this connection the permission of professional baseball and other public entertainments might logically be discussed. But these form a separate question and one apart from my present subject. In general my own belief is that professional entertainments, including baseball, involving as they do Sunday work, should be prohibited except where, as in the case of municipal concerts, they are incidental to the use of some park or other desirable place of public recreation and enhance its value.

But besides rest, religion and recreation—the three R's of sabbatarian observance—and its use as family day, Sunday fulfills another more essential service, a service which embodies, indeed, the aboriginal and inclusive purpose for the sake of which such an institution exists. Sunday is the day of compensation, the day of fulfillment of those essential purposes of life for which the weekday has left no room. It is the day for completing the pattern, for weaving into the texture of our lives those main strands of being which would otherwise be left out, and without which we are not quite alive.

A young man has spent the week bending over the columns of a ledger. A young woman has passed the working days standing at a machine making a few simple motions of the hand. The golden hours of strength and youth, the morning hours in which the vital current is at its height, which mould life and destiny in their image according to the use we make of them, have gone in such employments as these. Obviously some special provision must be made, some compensatory activity supplied, if life worthy of the name is to be preserved. The same is true of many lives of workers in our mills and factories. It is true to some extent of any life under the system of industrial specialization. For hardly any employment is so broad and catholic, so pervious to the motions of the human spirit, as wholly to convey the soul of any man.

It is true that perhaps the greatest good fortune of our modern world lies in the fact that we have outlived the notion that useful work can be degrading. But it is time we came to recognize the truth that lay behind that superstition. It should be at least a sobering thought that the great majority of us are living, and that our young people are growing

and taking form, under conditions that the vast majority of mankind have looked upon as involving a disgrace. Has a sentiment universally admitted until within a comparatively insignificant period of time been so devoid of truth as we now suppose? Is the Indian so wholly wrong when he refuses to surrender the free life of the plains to become the drudge of the factory and the dweller in a city tenement? Was the chivalric ideal of devotion to love and war so wholly mistaken that the life of a mill operative can be accepted as in all respects an advantageous substitute? Was the opinion of the ancient philosophers, that virtue and industrial occupation were incompatible, so far astray that we can accept industrial occupation of the narrower sort as morally sufficient in itself?

Specialization is a great industrial principle and a chief means of modern civilization. And specialization may be also a means of spiritual success where it enables a man to carry an art to the point of mastery, so concentrating his power that he may break through at some one point into a higher circle of expression and of life. But even in such a case, where specialization is in some art capable of being the vehicle of the human spirit, there is need of supplementary activity. No man is quite all singer, sculptor, scientist. Even in the case of these, some overflow, some supplementary activity, is necessary. There is some observance still due to that part of the bounteous human nature in them that even their art could not convey.

But specialization as we see it in our modern industry is not specialization upon an art nor according to the laws of art. It is not even specialization upon a service, upon a whole achievement of any sort. It is specialization within the task, carried often to so extreme a point, leaving to each worker so minute a contribution to the result, that nothing of significance is left. It is like the division of a fabric into pieces so small that neither form nor color is any longer visible. There is nothing left, either in the sort of activity or in its relation to results produced, that can become to any important degree a channel for the human soul.

A man, it is true, can so add up his column of figures that they shall become columns of strength and beauty in his life. He can so devote himself to any task as to make it an expression of moral worth. But he cannot through every task liberate the creative principle, utter the word that nature has intrusted to him. A man, if he has a hero's soul, can die heroically under any circumstances. But social conditions under which death and renunciation are the best opportunity offered cannot be considered a success. It is the business of society to offer to its members a way of life, not merely the liberty to die. As industrial civilization advances, and with it specialization becomes more extreme, the need of some other outlet, of some overflow for the part of human nature that industry leaves unexpressed, becomes intensified.

The truth behind the ancient feeling that menial labor is degrading, behind our instinct that the life of the factory drudge is not a life, is that man power is not like steam power a mere matter of foot tons. Man's strength does not consist of simple undifferentiated capacity for muscular contraction or nervous effort. It is, on the contrary, a power in great part prescribed, committed, billeted to certain ends. It exists only toward its predestined tasks and withers or ceases altogether except as it finds a way to these.

Man is the creature of certain kinds of acts and exists only as he embodies them—a fact that can be verified by anyone who will watch a growing child. There the process of his construction is laid before the eyes of whoever will take the trouble to observe. From the time when the baby finds his hands, wields his rattle or his spoon, you can trace the growth through achievement of the achieving animal, the self-creation of this creature who becomes himself through the doing of things that are to him significant. Through action are then visibly wound the main fibers of his being. You can see man the creator fashioning himself through the making of

block houses and mud pies; man the nurturer growing through the care of dolls and pets and plants; man the poet evolved in the rhythmic plays, man the scientist in plays of imitation, of collecting, dissecting, classifying; man the fighter wrought in the hundred games of contest, man the hunter in the chasing games, and man the citizen through team play.

There in children's play you can see going on before your eyes, in a series of acts clear and unmistakable, the process that makes man what he is. And the essential point to observe is that, through all his life, it is by obedience to these constituting activities which first created him that he keeps himself alive.

Man is the incarnation of his leading instincts—not primarily of the mere appetites or hungers, which control the subordinate, physiological manifestations of his being, but more wholly and pervasively by the great forthputting instincts, the creative, the assertive, the instincts of achievement. In the deepest sense he is these instincts. They are the ultimate fact about him, giving his true form and law, constituting the final and irreducible substance of which he is composed. His body is their tool. His mind and heart are emanations of them. Man is a process. His law is a law of action. Matter passes through him as through a wave in a rapid, and takes the shape which the law of his action gives it, as it obeys the laws of gravitation and momentum in the wave. He is not the material but the law, or rather the fulfillment of it, and exists as he embodies it.

In proportion as he is a maker, a fighter, a hunter, a nurturer, an investigator, a citizen, an artist—achievement set to rhythm—the man is really there. Uninformed by these constituent purposes he is a scarecrow, a derelict, the left-off clothes of a soul that has abdicated. These purposes create the man in the play and apprenticeship of his long infancy. In maturity their fulfillment still constitutes his life. When they cease to operate, the flame goes out.

That life is in these master instincts is a fact not opposed to or inconsistent with morality. Whatever the governing or selecting principle may be—an instinct of instincts, pure reason, conscience, oversoul, however it may be named, the bearer of ultimate authority enforced by the power of life and death—the master instincts constitute the substance with which this selecting principle has to deal. They form the realm of which volition is the king.

And obedience to the achieving instincts is never self-indulgence but always self-surrender. Their prescription states itself ever in the form of an extra-personal ideal, inexorable, independent of the subject's will. The true fighter, artist, nurturer, citizen, is such through subordination to an impersonal end, often to the sacrifice of life itself.

Man as his active nature has thus created him finds himself to a great extent a stranger in the modern world. It is no longer the world for which nature designed him, to which his great constituent instincts accurately relate. It is no longer a world of war and hunting, and it is for many of its people becoming a world in which even the building, creating instinct finds but a meager satisfaction. Man the hunter, the nurturer, the creator, finds himself set down for the best hours of his day, during all the working years of life to tasks so dessicated of all meaning, so barren of power to convey the expression of a human soul, that the soul is well-nigh starved out of him. That store of vital energy which should have gone to fighting him out a way of utterance has run to spiritual waste and left him dumb, imprisoned. This is the tragedy of civilization—that the end of all our labor and our sacrifice has been, for so many men and women, the defeat of that inner life which it was our whole object to preserve.

Mr. Roosevelt's insistence on the moral value of war and of the warlike virtues indicates a sound spiritual instinct. William James, in his search for peaceful substitutes for war, is a pioneer in a program of conservation of spiritual values that will before long constitute an essential feature in the policy of all pro-

gressive communities. But fighting is only one of the vital instincts left unfulfilled in modern industry. Civilization is largely the substitution of processes that effectively secure a living for more ancient ones which, though less efficient to that end, had the inestimable virtue that they also expressed a life. The cure is, in part, to re-charge these processes with the power of expression.

The deepest industrial problem of our time is not the problem of wages or even that of proper hygienic conditions, important as these are, but of so preparing the man for his employment, and modifying the employment to fit the man, that the process of gaining a livelihood shall no longer be, in so large a proportion of instances, a denial of the possibility of life itself.

Such is our weekday problem—as Ruskin so well saw and said—to find the artist in the artisan, to restore man the creator in the present slave to the making of useful things. Our Sunday problem is supplementary—to find room for that part of each man's life which his daily industry has shown itself unable to contain.

And this problem is not a hopeless one. If civilization has for a great proportion of mankind sterilized the working day, it has provided compensation in its enhancement of the possibilities of leisure. What it has taken from industry it has more than given back in art. Music, poetry and literature are more satisfying embodiments of life than nature ever gave. But for those who are denied participation in its leisure, whose loss in industry is not returned in art, civilization has been a loss almost unrelieved. It is to the opportunities of leisure as provided by a shorter working day, and above all to those afforded by Sunday, in which there is not merely leisure but strength and daylight and the morning hours, that civilized man must look for compensation. Sunday is the people's university, the day of liberal education, devoted to universal interests. It is the day for cultivating those things that belong to us not as industrial implements but as men.

I will return to the hills whence is my strength. Sunday is renewal, a rejoining of the primal sources of our life. In the island of Capri they have a pretty custom, a survival such as one finds in all South Italy of the Greek processional religion, in accordance with which the Madonna goes every spring for a week to revisit her former home down by the seashore where the church used to stand. There is an important symbolism in this old ceremony, and one in harmony with our present theme. Sunday is the day for revisiting the ancient shrines, for going back to the fountains of our strength, back in our racial past, for excursions to our ancient abode by stream and wood and seashore, for the revival of the joy of war, of the chase, and of intense membership as found in the great team games.

The true Sunday will be partly different for different men. Each to his natural habitat as Mother Nature calls. The artist condemned to office work will turn to his carving, the musician to his violin. The born teacher will spend his Sunday with the children—and all of us, I hope, are teachers to some extent. The Nimrod will to the woods, the poet to the hills, the soldier to some athletic contest. That which he should have been and is not in his daily work, each man will diligently seek on the day given him for this very purpose, that he should keep his soul alive.

The forbidding of such pious pilgrimage on that one day of the week consecrated by nature, and by the wiser portions of our law, to the end that such pilgrimage may be made, is not truly a Sunday law but a law to the effect that Sunday shall not exist.

Even those whose good fortune has placed them among the expressive trades, the lawyer, the doctor, the business man, require some avocation to keep them fully human and alive. To the clerk, the factory hand, whose weekday life is within the covers of a ledger or in the making of a simple muscular contraction—to these Sunday is their one chance of life, their day of standing erect, of resuming the form and stature of a man.

Sunday is the day of the lost talents,

of unfulfilled possibilities, the day for keeping alive some little fragment of the original gift that nature made. And this one day our Sunday laws take from us, or at least greatly impair.

For the young the need of Sunday is especially vital, the loss of it especially severe. The master instincts of our lives are not all equally present at all periods. Youth is the reign of some of those whose fulfillment cannot be packed into the narrow confines of a sedentary or meaningless occupation. Our industrial world differs most markedly from that of which nature is still dreaming in every growing boy and girl. The young man is still in his heart a viking, a soldier, a mighty hunter before the Lord. His soul is not fulfilled by adding figures or watching a machine.

And to the young especially the matter is one of life and death. Obedience to the great expressive instincts is during infancy, even up to the full age of twenty-one, a matter not merely of preserving life but of attaining it. With young people the question is not of survival merely but of whether they shall ever live at all. To our boys and girls from fourteen to twenty-one years old, of whom a large and increasing proportion of our factory population now consists, our Sunday laws are the denial of life, the permanent dwarfing, through starvation, of the growing soul.

The whole purpose of Sunday is a chance to grow and live. It is the one day consecrated and set aside, by nature and by man, to such fulfillment of our humanity as the necessities of our week-day labor cannot afford. When, on the top of long hours of sterilizing work, we impose this Sunday law to rob the mature worker and the growing youth of the one day in which nature might have had her part in them, to make them strong and beautiful and happy, we have sinned against nature and against the spirit of Sunday, the brightest and happiest of our institutions.

OUT OF THE DEPTHS

MARY BOYLE O'REILLY

The cold spring sunlight streaming through the great bare windows filled the interior of the prison chapel with light without warmth. From her high seat near the lecturn the commissioner studied the long lines of uniformed women on whose bowed heads and shoulders rested the intangible burden of shadowy bars. Women of every age were there, of many nations, each the central figure of a tragedy; but sitting thus in serried ranks, they looked more like one another than like their nearest relatives. Victims they were of weakness, victims of affection, victims—perhaps—of circumstances entirely beyond their control; face and figure and manner proclaimed the fore-ordained fate of each.

The service droned on: perfunctory platitudes on the one side; sullen indifference on the other. With sinking heart the commissioner searched every face for a look that responded. Dull, brute-like inertia she saw, cynical attention, hysteric absorption. The exercise seemed a parody of worship. At last the files rose for the benediction and above the rest, clean cut and straight as a pine tree, towered one foreign woman, an Italian contadina, her classic face set in lines of strong resistance. For her there was no service, no prayer of praise or pleading; nothing but rebellion bitter and impotent.

Presently the files were passing from the chapel. "How long has that conduct continued?" questioned the visiting commissioner. "Who is she? What is the offense?"

The warden, justly proud of knowing of her charges individually, answered at once:

"She is Vittoria Casabianca, committed on an indeterminate sentence, found

Footnote: By the statute law of Massachusetts the prisons of the state are in charge of the Board of Prison Commissioners (unsalaried, appointed for five year terms by the governor), of whom two must be women.

guilty of concealing a murderer; charged also with adultery against which she refused to plead. Her conduct record is good, but she has always behaved as you saw at prayers."

"The woman is under a cruel spiritual strain," commented the commissioner. "Arrange, please, that she is not forced to attend chapel. Give her, if you can, a chance to be of service. So she must find herself. Has she asked to see me? No? Then the rest may wait till her case comes up for probation."

Thus the matter rested.

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The commissioner sat at her table studying the papers she must sign for good or for ill. As she wrote slowly, reflectively, fitful puffs of hot air rustled the loose sheets. Outside the pitiless sun beat down on the scorched earth holding all living things in the grip of the searing heat. In the prison corridor an advancing and a retreating footstep echoed insistently. Next moment a newcomer came through the office door with the swift, silent stride of a mountaineer, a prisoner in the prime of early womanhood, stalwart, nobly featured, a little gaunt and entirely rebellious.

"I am Vittoria Casabianca," she announced.

"Be seated," said the commissioner. "Shall we take up this record together?" The quiet voice held no echo of cant.

Silence. The newcomer's heavy brows frowned defiance, a flush of dull red showed in her olive-tinted cheeks. A moment the other woman waited patiently, then, "Vittoria, what is it that you want to say to me?"

Slowly, very slowly, the cameo face was lifted and the sensitive mouth became flexible.

"I call God to witness that I am a good woman."

"Pazienza," said the commissioner frankly. "I have never doubted that you are a good woman. Tell me how this trouble began." An instant her understanding glance met the candid eyes searching her face, then fell to the paper on which her pen made idle traceries.

Again silence. One woman's eyes were fixed on the diagrams she was dotting, the other's on the toil-worn hands eloquently restless before her. Outside, in the sun-smitten world, birds twittered lazily in the languid trees, and the long drawn swish of scythes in the standing grass sounded soft, then sibilant. A breath of cooler air, edged with the promise of coming rain, filled the bare room with an illusive odor of pine woods and sea. Lost in memories the Italian woman stared through the long window. Her unseeing glance took no note of the prim little garden, for the eyes of her spirit were seeing, clear and true as the eyes of the spirit see always—a long sun-drenched reach of terraced vineyards purple and gold with grapes, great white oxen resting under the shade of mighty bronze oaks, gnarled old olives shimmering white in a cloudless Piedmont noon, and far off, beyond the swarming foothills, the dim grey Al[p]s making a background full of peace.

"Begin at the beginning," urged the commissioner's quiet voice breaking the spell. The fine Piedmontese face was suddenly lined with pain.

"Illustrissima—It is a ver' long story—it is perhaps too long"; the unsteady voice entreated then—none interrupting—gathered courage. *"Illustrissima,* it is 'dis way: I was god-daughter of ma' uncle. We were poor in Italy—so poor—no gotta' black bread and onions for all. Ma' uncle in Boston he was rich—so rich—always two dolla' a day. I was eighteen. He sent money for me. While I sail on da' sea he die. *Sfortunata!* When I come by his house his wife—ma' aunt—being of Napoli—she open da' door a little—she say—'Oh! it's you—whatta' you wanta'? He is gone. 'Dere is notta' place here for you.' *Illustrissima,* I was alone. I was eighteen. A good woman, neighbor to us in the mountains, call me to her house, give me a bed, teach me to wear da' hat, get me a job on da' factory with her own girl. *Chè.* Never will I forget 'dat. . . . Then I married Giusseppe." The full throated voice grew husky.

"We had a home. Me tink 'dat some day—but it was notta' to be. Ma' husband he die. *Altro!* I go back to da' factory. I could not talk an' laugh like

'dose odder girls. They call me *'La Superba'*—the proud one. So I am da' best worker in da' factory; also, I keep ma' home—tree room—just like Giusseppe fix 'dem."

"Den com 'dat woman who was my friend crying and weeping. *Poverina!* Her son, Luigi, had knifed his man up by Worcester because of an infamy. It was a just quarrel, *Illustrissima*—a vendetta! But yes, da' man was dead. Luigi must fly to Italy. In two days would come a ship. His modder could not to hide him. So she came to me. *Santo Dio!* Was I to deny her? I?" The war-like spirit of Piedmont rang in the sonorous tones. "It was da' widow of ma' uncle that told the police—maladictions on her! So 'dey took me—but Luigi escaped!"

"But that other charge, Vittoria? Why did you not clear your name of the other charge?" Again the black brows scowled darkly.

"Eccellenza' for seven year I have live alone in this Amerika. . . Always I have turn my face odder way when I saw evil. . . . *'Non bisogna aver paura che dei nostri peccati.* ('No need to fear any but our own sins.') . . . And 'dis shame was trust upon me!"

"Vittoria," said the commissioner quietly, "I think I understand; at least I am going to release you on probation; and when you go back to the old home, back to the factory, I want you to begin again to go to church."

The soul that had tested the bitter gamut of pain looked out of the velvety eyes. The prisoner's attitude acquired a maiden-life aloofness.

"It is impossible. . . . I kiss my hand up to you *Eccellenza.* . . . It is 'dat the Eccellenza does not understand. . . . Always since a child I have done ma best. Always I have gone to church. . . . Always I have prayed. But never have I been unreasonable with God. . . . Never have I asked Him for whatta' I should not have had. And this shame has come to me. Eccellenza, I pray no more."

"Adagio, adagio!" said the commissioner gently. "I did not ask you to pray. Only I require that you go regularly to church—into the church, you understand. But while you do not pray, to prevent your life becoming bitter and hollow, you must render service to some one in need. When you find and choose your service come and tell me. *Addio."*

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A fortnight of freedom passed with no sign from Vittoria. She had gone back to the familiar neighborhood, taken up the old burden with the shadow of the prison about her, and a barrier almost tangible shut her out from the world she knew. How cruel the utter loneliness had proved showed in her set face when the commissioner sent for her.

"Vittoria," she said, ignoring the obvious. "I have here a practically dying baby who must be carried to the state hospital. Tomorrow is Saturday, Monday is a holiday: Can you find time to do me this service? See what neglect will do!" The wee, wailing thing lay restless and grimacing with pain, its tiny hands grasping the vacant air. Above it the childless widow bent anxiously.

"Ah! *poverino!"* murmured the liquid voice. *"Mio diletto!* too early you learn that love is more than food! *Si! Si! Eccellenza,* I will taka' de *bambino.* To 'de state hospital, you say? Surely, yes." Her strong arms cradled the whimpering babe into comfort; the smile in her eyes touched her unsteady lips. And the two were gone.

On a golden day in harvest time Vittoria returned, a little shame-faced and rigid, but her brave, true self withal.

"Signora," she announced, "It is of 'dat service I would speak. You were right, truly right. I was wrong. So I have found a service because I was wrong. 'Dat is, if 'de *signora* permits. *Altro!* Does 'de *signora* know North street, down by the ships, 'dat is in the night? *Si?* De *signora* must 'scusa' if I say 'dat I am notta yet so old and bad looking I can go alone on 'dat North street at night. But I have a friend 'dat is as one hag—and witha' her it is safe 'dat I go. So if it is permitted for ma' service, I will go down 'dat vera' bad street till I see a girl walk alone, and to her I will say, 'Behold! I am a good woman; de policeman will say yes. I

want you to come home and sleep in my odder bed. It is ma' service to ask you. 'Dis will I do if it is permitted."

"It is permitted," answered the other woman. "Vittoria, I am proud of you."

The splendid service was a month old when Vittoria brought her work card to the office, and she, whose one pride lay in her industry, pointed with an easy laugh to the diminishing total for piece work.

"Once," she explained, "me tink always how much I can make . . . how fast ma' machine will go. Now it is different. Never I make mistake . . . never I spoil the work . . . always ma' fingers tink for me. But now I work notta' so fast because always I tink of the night, and 'dose girls I will find, and what I must say so 'de will come with me. But yes, it is a service."

The listener smiled her comment. There was nothing to be said.

Three days later Vittoria was in the office, eager, anxious, voluble with excitement.

"Madona Mia," she cried, all unconscious of the caressing term. "It was last night two days. In da' dark I saw a girl frightened, crying. Ma' heart say to me, 'Dat is a good girl.' Quickly I go to her. 'Den I say, 'Come by 'dis lamp—look at me! See, I am a good woman! Now come home and sleep in my odder bed. 'Dat is the will of the commissioner. Also it is ma' service. Come!" But no, she run from me, down on da' wharf. 'Dere it is all dark. 'Den I run too. Close by is da' water black and cold. 'Den I am afraid for 'dat girl she look wild. *Che!* I hold her tight and my heart cry out *'Madre Mia,* pray for me 'dat she do not fall into 'dat water.' Soon da' poor child come wid' me quiet enough. When she sees ma' little stove and ma' new lamp ah! 'den she cry! All night in her sleep she makes a moan. It comes morning when I call her. 'Den I tell her: 'But yes, see your clothes all dry and clean. Now eat some *polenta,* hot. Perhaps you have notta' home at all. So you can stay wid' me till you earn some money. 'Dis morning we go to ma' factory. 'De boss will give you a job because I ask it—I, Vittoria. Tonight we will come home to sleep. But I want you to know 'dat I understand why you ran down on 'dat wharf. Also I cannot watch you. I have ma' money to earn and ma' rent to pay. Child, you must watch yourself! *Altro!* tonight, before we go to sleep, I am going to take you to church. Afterwards you must choose a service. Then there will be two of us. Once I was wrong, but now I know. That is the only way.'"

THE AUSTRALIAN JOURNEY OF THE COLUMBIA PARK BOYS' CLUB

SIDNEY S. PEIXOTTO

In May, 1908, a committee of Australian men living in San Francisco waited upon me to discuss a possible visit of forty Australian boys to the United States on their way to England. They were to represent the Young Australia League, a Western Australia boys organization for the promotion of patriotism and the creation of a love for their national game, football. The committee asked the co-operation of the Columbia Park Boys' Club in forming a team to learn this unique and unknown outdoor game. The members offered their services as coaches. Later they were deeply impressed with the way in which our athletes took hold of the game and wrote enthusiastically to the officials in West Australia of the progress we were making. They further suggested that when the Australian boys' tour had ended, a return visit be proposed from the Columbia Park Boys of San Francisco. The Australian boys' trip did not take place. The large amount of money needed to carry out the enterprise could not be obtained and the boys had no means of producing an income. When it was

finally decided to abandon the Australian boys' trip, a hearty invitation was extended by the officials of the Young Australia League for the boys of the Columbia Park Boys' Club to make a tour under their auspices. The invitation promised that a month and a half's accommodations in the homes of Australian people would be assured during the West Australia part of the trip, and that upon my acceptance every effort would be made to secure the same promise in the other states of Australia. In January, 1909, I cabled an acceptance.

I decided to take a veteran party of boy members of the Columbia Park Boys' Club, composed almost entirely of those who had for many years made the summer walking trips through California. These boys composed a good band able to give two evening performances with entire change of musical program, including all phases of choral singing. They were pre-eminent in every form of athletics and singularly well developed as a result of years of gymnasium training and outdoor life. I had such confidence in their ability and good behavior and in my control of them, that I was certain we could make as great a success in a foreign country as we had achieved in our own state.

After months of preparation, we left San Francisco on the Steamer Mariposa on May 21, 1909. There were thirty-nine members of the club, Mr. Loy, our secretary and an accomplished pianist; Katharine Angelo, well known as a charity worker in San Francisco, who was to be matron to the boys, and Garnet Holme, famous as a dramatic coach in the University of California, who preceded the party one month as advance agent.

Our first stop was at the beautiful Island of Tahiti where we gave four performances to excellent audiences. Two days after leaving Tahiti we came to the quaint town of Raratonga on one of the Tonga Islands. On June 16 we arrived in Wellington, New Zealand, and from there traveled through the North Island by rail to Auckland, where we spent three days. We were received with great heartiness by everybody in the various towns. We left Auckland and arrived on July 2, after a five days' trip, in Sidney where a most cordial welcome awaited us. We were quartered in the Victoria Barracks as guests of the New South Wales government. We stayed twelve days in Sydney and then journeyed to Melbourne, stopping at six large towns on the way. After a ten days' stay in Melbourne, including a visit to the Victorian mining towns of Ballarat, Bendigo and Geelong, we took steamer for a seven days' trip to Perth, West Australia, where Jack Simons, the man responsible for our trip, lived, and the welcome was unbounded. We stayed in West Australia six weeks, visiting eighteen towns and going as far as the gold mines at Kalgoorlie, five hundred miles from Perth, in the midst of an Australian desert. We left Australia on October 2 and after five days' steamer travel came to Adelaide; a ten days' stay in Adelaide and we began a three weeks' tour of South Australia, continuing on to the silver mining town of Broken Hill, three hundred miles from Adelaide, and then through the mining, sheep raising and agricultural districts of this prosperous state. From Adelaide we went to Melbourne, stopping at eight large centers on the way. From Melbourne we took a steamer to Tasmania, visiting Hobart and Launceston, the two large cities of this state, and made a two weeks' tour along the northwest coast to Burnie, where we took the steamer back to Melbourne. The party stayed one week in Melbourne and then returned to Sydney, where it stayed twelve days. This ended the great tour of over 10,000 miles through Australasia. We took the steamer "Makura" on the seventeenth of January, 1910; stopped one day at Brisbane and three days at the Fiji Islands on the way to Honolulu, where we had the misfortune to be quarantined for two weeks on account of sickness aboard the steamer. After being released we spent six days in the city of Honolulu. We arrived home March 1, 1910, having been away on a successful trip just nine months and one week from the time we started.

During this long tour the boys of the

party gave 162 evening entertainments, twenty-four open air band concerts and twelve sport evenings in the open air. In athletics the boys played thirty-eight Australian rules football games, winning twenty-seven; twenty baseball games, winning eighteen, and five basketball games, winning all. Besides this the boys gave forty exhibition baseball games between two nines composed of members of the party, and twenty-two exhibition basketball games. They shot twelve rifle matches with crack cadet teams of Australia, and took part in a number of swimming and other athletic field days. Every night, before the performance, the band paraded the streets, and one can see the boys were busy every moment of the day, from the time they arose to the time they went to bed at eleven o'clock in the evening.

It was a vigorous, delightful and hard-working trip. The continuous travel by rail, making early trains, and the active life in the open air caused such a healthy spirit that not one of the boys on the whole trip had any taint of sickness. They enjoyed magnificent health every day they were out, although they landed in Australia in the middle of winter and left in January, when the very hot summer was at its height.

The cost of the trip is estimated at $28,000 of which the boys earned $23,000 through their entertainments and games —truly a wonderful showing. The trip would undoubtedly have paid all expenses had it been understood in the early days of our Australian visit, but there was a doubt in the minds of the Sydney and Melbourne football people as to the ability of our boys to play their game, and our early ventures were unprofitable. Through co-operating with local institutions, the party gave $4,000 to charity.

The boys were received everywhere with marked favor and good will. Throughout the seven months we spent in Australia, we were quartered, in every city and town, in the homes of the people. We left behind a love and good will that we believe will last forever. The boys' intelligence appealed to the Australian people and it can be said with truth that they have raised Australian conceptions of the merits of American boyhood.

In the seven states visited, over one hundred dinners and functions were arranged in our honor. In Sydney a brilliant outdoor reception was planned on the beautiful domain, at which Lord Chelmsford, governor of New South Wales, and Lady Chelmsford presented the party with a state flag. In Melbourne the flag of the Commonwealth of Australia was presented by the premier, the Hon. Alfred Deakin. In West Australia Sir Gerald Strickland and Lady Strickland presented a beautiful silk flag made by the girls of the Technical School in Perth. In Adelaide a state flag was presented by Sir Day Hort Bosanquet and Lady Bosanquet. At Hobart Sir Edward Barron and Lady Barron presented the party with a flag of Tasmania. At Brisbane Sir William MacGregor and Lady MacGregor presented the boys with a flag of Queensland. At Fiji the party was presented with a flag of the principality by Sir Everard Im Thurm, and in Honolulu Governor Frear presented the state flag of Hawaii in the throne room of the old king's palace. Besides these men, representing the king of England, the premiers of every state and the mayors of every city took occasion to say a fervent word of welcome to the visiting party.

This tour, historic in boys' work and education, will be the means of giving others the great privilege of travel. In September, 1911, a party of West Australia boys, headed by J. J. Simons, is to land in San Francisco and make a tour of the coast under the auspices of the Columbia Park Boys' Club. It is to be hoped that their journey will be extended to other states. They are coming prepared, as we were, with a band of music, theatrical performances and ball teams.

One of the greatest results of the trip has been the introduction of baseball among the boys of Australia. It has been played for many years in Australia by men who are cricketers in summer, but now for the first time the Australian school boys have taken up the game. In four months from the time of our departure from Melbourne to the time of

our arrival, eighteen boys' baseball teams had been formed in the public schools, and they were then playing an earnest competitive tournament for the championship of Melbourne. The same story was told us in Sydney. The boys were deeply interested in America's national game, and from later advices it can be stated that it has been placed on the Australian Boys' athletic calendar and promises to be popular.

The trip had a deep meaning to the members of the party. Every boy profited in many ways from the influences of such an outing. Not only were they all ruddy and healthy, each with ten pounds increased weight, but in mind and deportment the trip had positive results. The lessons of the trip have been valuable to the Columbia Park Boys' Club and we stand pledged to continue this idea, as contributing to its leadership in work with city boys.

SOME FACTS CONCERNING CERTAIN UNDERNOURISHED CHILDREN[1]

FRANCES PERKINS

No one today denies that in every large city in the United States there are many school children who are habitually undernourished, nor does any thinking person deny that this malnutrition results in susceptibility to disease, in inability to study, and in general inefficiency.

The question discussed at present is how to prevent malnutrition and relieve a situation which is felt to be intolerable, but the causes of which are so closely bound up with a variety of social ills that it is difficult to separate them distinctly. While a case of malnutrition is obvious to a physician, the elements in the daily life of the child which contribute to bring about this state are seldom well understood. The study here presented was made in an attempt to understand the family and social circumstances of a definite though small number of children who were obviously the victims of malnutrition.

The opportunity to make such an investigation arose in connection with an experiment in feeding undernourished children, conducted by the School Lunch Committee in February, 1910. The selection of the 107 children who were the subjects of this study was made by a Board of Health physician in a public school on the upper West Side of New York city. The doctor examined all the children in the four lower grades and selected those who were evidently suffering from malnutrition. The 107 cases so selected were thirteen per cent of all the children in those grades.

The committee offered these children free tickets for the regular school lunch for a period of three months, in the hope of testing the value of that luncheon and also in an attempt to build up the children. To carry out the experiment it was necessary to visit their homes and to obtain the consent and co-operation of the parents. Two or three visits were paid to each family and every effort was made to check up and verify the facts thus learned. Out of such conversations a wealth of material was accumulated—much of it meaningless when reduced to statistical form or by its nature irreducible to such form. The sight of many little children with the blight of hunger set upon their future, has made it impossible for the investigator and writer to forget that the material here treated in a cold, impersonal manner, is nevertheless a mass of human documents full of human misery. Such an investigation would be inexcusable unless its ultimate purpose were the lessening of the volume and intensity of that misery. The study is numerically small and the facts brought out must be taken simply as illustrative and suggestive material.

[1] This article is the report of a study made in the Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy.

PHYSICAL CONDITION

The first records examined were those relating to the physical condition of the children. The school doctor had examined them carefully and noted such defects as:

Defective teeth in 79 cases, 74 per cent.
Defective nasal breathing in 49 cases, 46 per cent.
Hypertrophied tonsils in 38 cases, 35 per cent.
Defective vision in 57 cases, 53 per cent.

In eight cases there was no doctor's record, but of all the others only one is recorded as having no physical defects, and sixty-nine have two or more of the above-mentioned defects.

Poor teeth are the commonest physical defect recorded. The great predominance of such non-nutritive foods as coffee or tea and bread in the diet of most of these children, and the almost universal habit of soaking the bread until it is soft, can hardly have failed to have some deteriorating effect on the teeth. Dental experts, too, agree that where the teeth become bad, whether from lack of care or lack of proper food, they are likely to bring about all sorts of digestive disorders. Thus, while defective teeth serve to aggravate malnutrition already established, it is equally true that undernourishment may have been the cause of the poor teeth.

Defective nasal breathing, of course, means adenoids. If the active cells which compose these glands in the nasal passages are not supplied with sufficient carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, they are unable to perform their secretive functions and, the cells being inactive, the glands gradually dry up and harden. Thus malnutrition may be the direct cause of adenoids, and the defective breathing caused by adenoids may greatly intensify the symptoms of malnutrition.

Hypertrophied tonsils, from which thirty-five per cent of the children suffered, are again hardened glands, and malnutrition may cause this condition and may be aggravated by it as in adenoids.

The three cases of weak lungs, while having no statistical value, are nevertheless illustrative of the doom hanging over some of these little children. They are peculiarly striking when it is recognized that all three of these children come from families classed as very poor —$85, $130, and $156 for each person yearly being their economic standing. One is a crippled boy (tuberculosis of the spine) in a family where two other children have tuberculosis of the bone and where seven children have died in infancy. The mother, a widow, earns about $300 a year, and on this attempts to support her family of five children. It is manifestly impossible to do this on any decent standard, and the result is that they dwell in three rooms, one of which is dark, and live mostly on bread and tea. One or two meals, rather than three, of even this poor diet is a frequent occurrence.

The second child is from a Russian-Jewish home, also very poor, with an income of $130 a year for each person. A working mother and a very poor diet, where coffee and bread regularly form two meals and where the third consists of soup or stew, add to the tragedy of a boy who already has weak lungs.

The third is an Italian boy with a continual pain in his chest and a bad cough which has lasted for two years. The father is a cobbler making $7 or $8 a week, and the family live in the basement rooms back of the shop. The lad with the pain in his chest sleeps in a semi-dark, damp room, and eats little besides macaroni, bread and coffee. One further element of hopelessness is that he has turned fourteen, has taken his working papers, and must get a factory job at once.

THE FAMILIES

The families from which these undernourished children came proved to be typical of the neighborhood and of the school population there. They are mostly Irish, German, or American by birth or recent descent. In many cases both father and mother were born in New York city and educated in the public schools. As a whole the families were intelligent and self-reliant. Only five families had ever asked for aid from the

Charity Organization Society or the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and in only five were there cases of marked intemperance.

For the most part the size of the families was normal:

47 families had 1, 2 or 3 children each.
50 families had 4 or 5 children.
8 families had 6 or 7 children.
2 families had 8 or more children.

THE HOME

The tenements of this district do not offer desirable homes to families of any income—old-law tenements, either the railroad type or the type which has small, glass-covered airshafts being the rule. This makes a very large number of dark and semi-dark rooms in all the houses, and it is difficult to find a flat where all the rooms are adequately ventilated. Sashes cut through into other rooms do not provide sufficient light and air for sleeping or living rooms. Only twenty-four families in this study appear to have escaped the undesirable dark rooms. Thirty children came from homes where one-half or more of the rooms in the apartment were dark and fifty from homes where one-third or more were dark.

Sleeping in dark, ill-ventilated rooms, as so many of these children do, can but add to their mal-nutrition, as the normal supply of oxygen from the air is cut off.

Overcrowding is by no means as characteristic of this neighborhood as of some tenement districts of New York. According to the standard of two or more persons to a room, thirty-three of these children were living under overcrowded conditions, while the border line cases of five people to three rooms, seven people to four rooms, etc., often represent quite as undesirable situations.

ECONOMIC STATUS

Malnutrition is so obviously connected with poverty that an attempt was made to classify the children on some basis which should make clear the number who were actually in poverty. Prof. Robert C. Chapin, in his Standard of Living in New York City,[1] says $900 for a family of five—two adults and three children—probably permits the maintenance of a normal standard so far as the physical man is concerned. "On this the family can keep body and soul together and meet the most urgent demands of decency." Any sum below this, Professor Chapin thinks, is not sufficient to maintain such a standard. This standard has been taken as the basis for the "poverty line" drawn in this tabulation.

Nine hundred dollars for a family of five is equal to $257 per adult person per year. The total income of each family in this study was compared with the number of persons dependent on that income. These include all members of the economic family—parents, dependent children, wage-earning children and dependent relatives. Two children under working age were considered as equal to one adult person in the distribution of income, and the total income of each family was divided by the number of adult persons so determined. The cases were then arranged in order of their incomes per person and the poverty line drawn at $257 a year for each person. Seventy-four cases, sixty-nine per cent, fell below this poverty line.

All sorts of trades and callings were represented among the workers in these families, and the wages received seemed to be at the accepted rate. Irregularity of work and so of income added to the distress in many cases. Except for the six widows' families and one or two where the head of the family appeared to be peculiarly shiftless, there seemed to be no special reason for the evident lack of income. It is a plain illustration of a situation where current wages are below the living standard.

In order to analyze the wages question a little more closely, the wages of heads of families were classified apart from the total family income, which included wages of children, and other items. The wage of the head of the family is the only permanent asset upon which a family can reckon. The wages of children add to the total income for only a few years between the time when they become of working age and the time when they marry and leave home. Thus, a family in comfortable circumstances to-

[1] The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families in New York City. By Robert Coit Chapin. Published by Charities Publication Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York, for the Russell Sage Foundation. Price postpaid $2.

day may have had a period of real poverty in the past—an influence which must be considered in accounting for the present malnutrition of the children in question.

Only fifteen heads of families earned $900 or more a year, while seventeen earned under $500 a year. Barely fifteen, then, of the fathers of the children here studied were in receipt of wages sufficient to support a normal family of three children on a normal standard.

It is evident that poverty and the fear of poverty have not been far from the lives of these undernourished children.

DIET

Information was gathered in regard to the home diet of these children, but any criticism of that diet must be made from a layman's viewpoint. Bread and coffee or tea for a growing child's daily breakfast are, even to the layman, an evidence of lack of proper food, and in eighty-one cases (seventy-five per cent) this is the regulation morning meal. In thirty cases (twenty-eight per cent) two meals a day—breakfast and supper—consist of this almost non-nutritive but bulky food. Four cases are reported as habitually going without one meal a day, usually breakfast.

Proper and sufficient food is the essential thing in preventing or curing malnutrition, and poor and insufficient food is quite as influential in causing it. Even this brief statement makes clear the fact that the family diet provided for these children is far from desirable.

CONTRIBUTING CIRCUMSTANCES

In reviewing the entire study, the writer attempted in each case to sum up the circumstances present in the life of that child which might contribute to bringing about the malnutrition. Few cases of malnutrition in any group can be laid with certainty at the door of one cause. Underfeeding is the one obvious explanation, and when sixty-nine per cent of the cases studied are shown to be in poverty, it is a thoroughly justifiable conclusion that a large part can be accounted for by this one thing—underfeeding. Other circumstances, however, mostly concomitants of poverty, appear in almost every case, and it is the presence of these elements which contribute to the poorly nourished condition that makes it necessary to qualify the statement that underfeeding, even among the poor, is the sole cause of malnutrition.

The close connection already pointed out between undernourishment and physical defects makes it difficult to decide whether physical disability is cause or result. The writer strongly inclines to the opinion—and in this she is supported by good medical authority—that it is most often a result of malnutrition. Once established, however, the physical weaknesses tend to increase the malnutrition, and for that reason they have been noted here as elements possibly contributing to malnutrition.

The circumstances most often found as contributing to malnutrition are grouped in the following table for the purpose of giving them their full value as causes:

Inadequate food in	84 cases
Overcrowding in	33 "
Sleeping in dark room in	39 "
Working mother in	16 "
Past poverty and underfeeding in	4 "
Physical disability in	45 "
Lack of exercise in	2 "
Smoking cigarettes in	2 "

SUMMARY

This study, because of the small number of cases included, has served chiefly to bring out suggestions which may be summarized as follows:

1. Physical disabilities of one kind and another are closely associated with malnutrition, and make it doubly dangerous.
2. In many cases the money spent on food is not spent to the best advantage from the point of view of nutritive value, and this is chiefly due to ignorance.
3. Actual underfeeding due to lack of income is the chief cause of malnutrition.
4. To the low wages paid to workingmen may be attributed the real reason for the underfeeding of children which so seriously menaces the vitality of the next generation.

Poverty undoubtedly comes first as a cause of the underfeeding so often indicated by this study, but ignorance is a close second. In fact, ignorance, discouragement and eternal weariness are but part of the wider heritage of poverty, and the rôle which these elements

play in bringing about the underfed child can hardly be overstated. The difficulties of tenement housekeeping, with no closets, no store rooms, no time and little money, make it likely that poor food will long prevail under such conditions. Undernourished children, too vitiated ever to rise out of poverty, are bound to result unless some constructive program hinders.

Perhaps we shall adopt the public feeding of school children as a temporary expedient to head off further degeneration due to underfeeding. If consistently carried out on an educational basis this plan has many desirable elements.

Perhaps we shall come to realize that malnutrition exists in all classes of society, and is often due as much to unwise feeding as to underfeeding. We may sooner or later agree that even private housekeeping is a social and community matter. Perhaps we shall see food prepared by public co-operative kitchens at great economy and in accordance with a scientific diet. The great difficulty of good housekeeping under modern city conditions, and especially among the poor, makes this seem a possibility. The writer believes that until the private frying-pan and its pernicious contents are abolished we shall have malnutrition.

Whatever measures of relief are discussed, it must always be remembered that an underfed child in school means an underfed family at home, a family with a standard of living below that which is socially desirable. This is a situation which no mere bowl of soup doled out to the child at school luncheon on five days in the week for ten months in the year is going to correct. It is also true that the cause of this poverty situation lies too deep to be permanently relieved by even the best organized charitable assistance. School-feeding and charitable relief for the family may both be used to advantage as temporary palliatives for an intolerable situation. The questions involved in preventing malnutrition are after all the two which are fundamental to all social reform—the question of increasing the rate of wages and the question of making education more widespread and more scientific. Temporary relief is necessary, and its method may well deserve discussion, but it is after all only an expedient to head off malnutrition until society adjusts itself and provides adequate incomes and adequate education to all its workers. The heading off must be done, however, and done at once, if we would preserve health and strength as the heritage of the nation.

INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF THE MONTH

GRAHAM TAYLOR

DR. HOLMES FOR THE MINES BUREAU

The mining industry has been the center of social interest during the summer. The creation of the new Bureau of Mines by Congress indicates the growing public interest in the conservation of both the coal deposit and the lives and welfare of the increasing multitude of men engaged in mining, as well as of the greater multitude of women and children depending upon their efficiency and safety. The bureau is charged with investigating the industry in order to prevent waste of life and to improve the methods of mining. This function hitherto has been partly fulfilled by the technologic branch of the United States Geological Survey. The Bureau of Mines is placed under the Interior Department, and its work is strictly specialized. It not only will unify and increase the number and efficiency of the federal miné stations, but will promote the establishment of and the co-operation with the state mine rescue stations.

Scarcely less important than the creation of the Bureau of Mines is the appointment of its first director. Its absorption of this work of the Geological Survey, for mines and miners, naturally

suggested Dr. Joseph A. Holmes, the expert in charge of the latter, as the best appointee for the new position. His nomination was still further suggested by his widely recognized scientific equipment, his long and varied experience, and his marked success in the conduct of that exacting work. The unanimity with which the coal operators and miners throughout the country urged his appointment, made the opposition of certain government officials appear both unseemly and suspicious. It is said to have been due to Dr. Holmes's avowed allegiance to the progressive conservation policy, with the personal controversy concerning which, however, he was not involved. President Taft's independence in appointing him, notwithstanding this opposition from those in high place, is to be appreciatively commended.

After graduating from Cornell University in 1881, where he made a special study of the chemistry of explosives and metallurgy, Dr. Holmes visited the mining regions of this country and Europe, observing especially the efforts to prevent loss of life and waste of resources. He was for ten ears professor of geology in the University of North Carolina, and later served as state geologist. Under the federal government he has studied the fuel value of coal fields, and his investigations of mine explosions lay the basis for the main work of the newly created Bureau of Mines. In company with prominent mining engineers from foreign countries, whose service was secured by President Roosevelt, he visited our important coal fields to learn what foreign safety practices might be introduced into this country. The three state mine rescue stations in Illinois and the twelve government stations—one in each of the larger mining states of the country—were planned by Dr. Holmes. His work has won the entire confidence of mine owners, miners and mining engineers.

Dr. Holmes's general policy as director of the Bureau of Mines could not be expressed more favorably to all the interests involved, than in his paper on The Prevention of Coal Mine Accidents before the National Civic Federation in New York city on the twenty-third of last November.[1]

His consideration for the men who invest their capital and those who risk their lives in the industry was well expressed in these words: "It is unjust and irrational that in this great and essential branch of industry, reasonable profit should be dependent upon any unnecessary sacrifice of human life, and unnecessary waste of resources which we can neither replace nor restore, and which will be essential to the future development of the country." His appeal to the public to deal fairly with both operators and miners should burn its way into the heart and conscience of the consumers of coal and our lawmakers: "This industry needs and deserves fair treatment at the hands of the American people, and upon its receipt of such treatment, depends in no small degree not only the welfare of the operator, but also of the 700,000 miners who risk their lives in supplying the fuel for the nation's industry, and the heat and light for the nation's comfort and convenience." The ring of high purpose in these utterances of Dr. Holmes himself goes far toward warranting the endorsement of a veteran United States senator, who said that in all his public life he could not remember anyone mentioned for office who had back of him such overwhelming testimony in favor of his fitness, as has been forthcoming in this case.

FIRST MINE RESCUE BUILDING

Happily, almost simultaneously with the appointment of Dr. Holmes, comes the announcement from Springfield, Ill., that work has been begun on the building for one of the three rescue stations established by the act of the last Legislature. This act was drafted and presented by the State Mining Investigating Commission on which Dr. Holmes has rendered very effective service, especially in drafting this bill as well as the one providing for protection against fire in mines. These three stations are to be installed and maintained at central points

[1]Quoted by THE SURVEY, January 29, 1910, in an article on An Epoch in American Mining, p. 575.

in the northern, central and southern mining districts of the state. They are to be equipped and manned for fire fighting and rescue work in coal mines, and to be in charge of men thoroughly trained to meet the extremely dangerous situations which suddenly confront both the victims and the rescuers in mining disasters. These men will not only know how to use scientific rescue appliances, such as oxygen helmets, but will train in the work of prevention, self-preservation and rescue, miners who will be sent to them in groups of ten or twenty at a time, to be kept at practice from a few days to a few weeks. In times of disaster these trained miners are expected to constitute a volunteer rescue corps, who will be willing and ready to use the knowledge they have received at the stations to save life and property. As at Cherry, the expert, disciplined and trained heads of these stations will naturally be called upon to lead the rescuers.

The station for the central district in Illinois at Springfield will be equipped with the first building of its kind in the United States. Its site, 180 by 250 feet, was selected by the special mine rescue station commission, and was presented to the state through the efforts of the Springfield Chamber of Commerce.

ILLINOIS COAL MINERS' STRIKE

Since the period of the trade agreement between the Illinois coal operators and the United Mine Workers of Illinois expired April 1, coal mining has been practically suspended in this state. Only the independent operators and some deserters from the association, whose mines produce by far the smaller portion of the product, have mined any coal. Over 72,000 miners have been idle through most of these six months, and 45,000 of them have been without work and wages all that time.

The struggle, which closed last month with a settlement more satisfactory to the miners than to the operators, has been remarkable on many accounts. It presents some phases of much general interest, aside from many more technical points of special interest only to the trade. In the background of the whole conflict is to be clearly recognized the unusually close relations long subsisting between the operators and the miners. The leaders of each are wont to call one another by their first names, and there are many evidences of personal friendship across the lines. For years, moreover, there has been very substantial agreement between the operators' association and the miners' union on the policies underlying their trade agreements. The operators depended upon dealing with fully organized men under a trade agreement, as surely as the men did.

BEARING ON CLOSED-SHOP ISSUE

Even the "closed-shop" apparently has been preferred by them, and has been urged upon the miners not only to protect the operators' association from competition with the independent mine owners, but to protect the better conditions of the Illinois miners from competitors in other states who have never conceded to their miners as favorable terms. When the suspension of work took place, however, it is to be noted that the miners' union did not respond to the appeal for the all around closed shop, much less contend for it. This goes to confirm the opinion of some of the closest and most unbiased observers of industrial conflicts, that the closed shop issue does not so much involve an invariable abstract principle as a very variable question of expediency. Under some circumstances it seems to the interest of both parties to have closed shops on both sides. Sometimes it is recognized by organized employers to be to their own advantage to deal only with organized employes. More constantly, though not always, the closed shop is considered essential to the existence of organized labor. But seldom are the unions willing to agree to work only for an employers' closed shop organization. The issue, therefore, is likely to settle itself on both sides according to expediency involving concrete points of advantage, rather than by any general declaration of a universally applicable principle, such as each side is accustomed to affirm in convention resolutions.

GRIEVANCE OF THE MINERS

There were two very irritating positions early in the struggle, taken by each side. The miners began to be irritated when the operators refused to bear the cost of the "shot-firing." The blasts were formerly fired by each miner for his own work. On account of many accidents due to the firing by inexperienced or careless men, the miners secured the passage of an act by the Legislature, requiring all shots involving the use of more than two pounds of powder to be fired by experienced shot firers, for whose pay the law held the operators responsible. But when the next trade agreement came to be made, the operators contended that the shot-firing is as much the miners' work as the digging of coal. They therefore insisted upon charging this expense back to the miners by reducing the wage scale. To this the miners submitted under protest. Their demand for an increase of five and a half per cent in wages is in part to cover this charge. But the miners insist that the shot-firing by experienced men, at fifty-three cents an hour, will cost the operators less in waste of coal and in damages for accidents than the old arrangement did. This point was unyieldingly demanded and reluctantly conceded. It is regarded as one of the greatest gains ever won by the United Mine Workers.

OPERATORS BEAR BRUNT OF FIGHT

The operators were as deeply aggrieved —and with good reason—by having the resumption of work so long delayed on account of a disagreement between the officials of the Illinois miners and the national officers of the United Mine Workers of America. This difference was immediately due to what the Illinois men resented as an interference by the national officers with the prerogative of the district organization to settle the details of the wage scale with their employers. The Illinois Coal Operators' Association protested against this as a disturbance of the competitive balance between them and the operators in competing districts. The national convention of the United Mine Workers at first undertook to settle the details for the Illinois agreement. But when the Illinois miners rejected this settlement by a referendum vote of 12,075 to 80, a special convention of the national body was held.

There the Illinois men, led by their president, John H. Walker, fought avowedly against not only the policy of the national president, T. L. Lewis, but against him personally. The finish came on an appeal from a decision of the chair, the Illinois contention, defeating President Lewis and his adherents by a vote of 1,201 against 927. This vote settled the policy of recognizing "district autonomy, local self-government, and the authority to settle internal details of the wage scale as fundamental rights." It would seem also to settle all chance of President Lewis's re-election at the next regular convention. With this result, the Illinois delegates went home apparently satisfied and willing to negotiate the settlement with the operators.

The joint trade agreement now ratified runs for two years. Under it the average increase in wages will be eight cents a ton, which it is estimated will amount to a gain of $4,000,000 annually.

THE MINERS' THREE LEADERS

A dramatic incident of this struggle was the calling of John Mitchell to preside by President Lewis when this decisive vote was about to be taken. This situation was the more intense from the fact that much of the resentment toward President Lewis is undoubtedly due to the jealously critical attitude which he and the *United Mine Workers' Journal* under his administration have assumed toward Mr. Mitchell, who was his predecessor for many years in the presidency. The devoted loyalty of the miners everywhere, and especially in Illinois, to their former leader was enthusiastically expressed by the prolonged cheering which greeted Mitchell when he took his seat as a member of the convention. When Mitchell temporarily took the chair, he was still further embarrassed by the fact, that while favoring most of the Illinois contentions he had objected

to one or more of them. But his good judgment, calm manner and great influence kept the convention strictly within parliamentary bounds in settling decisively the acute differences which threatened to rend its membership.

John H. Walker is also an interesting figure in all these scenes while conferring with the operators, addressing the mixed multitude of miners, or taking his prominent part in the heated discussions of the convention. Winsome in appearance, affable in manner, alert in mind, shrewd in argument, impassioned in speech, quick in judgment, determined in resolution, resourceful in tactics and with power in reserve, he is a born leader of men, in a cause to which he is so unreservedly devoted as that of the United Mine Workers. Perhaps his followers could not say of him what one of them said of John Mitchell, "I would die for him," but they have followed him unfalteringly through all the hard stress and strain of these trying months. And that is no small test of leadership when upon it were staked the livelihood and the future prospects of 70,000 men and their families, speaking a score of languages and having great differences in intelligence, temperament, self-discipline and experience. While an avowed socialist, he never subordinates or sacrifices his trade unionism to either the ideals or propaganda of socialism. At this point John Mitchell differs from him in refusing to share any part of his loyalty to trades unionism with socialism.

STRENGTH OF THE OPERATORS

Among the operators there are some strong, well-balanced, fair-minded, broad and considerate men. Some of them have the ruggedness of the miners' own ranks, in which they worked from boyhood and from which they came to ownership. Others of them have the discipline, scientific equipment and culture of the schools, supplemented by experience in mine construction and management. None of them stands out as prominently in the leadership of the others, as do the labor leaders among the miners. But, as a body of men, they are in advance of many groups of associated employers who boast of a leadership which they do not maintain.

It is to these qualities of head and heart, which to some extent have been shared by the leaders on both sides of this struggle, that its patient and peaceful progress toward solution is due. No violence or serious breach of personal relation has blackened the memory of this long and trying deadlock. The nearest approach to wanton destruction of property was the calling out on strike of the pump men and engineers, which not only permitted the flooding of the mines, but prevented the construction and reconstruction for which the new law for the protection of mines and the safety of life from fire called. This is justified by the strike leaders as a "war measure." But it was not considered justifiable even as such at the national convention of the United Mine Workers, whose officers creditably endeavored to undo this wrong.

TESTS OF POWER ON BOTH SIDES

The strength of the miners' organization is attested by the fact that the funds and assessments proved adequate to the support of from 45,000 to 72,000 men and their families during six months of their dependence. Their loyalty to each other was tested by the vote at the special convention, to raise the assessment upon the working miners for the maintenance of the men on strike from twenty-five cents a week to one dollar. The strength of the operators' association was demonstrated not less in holding together their own membership, than by their patient continuance in dealing with their organized employes, and in maintaining an attitude which will put them in position to influence the United Mine Workers of America in the future as they have done in the past.

THE TREND OF THINGS

On the preventive side of the problem of industrial accidents, it is interesting to notice that two of the large liability insurance companies have in the last year published books on safeguarding machinery. Safeguards, by David Van Schaack of the Aetna Life Insurance Company, is general in scope. The education of the workman by printed rules, together with the careful enforcement of these rules by the superintendent, he holds to be the first essential. Then come those general conditions for which employer and superintendent can alone be held responsible—insufficient lighting, overcrowding, bad ventilation, and uncleanly conditions liable to cause fire or dust explosions. About a dozen pages are devoted to simple methods of safeguarding common types of machinery, and the rest of the book, over one hundred pages, to illustrations, photographs taken by Aetna inspectors, of particular types of safeguards.

The handbook of the Fidelity and Casualty Company, by F. E. Law and William Newell, well known engineering experts, follows the same general plan as the Aetna book. It is to be followed by a series of detailed pamphlets devoted to specific industries. The lowering of the fire hazard in factories is the object of a handbook of the Hartford Fire Insurance Company and an elaborate series of thirty-five pamphlets issued by the National Board of Fire Underwriters.

* * *

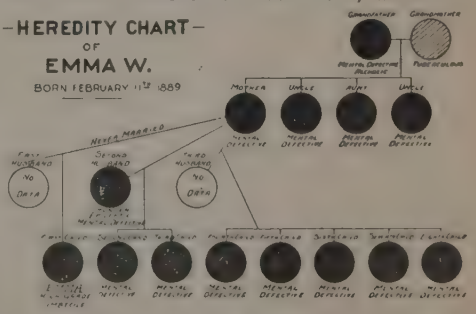
From England word reaches us of two important government investigations, that on children in street trading and that on lead poisoning in the pottery works. The departmental committee on the employment of children act of 1903, finds 37,000 children employed in street trading and subjected to moral influences calculated to undermine character and to produce a dislike or disability for more regular employment. Equally disastrous the committee finds the effect on physical health of long and irregular hours and of exposure to weather and to vicious habits. It makes the following recommendations for the regulation of street trading:

"(a) That the inferior age limit be raised to seventeen for boys and eighteen for girls; (b) that street trading be defined to cover all work except the delivery of goods by tradesmen's employes to regular customers; (c) that the execution of the law be left to the education authorities and all cases be tried, where such a court exists, in the children's court.

The departmental committee on the potteries reports an investigation covering 550 potteries, employing 63,000 persons—out of a total of 74,000 employed in all potteries in the United Kingdom. The special dangers to health are lead poisoning, to which eleven per cent of the workers are exposed, and the inhalation of dust, which affects thirty-six per cent. The latter proves to be the more serious menace and the cause of seven in a thousand deaths among those affected, the former of only eight-tenths per thousand. The committee would recommend reducing the use of lead in pottery to a minimum, its total abolition being impracticable at the present time. It further recommends a large number of safeguards calculated to minimize the danger from both dust and lead, but would put special emphasis on the enforcement by inspectors of certain simple precautions, believing that the principal source of danger is carelessness in superintendence.

* * *

The first annual report of the board of managers of Letchworth Village contains much that is interesting. The commission appointed in 1907 by Governor Hughes, to ascertain the number of defectives in New York state needing custodial care and to select a site for the Eastern New York Custodial Asylum—thereafter to be renamed in honor of William Pryor Lechworth—completed its investigation and found some 20,000 defectives in the state, of whom only 5,500 receive custodial care. In 1909 the state acquired for $197,520.41, a site of 2,000 acres in Rockland county, near Haverstraw, suitable for farm and other forms of outdoor work, which are



essential in the care of epileptics and the feeble minded. The site is accessible to New York city, has a good water supply and drainage, and 750 acres of the land are now under cultivation, including fifteen orchards. The tract contains a deposit of brick clay, a permanent supply of cord wood, a gravel pit and two ice ponds. There are fourteen houses, eight cottages, twenty barns, granaries and wagon houses and the committee urges that these be repaired immediately and sufficient additional dormitories be built to accommodate in all, about 150 men. The cost would be $45,000. It is estimated that the total cost of the village, which will take five years to complete and will provide for 2,600 persons, will be $2,465,000. It will be a country community widely spread out to segregate sexes and different classes of defectives. The buildings will be of moderate size and simple construction. The board of managers, of whom Frank

A. Vanderlip is president and Franklin B. Kirkbride, secretary, urges a sufficient appropriation from the Legislature to carry on without interruption this work of housing many defectives who are now at large. The report contains an interesting chart of one defective family of whom only one member, the Emma W. from whom the chart is named, is now receiving custodial care.

* * *

Delos F. Wilcox, chief of the Bureau of Franchises of the Public Service Commission for the First District of New York, is writing in two volumes an account of Municipal Franchises in the United States[1], a "description of the terms and conditions upon which private corporations enjoy special privileges in the streets of American cities." The bulky first volume of seven hundred pages has already been issued. It contains "an introductory analysis of the modes of acquiring franchise rights, of the nature of franchises, and of the various possible means of restricting public utility monopolies under private operation," and then treats of "pipe and wire franchises"—electric light and power, the telephone, the telegraph, electrical signals, electrical conduits, water supply, sewerage, central heating, refrigeration, pneumatic tubes, oil pipe lines, and artificial and natural gas. Volume II will discuss transportation and terminal franchises and will give "general observations and conclusions in regard to the taxation and control of public utilities."

* * *

No. 6 of Studies in American Social Conditions[2] deals with Concentrated Wealth, and is a sixth useful outline for study and bibliography prepared by R. H. Edwards, of Madison, Wis. Though prepared primarily as guides for "social problems groups" like the original "group" which Mr. Edwards organized in Madison four years ago, these outlines are also valuable for personal study and for the use of many kinds of clubs and classes and societies, interested in studying social conditions. Four more subjects will be treated in the series: Business Morals, Country Life, American Women, and The Church.

* * *

A fascinating collection of samples of business reform effected in the administration of the New York city government in the first six months of 1910 has been issued by the Bureau of Municipal Research.[3] At the top of the cover is a big interrogation mark, and beneath it a comment on some of the economies from a Brooklyn paper: "To hell with reform!"

The improvements enumerated are only illustrations from the complete list which will be furnished by the city officials themselves in the Budget Exhibit in October. At the end of the brochure is the warning that "it takes months and years to give up old habits and to acquire new habits"; that there is still much to be done; and that, to keep what has already been won and to go further, the citizens who appreciate these changes must "persist in their support until those who understand them will outnumber those who do not understand them."

* * *

The *World's Work* for September contains two articles of social interest. In Good Tenements for 1,000,000 People, Emily A. Dinwiddie tells what has been accomplished by the New York Tenement House Department in the ten years of its existence. Eugene F. Bertrand in Giving the Convict a Chance sets over against the the penal system of the whole world the experiment of Thomas J. Tynan, warden of the Colorado State Penitentiary at Cañon City. A square deal and a useful day's work is the warden's system of restoring to moral health fully half the prisoners in the penitentiary. The men whom a few months' close observation within the penitentiary walls has shown to be worth the experiment are sent to make the state roads, working eight hours without stripes and with unarmed overseers, sleeping in open tents with nothing but their sense of honor to prevent their escape. The experiment has been going on for a year and so far has met with wonderful success as a test of the honor system applied to prisoners. Much is to be hoped from it, Mr. Tynan believes, both as a means of developing a sense of responsibility and of building up robust out-of-door health which will stand the prisoners in good stead after their term is over. Mr. Tynan holds that a large proportion of convicts "are not habitual criminals from choice."

* * *

The report by W. H. Atherton, executive secretary of the first year's work of the City Improvement League of Montreal, shows the first steps taken in "cultivating a spirit of right citizenship in order to make Montreal clean, healthful and beautiful." The league acts in co-operation with the Architects' Association, tuberculosis and playground societies, women's clubs and other organizations for social improvement, and within the year its offices have come to be regarded as an unofficial bureau of grievances through which complaints can be conveyed to the City Hall. By thus calling official attention to official neglect, better sanitary inspection of buildings and better enforcement of regulations regarding spitting in streets and buildings have been obtained. The work of arousing public

[1]Municipal Franchises. In two volumes. By Delos F. Wilcox, Ph. D. Engineering News Book Department, New York, 1910. Pp. 710. Vol. I. THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d street, New York, postpaid $5.18.

[2]Concentrated Wealth. Publication No. VI of the Studies in American Social Conditions. By Richard Henry Edwards. Madison, Wisconsin. R. H. Edwards, 1910. Pp. 39. By mail of THE SURVEY, postpaid, 12 cents.

[3]Municipal Reform Through Revision of Business Methods. Bureau of Municipal Research. New York, 1910. Pp. 58. By mail of THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d street, New York, postpaid, 13 cents.

opinion against bad housing, dirty streets and insufficient playgrounds has begun, and an appropriation for a commission to study city planning has been obtained from the Provincial Parliament. Through the public school authorities, too, school gardens have been established.

* * *

The 1910 reports of the Juvenile Court of St. Louis, Mo., is commended to all juvenile court workers. It blazes the way in the matter of annual reports, and was prepared for the purpose solely of presenting the work of the court in a serious and scientific manner. Beginning with a brief historical account, Roger N. Baldwin, chief probation officer, describes the court system—its work from October, 1908, to March, 1910—its needs, viz.: more paid probation officers, longer assignments for the judges who sit in the court and a new detention home. Mr. Baldwin gives further a careful text analysis of the tables presented by him. The statistics were compiled from the records of the probation office by Anne M. Evans, formerly of the United States Department of Commerce and Labor, and were criticised and revised throughout by John Koren.

That part of the report on the organization of the probation office will be especially helpful to other communities. The probation office of the St. Louis court is most efficiently organized and, so far as it is possible to do so, Mr. Baldwin describes its organization and methods. Too many probation offices unfortunately are wholly unorganized and to those, as well as to offices to be organized, the report will be of inestimable help. It contains in addition to the juvenile court law, laws concerning contributory delinquency, the Missouri Training School, State Industrial Home for Girls, the compulsory attendance law, child labor law, regulations governing the House of Detention, and rules touching the court and probation office promulgated by the circuit judges covering subjects not expressly provided by law.

The pamphlet is a most useful handbook for juvenile court judges, probation officers and persons interested in the court. It will be sent to any address upon receipt of four cents to cover postage.

* * *

THE SURVEY has already given an account of the great twenty-fifth anniversary meeting of the Minneapolis Associated Charities. As a sequel now comes a pamphlet called A Quarter Century of Work Among the Poor, which not only contains the annual report of the Associated Charities, but a graphic description of the progress of twenty-five years. The Minneapolis society is one of the oldest in the country. It is situated in a district where the speed of development is pretty rapid. Yet it has had a career with some strangely marked periods of decline, and of revival. The last eight or ten years, however, have seen a steady rise to greater and greater influence and greater and greater effort. The story is simply related, but by this simplicity the marvelous growth is all the more strikingly told. As a twenty-five years resumé this report is in many ways a model. The society has run off an edition covering only the twenty-five years' report and comments on the work of 1909, omitting all material which is of local interest primarily, and copies of this will be sent upon application.

* * *

The Indiana Board of State Charities has issued a summarized history of the development of public charities and correction in Indiana from 1792 to 1910, similar to its earlier publication in 1905. It is the sort of compendium which we could wish to have in regard to every state in the Union, and it should facilitate the education of the people of Indiana, in schools and colleges and outside of them, in respect to the provisions for dependents and delinquents of that state. Copies of the pamphlet may be had by addressing the secretary of the board, at the State House in Indianapolis.

* * *

A much needed compendium of the laws of the various states of the Union, relating to vagrancy, has recently been published by the Michigan State Library for the use of the commission appointed in Michigan to investigate the subject of vagrancy.

One of the misfortunes in dealing with vagrancy in this country has been the absence of a similar compendium. It is to be desired that, in addition to this compilation, the laws relating to vagraney and similar offences should be so tabulated as to furnish quickly clear comparative facts which the present compilation does not give. Copies of the compilation may be obtained from W. S. Foster, Lansing, Mich., free of charge.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE PAGE BILL

TO THE EDITOR:

In a letter to THE SURVEY for September 17 Mrs. Annie Nathan Meyer says that "the first step in this war should be the recognition by the medical profession that single standard of morals is a possibility." I agree with Mrs. Meyer that we must first find out whether the single standard of morals is possible or not. If it is possible, then we should pass no legislation which condones a double standard of morals. If, on the other hand, there is a "sexual necessity" for men, then we should recognize that the women who minister to this "sexual necessity" are performing a valuable social service and honor them—not ostracize them.

It would seem, however, that the fact that self-control is both possible and healthful to

men had already been established. There may still be a difference of opinion on the part of some provincial medical men, who seek to excuse their own past rather than to teach the plain facts of physiology. But, with those exceptions, the stand of the medical profession is simple and definite. At the international congress held in Brussels for the prophylaxis of syphilis and the venereal diseases, in which every civilized country of the world was represented, the unanimous expression of the distinguished specialists was that "continence is not prejudicial to health, but is to be recommended from a purely hygienic point of view." The German society for the prevention of venereal diseases declared that "sexual continence is, in the unanimous opinion of the medical profession, generally not injurious to health, as is commonly supposed." Modern scientific medicine has demonstrated beyond a doubt that the degradation of women is not necessary to the health of men.

In the last part of her letter Mrs. Meyer expresses a fear that giving the vote to women would promote hasty legislation on this subject. Here again the facts are easily ascertainable. In the places where women vote, the legislation which has affected the social evil has in no case been hasty or repressive. It has all been in the direction of giving greater protection to women and so lessening the chance of their being driven into prostitution, through seduction, unendurably long hours of work, or starvation wages. In Wyoming where women have voted for forty-one years on equal terms with men, the age of protection for girls is twenty-one. In no other state is it over eighteen. In Colorado, where women have voted for seventeen years, women are allowed to work only eight hours a day (when the work is done standing). In most other states they can work from ten hours a day up. Such examples could be extended indefinitely, until in New Zealand we find that, in order to protect girls from being driven into prostitution, not only have their hours of work been shortened by law and their sanitary conditions been improved by law, but the law has fixed the minimum wage that can be paid to women.

It is suggestive to compare such laws with those of New York where women are not voters. The only recent legislation in New York in regard to the social evil has been to try to make the degradation of women a little safer for men,—and this in the face of the fact that similar legislation has proved worthless after one hundred years' trial on the continent.

KATHARINE HOUGHTON HEPBURN.

Hartford, Conn.

LIGHT ON MOVING PICTURES

TO THE EDITOR:

We have received many inquiries from puzzled social workers and city officials around the country as to this question: Must moving picture shows be given in a dark auditorium, with all the lack of social spirit and the tendency to careless conduct which a dark auditorium leads to?

May we answer through your columns, that moving picture shows can be and many are being given in broad daylight without any loss of effect. They are, moreover, being given in auditoriums where individuals can be recognized from end to end of the hall and where programs can be read without strain to the eye.

The methods are altogether simple: The screen on which the moving picture is thrown must be sheltered from the direct rays of light, and the eyes of the audience must be similarly sheltered. Where picture shows are given in broad daylight it is the custom to construct a sort of hood over the screen, into which the daylight only penetrates by reflected rays, and the picture, in contrast with the extreme brightness outside, appears in all its clearness of outline and depth of shadow. Where it is desired to light the interior of an auditorium during a picture performance, the method is equally simple: No intense light must be seen, but the auditorium must be illuminated by a diffused light thrown from lamps whose rays do not travel direct to the picture screen or to the eyes of the audience. In practice, the method is to shelter the electric lights by means of a ledge either around the wall or into the ceiling, so that the rays of the lamps are thrown along the height of the wall or across the ceiling and are merely reflected in a diffused way into the body of the auditorium.

It is impossible here to give detailed specifications for lighting interiors, but the principle given above can be made use of by any intelligent architect or owner of a picture theater. Those who are interested can obtain specifications from the Board of Censorship.

As a matter of fact, many exhibitors are probably informed about methods for lighting the interior of their show, but do not utilize these methods because of the additional expense for electric current. The public which patronizes moving picture shows is too tolerant even in the matter of program, and still more tolerant in the matter of sanitation and general comfort within the show. If there were a definite public demand, exhibitors would quickly learn how to light the interiors of their shows. Settlement workers and other social workers can create such a demand in their own neighborhoods. Moreover, it would seem the duty of the municipal authorities in each city to enforce a minimum of lighting, as of ventilation, in all moving picture shows.

JOHN COLLIER,
Educational Secretary.

New York.

FOREIGN DELEGATES VISIT OUR PRISONS

Delegates to the International Prison Congress to the number of 150 completed on Wednesday of last week at Washington a tour of inspection of over 2,000 miles, as guests of the federal government. More than a score of nations were represented on this trip, which started from Jersey City on September 18. Among the institutions visited were Elmira Reformatory, the George Junior Republic, Auburn State Prison, Mansfield (Ohio) State Reformatory, Illinois State Reformatory, Indiana State Prison, Illinois State Training School for Girls and the Indiana State Reformatory.

Several events marked this tour as unique in the history of prison congresses or conferences of charities and correction. The arrangements and administration of the trip have undoubtedly never been equalled. The civic spirit manifested in the various cities visited amazed the foreign delegates. Banquets, receptions, automobile tours, and the wide open policy of prison inspection will mark for years to come the ten-day tour of the delegates from across the water. While our correctional institutions have not failed to draw criticisms in certain particulars, mainly structural, the general policy of institutional development has been a revelation to our foreign friends and even to many Americans. The delegates were particularly interested in the development of the cottage or farm plan of caring for delinquent children.

At Louisville, on September 27, the American members of the party presented to F. H. Mills, who managed the tour without compensation and with an immense amount of attention to detail, a valuable diamond as a token of their appreciation of his efforts, which have extended through the twelve months prior to the beginning of the trip.

The tour ended in time for the annual meetings of the American Prison Asssociation and the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology in Washington, September 29 to October 2, after which many of the members stayed to take part in the section and general assembly meetings of the international congress.

The meeting of the American Prison Association was characterized by an excellent program, thoughtful addresses and a marked feeling of optimism. The keynote was perhaps twofold: first, that humanity should characterize every dealing of a prison administration or other officials with the criminal, but that the mistake should not be made of a too lenient or erratic form of treatment. Second, that the whole country stands much in need of far more accurate information regarding its criminals than it now possesses. Both Mr. Hall of Minneapolis and Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise emphasized the absence of criminal statistics.

Five committee reports were presented, each furnishing material for discussion at one session. The themes—discharged prisoners, reformation and parole, criminal law, probation and prison discipline — were specially discussed. The attendance from most of the states was good and the entire series warranted the statements made by some of the older members of the association, that the meetings this year represented the best that the American Prison Association has reached.

Of special interest was the union in spirit as well as in fact with the International Prison Congress, which held its first meeting October 2. Many of the delegates from abroad were attentive auditors at the sessions of the American organization and a joint meeting of the two associations was held on October 2.

The 1911 meeting of the American Prison Association will be held in Omaha. T. B. Patton is the president for the ensuing year. To Amos W. Butler, retiring president, and to Joseph P. Byers, general secretary, is due largely the success of this year's meeting.

In a later issue THE SURVEY will give an adequate report of the meetings of all three organizations.

CHANGES IN NEW YORK CHILD LABOR LAWS

A number of regulations making a new standard in the laws of New York with respect to the employment of children went into effect October 1. The most sweeping restriction, the new law, prohibiting in first and second class cities the employment of boys under twenty-one years of age after 10 P. M. or before 5 A. M. as telegraph messengers, is the result of a recent investigation of the night work of messenger boys in tenderloin districts of large cities. Their intimate contact with disorderly houses and their surrounding evils was proven so conclusively by the New York Child Labor Committee in advocating the bill, that the Legislature went to the limit in extending the law's protection. The extension of this law to include all minor messenger boys marks a new era in child labor legislation, and places New York at the head of all the states in the protection of minors. In New York, Buffalo and Rochester this law will be enforced by the Mercantile Bureau of the State Department of Labor. The past record of James L. Gernon, head of this bureau, in enforcing the labor law in mercantile establishments is such that it is confidently believed this new law also will be effectively enforced. It is deplorable that the number of inspectors—eight for New York, Buffalo and Rochester—is so inadequate. Until the Legislature makes possible the appointment of more, it is not to be expected that the ground will be covered completely. In second class cities the enforcement of the night messenger boy law is in charge of local health officers.

For the first time the labor law now makes specific reference to boys setting up pins in bowling alleys, and the employment of children as messengers, ushers, or checkers in places of amusement. Hereafter such work is forbidden for children under fourteen, and under sixteen unless in possession of a regular employment certificate, and then only between the hours of 8 A. M. and 7 P. M. Theaters employing boys as pages or in the distribution of water or other articles will be directly affected by this new law. While in many instances the work is not hard, it is open to serious objection for young children, as it frequently means their returning home alone late at night.

Another new provision (affecting only cities outside New York, Buffalo and Rochester) prohibits the employment of children under sixteen after 7 P. M. in mercantile establishments. This has been the closing hour for several years in the cities mentioned, and is now extended to cover the smaller cities. Proprietors of department stores in upstate cities, who desire to continue using children under sixteen, will have to rearrange their schedule of hours so that their junior help shall not be employed later than 7 P. M. This applies equally to Monday and Saturday evenings, and to the rush season prior to Christmas. It will be the duty of health officers to enforce this law except in first class cities.

Many important changes in and additions to the labor law were made by the Legislature last winter at the request of John Williams, commissioner of labor. One of particular importance in relation to the welfare of children was the addition of two kinds of machinery—metal or paper cutting machines, and corner staying machines in paper box factories—to the list of dangerous occupations in connection with which the employment of children under sixteen is prohibited. This list was originally incorporated in the law in 1909 at the request of the New York Child Labor Committee.

REORGANIZATION OF WEST SIDE HOUSE

John D. Rockefeller's splendidly equipped settlement, the West Side Neighborhood House at Fiftieth street and Tenth avenue, New York, which was closed last January, will be reopened in a few weeks under a new name, the West Side Institute, and under a form of management new in settlement work. The more prosperous neighbors, merchants, factory owners and professional men of the middle West Side, together with clergymen and social workers, feeling that the settlement had filled a real need in the community, got together and with the co-operation of Columbia University, which promised all the pupil-teachers they needed for the institute classes, devised a plan by which the work could be continued on a democratic basis. The board of directors, consisting of Mgr. Joseph Mooney of the Church of the Sacred Heart on West Fifty-first street, the Rev. Winfred V. Ackert of the Vermilye Chapel, 416 West Fifty-fourth street, besides many business men and Edward Ewing Pratt, instructor in Columbia, William Fellowes Morgan and William C. Demorest, representing the trustees and the alumni of Columbia University, guarantee $10,000 to meet expenses, including a reasonable rent. It is expected, however, that a large part of this sum will be met by fees paid for the various courses offered.

The work planned includes reading and billiard rooms, social and musical clubs, gymnasium, classes in trade training, typewriting and stenography, salesmanship and domestic science, as well as a kindergarten, day nursery and other settlement activities.

CLEANING UP AMERICAN CITIES

Toward the close of September the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane of Kalamazoo, Mich., sanitary expert, began a five weeks' inspection of about a dozen of the largest cities of Minnesota. Since last March Mrs. Crane has carried on her distinctive work, which is to make a rapid, though often a surprisingly thorough, study of a locality in all its sanitary aspects. In two Pennsylvania cities, in Nashville, Tenn., and in twelve cities of Kentucky, her inquiry covered water supply, condition of the streets including garbage disposal, sewage, housing, markets and other food shops, milk supply, school sanitation, parks and playgrounds, jails, hospitals and other institutions, public health system and such features of the city charter as have a bearing on democratic control of public works. To each of these cities she went at the invitation of public health and other officials, chambers of commerce, the Federation of Women's Clubs and various organizations of social workers. Representatives of these bodies accompanied her on her tours of inspection and under their auspices she spoke every evening to crowded halls.

Her lectures were those of a "public housekeeper," simple and untechnical. As an outsider she was able to report exactly what she found without partisanship or that fear of incurring disfavor in high places which might be felt by a citizen of the locality. At the close of an inspection a full, written report was submitted to the various bodies at whose request it was made. These reports, as well as the public lectures, made such specific suggestions for improving conditions as a person with a general knowledge of sanitation is competent to make. Where more technical opinion was required, they recommended the employment of experts in the particular branch of work to be undertaken, and pointed out what public or volunteer bodies were needed to take charge of special branches of public work.

This setting on foot of permanent movements for civic improvement would seem to be the most valuable side of Mrs. Crane's work. The *Kentucky Medical Journal* followed up her visit by pressing for such a movement throughout the state, and in Frankfort, at any rate, the first steps in this direction have been taken. A year after her visit to Calumet, Ill., a public official stated that the sustained effort of the citizens had changed Calumet from a mining camp

to a beautiful city, with good streets well cleaned, parks and playgrounds, a well stocked public library, and a well organized system of charitable relief. Three months after inspection the mayor of Nashville announced that a strong civic reform movement was on foot. Erie, Pa., spent a year trying to improve conditions and then sent for Mrs. Crane again to pass upon results, and the citizens of Louisville, Ky., after a general inspection, became so deeply interested as to try to obtain her services for a more detailed study of their sewage problem.

In how many cities the enthusiasm which attends the "revival" methods of what the newspapers call the "civic evangelist," dies down without permanent results, it is impossible to say. However, even such definite, immediate results as the cleaning up of the market and the repairing of the streets of Nashville, the condemning and rebuilding of a county almshouse in Kentucky, and the passing in that state of health laws which the health commissioner, Dr. J. N. McCormack, says are thirty years in advance of what he could have accomplished by ordinary means, are not to be despised. There seems little doubt, too, that the very exposing of bad public housekeeping to the frank criticism of a disinterested stranger is itself a stimulus to reform.

Nor is Mrs. Crane the only professional civic revivalist. On September 10 the public officials and private organizations of Indianapolis invited Lawrence Veiller to inspect the city and make recommendations regarding housing conditions. Mayor O'Malley of Geneva, N. Y., inaugurated a cleaning-up week in that city; he himself and a representative committee of citizens made an inspection, and followed this up by inviting Prof. Charles H. Zueblin to make definite recommendations for improvement. The report is that experts have already been engaged to devise a park and playground system for Geneva.

In Boston the Woman's Municipal League has been conducting a campaign of education in sanitation by means of a travelling exhibit. Since last spring the league, in co-operation with South End House, has paid the salary of a woman inspector of the Board of Health. This woman found the condition of the markets in the congested parts of the city revolting and soon began in a small section of the city to arouse public opinion. The league's inspector of streets and alleys found a like condition of filth in the streets and in the homes. She too began educational work in a small way, and the two met to form a definite campaign of sanitary education which began by an exhibit sent to the Boston-1915 Movement. Since December the exhibit, which on the sanitary side shows contrasting models of dirty and clean meat markets, of clean dairies and dirty ones, and which also spreads the propaganda of prevention and cure of tuberculosis, has been shown in many of the settlements and other social centers. It has aroused the deepest interest in the different neighborhoods. Clubs of women have been organized all over the city, who under the direction of the league inspectors are taking the first steps toward raising the standard of cleanliness and health.

The Boston movement, unlike the movement in other cities, does not depend on stimulation of interest by an outside expert. A printed report of the method of the Boston league by the president, Mrs. T. J. Bowlker, can be got from the headquarters of the league.

LITTLE VARIATION IN WORK-ACCIDENT RATES

The statistical study of work-accidents and their economic consequences continues. The law of Minnesota, which provided for a Commission on Employers' Liability, requires every employer to report to the Bureau of Labor all accidents occurring in his establishment.

A recent investigation of 300 of these reported cases with special reference to the compensation received, conducted under the direction of Don D. Lescohair, special agent of the Bureau of Labor, confirmed the conclusions reached by

similar inquiries under the Pittsburgh Survey, the Wisconsin Industrial Accidents Commission and the New York State Commission on Employers' Liability: Under American employers' liability laws, but a small proportion of the workmen injured by accidents of their employment and the dependents of those killed receive anything approaching adequate compensation.

Mr. Lescohair and his assistants found that among fifty-four families of men killed fifty per cent received no compensation; twenty-four per cent, $1,000 or less; fourteen per cent $2,000 or less; and only eleven per cent over $2,000. $536 with funeral expenses was the average compensation in case of death. In five cases of permanent total disability, one man received $160, one $175, and the others nothing. In fifty cases of serious but not permanent injury, six of the injured did not receive even medical expenses, and four medical expenses only. Seven, however, suffered no financial loss, receiving medical expenses and full wages for the time disabled, and eighteen settled for a considerable sum in addition to expenses and wages. This last item, which is rather surprising, is not borne out by results of similar investigations in other states. It does not, however, serve as a defense of the present employers' liability system but rather emphasizes the unevenness and arbitrary inequality of recoveries under that system.

NEW YORK CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AT ROCHESTER

The eleventh New York State Conference of Charities and Correction will be held in Rochester November 15-17. The officers are, George A. Lewis, president; Frank E. Wade, secretary, and Frank Tucker, treasurer.

Two new problems, the pressing importance of which the public has just begun to recognize, will be considered, namely, the distribution of population, on which Robert W. Hebberd will speak, and the need of moral and sanitary prophylaxis. The committee appointed to cover the latter subject has not yet completed its program.

The committee on public health and safety will be under the chairmanship of Dr. W. H. Smith and discussion will be based on papers on the Conservation of Eyesight by Samuel E. Elliott, and on Alcoholism by Menas S. Gregory.

The committee on public institutions and public co-operation, of which Mrs. Milo M. Acker is chairman, will present papers on The Relation Between Society and the Hospital by Dr. S. E. Goldstein; Are Almshouses an Integral Part of the Social Order? by Joseph C. Baldwin, and Social Sympathy in the Work of State Hospitals by Dr. August Hoch. Papers to be presented by the committee on the care of children, of which Edmund T. Butler is chairman, are: Some of the Destructive Forces at Work on the Child by Dr. Charles F. McKenna, and Pensions for Widowed Mothers by Mrs. William Einstein. Anna B. Fox will act as chairman of the committee on the care of the poor in their homes, which will discuss papers by Mary Breed on The Problem of the Treatment of Widows, and of Deserted Wives by Roy Smith Wallace, on Problems of Tuberculosis Relief by Francis H. McLean, on The Work of a State Commission of Distribution of Population by Robert W. Hebberd, and on Foreign National Policies for the Distribution of Population for which a speaker will be assigned later.

COMPENSATION FOR INDUSTRIAL INJURY

Compension for industrial injuries is a subject occupying the attention of special commissions now at work in Wisconsin, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Ohio and New Jersey. A similar commission in Illinois has failed to propose legislation owing to an unfortunate disagreement. The Wisconsin committee, which is made up of members of the Legislature, is nearing the end of its work. Its bill will be introduced into the Legislature next January and the complexion of both houses, as indicated by the recent pri-

maries, practically assures its passage. Wisconsin's enactment of an employers' liability and workmen's compensation law will be watched with interest, not only by existing commissions, but by students of the problem in every state, notably in Michigan, Oregon and Missouri, where commissions will probably be created within a year.

Wisconsin's tentative bill, which has been the subject of close study by other commissions for two months, abrogates absolutely the defenses of assumption of risk and fellow-servant's negligence, but does not change the contributory negligence defense. A complete system of compensation is included in the bill, with an "industrial accident board" of three members to act in cases of disputes. The board is to have power to name examiners to take evidence. Appeals to the circuit and supreme courts are made possible but the judges are empowered only "to ascertain whether the findings of the board sustained the award upon a proper construction of the act."

The secretary of the Wisconsin committee, Paul J. Watrous of Madison, has submitted the last draft of the bill to students and authorities in every part of the country, and at an early date the committee will discuss the resulting criticisms and make changes as suggested. It is probable that another public hearing will be held before the final bill is reported.

The Massachusetts Commission on Employers' Liability, of which Dr. C. E. Doten is chief investigator, is taking the initiative in calling a conference of all state commissions at some central western city in November. It is necessary for the Massachusetts commission to make its report before the end of the year, and for this reason it desires a conference before the fourth national conference set for December in St. Louis.

MEETING TO STUDY INFANT MORTALITY

The American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, with headquarters at 1,211 Cathedral street, Baltimore, Md., which was organized as a result of the conference on infant mortality held at New Haven last November, will hold its first annual meeting in Baltimore, November 9-11. Those who have studied the problem of infant mortality and attempted its solution have demonstrated beyond a doubt that the infantile death rate can be cut in half by carefully applied preventive measures. It is with the object of arousing the public conscience to the need of such measures that the society, which has among its officers Dr. J. H. Mason Knox of Johns Hopkins and Dr. Linnaeus La Fetra of New York, began its educational work. The dominant notes of the November meeting will be prevention, conservation, education. The program will include a session on the municipal, state on federal prevention, under the chairmanship of Dr. William H. Welch; on philanthropic prevention, under Dr. Hastings H. Hart; on medical prevention under Dr. L. Emmett Holt, and on educational prevention under Dr. Helen C. Putnam.

The work which the association has laid out for itself is first of all to secure all over the country the prompt registration of births, both for the sake of getting reliable statistics and of enabling boards of health to take prompt measures to prevent infantile blindness, etc. The other features in the program of work are the encouragement of maternal nursing, the establishment of milk stations, education for parenthood, and the education of mothers in the care of children, the public control of sources of infection and the improvement of social conditions.

Though some thirty cities in the United States have milk stations, of which the Straus depots in New York are among the first in the world, and the municipal work for pure milk in Rochester will bear comparison with that of any city, this country has lagged behind the rest of the world in the protection of infants, and it is hoped that the new association will bring into existence a national movement worthy to take its place in the international congress to be held in Berlin next September.

HEALTH OFFICERS

WILLIAM CHARLES WHITE, M. D.
Pittsburgh

Not long ago a smallpox epidemic broke out in Cleveland. The mayor then in office did not believe in what is now known to be the proper preventive course to pursue in such a state of affairs. Isolation and vaccination appeared to him silly and faddish. The state health officer went to Cleveland and held a camera conference with the mayor, who yielded only to the threat that if preventive measures were not at once instituted, Cleveland would be quarantined.

Here were two examples of public officers. The mayor believed that isolation and vaccination were silly. In this he was ignorant. In acting on his beliefs, however, he was wofully weak, for rather than draw the condemnation of those who controlled the business interests of his city, which would surely have followed the enforcement of the threatened quarantine, he acted against what he believed to be right. The state health officer, on the other hand, held fully to the justice of his beliefs and power, and exerted them to their utmost to obtain the best good for the state, the city, and all the people involved.

Two years ago a young man was made city health officer in Wheeling, W. Va. He was impressed with the horrible figures we deal with in the field of infant mortality. He felt sure from his interpretation of the law that he had the power to stop much of the yearly loss of life. To accomplish this he aimed first at procuring a pure milk supply for the city. He had the power to examine samples of milk sold in the city, but the examination was useless if the results were merely kept in his record books, so he decided in the face of the most vigorous protest to submit them to those who kept him in office for the purpose of safeguarding their health—the public. He published the results of his examinations in the daily press monthly, under the heads of preservatives, bacterial content, fat, and dirt. Today he has an almost uniformly good milk supply for Wheeling, for the public soon forsook the dirty milkmen and bought from the clean.

To put this type of man in office is to go a long way toward the solution of public health questions. The public wants protection and is willing to abet the protector. The individuals who make up the public, however, often say, from ignorance or selfishness: "I want protection, but I decline to bear any of the discomforts of placard, isolation, or vaccination which the public protection demands." This attitude is what makes the road of the efficient officer so hard.

The laws governing health conditions have been based upon the result of centuries of experience and scientific work, and are fairly uniform in the different states of this Union, as well as over the civilized world. They relate in the main to the field of what is known as preventive medicine. They control such decimating diseases as typhoid, measles, scarlet fever, smallpox, tuberculosis, and, in the South, malaria and yellow fever; and also the diseases that infect our food animals.

How well these laws are administered is common knowledge: those relating to the measles-smallpox group, fairly well now in most states, because we are used to them; those that affect our food animals, better; but the laws relating to some of the other diseases are almost inoperative. Yet the power is in the hands of our health officers to do wonders. The knowledge is available for them and the power of office is behind them, and with tact they could combine these two for the welfare of the community they control. A special despatch was sent out from Harrisburg recently to health officers: "Keep a sharp lookout for new smallpox cases; sixty to seventy new cases have appeared lately." Picture the day when such a despatch will read: "Keep a sharp lookout for new cases of infantile diarrhoea (or pneumonia, or tuberculosis); sixty or seventy new cases have appeared lately."

It is safe to say that, with few notable exceptions, present health administration has come not from within the health office, but from the demand of an accumulated public intelligence which has grown mainly through the voluntary work of medical associations and philanthropic organizations, national and local. It

often seems that health officers do just as much or just as little as public opinion forces them to do. Proper appointments in public health offices will bring about more progress than any other one thing. "If I were king," *i. e.*, governor or mayor, I would appoint a man for the work who would not only make himself a permanency, but would make me historical. I would choose a young man after conference with the known leaders of my profession. I would say to him: "Everything the law allows I want you to do to stop this loss of life. I will stand behind you in every effort. Choose your assistants for efficiency and not from political backing, and remember that the law of the city provides for your efficient administration." I would call his attention to the value of intelligent assistants and the necessity for the autonomy and interested action which every large business concern appreciates, and then I would help him work out his own salvation and the salvation of the municipal health. Many such men are to be found—I think as many as the offices.

The secret of his success would lie in his utilization on some uniform plan of all factors at work. He must correlate and distribute the labor as well as administer; he must educate and inaugurate new factors. He should not confine his attention to the means provided by the municipality. He should devote his efforts to the correlation of all factors interested in health work in his district—state, municipality, and private organization. He should seek to make adequate division of fields of labor to prevent waste and over-lapping of effort. He has fortunately, as a rule, a clear cut law behind him, and with the power of his office he is supreme in all matters pertaining to the health question. He may at times require police protection, but this he could usually obtain.

If this is the solution, then, it rests with the governors and the mayors who make the appointments to the health offices. These may roughly be divided into two classes, the fit and the unfit. The latter do not come within the scope of this discussion. As long as the people send unfit men to office, we cannot hope for much improvement in their appointments. But often in the fit class, men who are able men in law and business, giants of organization and management, honest and fearless, are bizarre in their medical entanglements. It may be because they are vigorous and seldom sick, or because they are suspicious of altruism, or I know not what, but I have often been struck with the apparent lack of intelligence on medical questions in many of our highest and most efficient public officers. Much of the fault may, of course, be on the side of the physicians. It may be a fault of our medical teaching that we cannot furnish men in whom these officials have confidence. It may be that the doctor who goes into politics is responsible. A man who bows forward to Aesculapius and backward to the demon of politics does not inspire confidence.

This policy of proper appointment could be actively furthered by a department or bureau of health in the federal government, and it is to be hoped that the day is not far distant when issuing from the federal government there will come instruction on uniform management of crusades against our common disease foes, which will be followed in each division of our country. What might have been the condition today if ten years ago a national department of health had been established, with an eminent, public-spirited physician at its head, outlining a national policy for the conservation of health to be followed in all states and through the state departments in all municipalities!

Until the day of proper appointment comes our voluntary associations for correlation, operation, and education must keep at work. If all voluntary organizations include in their education of the public a demand for competent appointments, it will not be long before each section of the country has that most potent of all public assets—a fearless man backed by public office, whose function shall include the proper correlation and distribution of work among all factors available in the municipality for the preservation of public health.

October 8, 1910.

TO THE RESCUE OF NEW YORK HARBOR

CONSTANCE D. LEUPP

A prominent English novelist, a few years ago, made a trip through our country and then went home and wrote about us. Unlike some of his predecessors, this novelist, disclaiming all but a superficial knowledge of our national characteristics and institutions, made a book not unfair as a whole. He was deeply impressed, as he steamed up New York harbor, by the Statue of Liberty; and again and again, in discussing cases of flagrant social and legal injustice which he encountered, he reverts to that bronze sentinel with her tireless arm and her crown of light, until the most patriotic American is forced to admit that the English critic has somehow made her out a sorry mockery.

ONE OF NEW JERSEY'S CONTRIBUTIONS.

Now comes New Jersey with a project calculated to make the cherished symbol itself fit subject for derision. Her proposal is to tap twenty-five of her municipalities with one titanic sewer, and deposit in the center of New York harbor, at the very feet of the statue, the drainage from the homes and factories of 600,000 people. Of course, it would be a matter of pride for New York harbor to lay claim to the largest trunk sewer which has ever been built, but let us hope that Mr. Wells may not be here to see.

Let us even more devoutly hope that the people of New York will prevent the project from being carried through.

The situation at present is a very peculiar one. A suit was brought by the people of the state of New York and the United States government against the state of New Jersey and the Passaic Valley Commission to prevent the building of this sewer. An agreement was recently reached, however, between New Jersey and the United States government whereby the objections of the latter have been removed on the condition that the sewer shall not prove a menace to fish life. In default of a federal department of health the question, as far as the United States government is concerned, is confined to the protection of its fortifications, its soldiers and sailors. Since the New Jersey engineers have explained that they propose to screen and partly filter the sewer, the federal government is no longer concerned.

The state of New York, however, has not withdrawn her objections. Fortunately she was prudent enough to call for a report from the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission which has been studying the condition of the harbor and the rivers for four years. This commission strongly recommended that New York state make every effort to prevent the sewer

from being constructed, and that the city of New York join the state in this opposition.

The reasons stated in the report are these: that the settling basins and screens which the New Jersey engineers have submitted are insufficient to remove some of the most obnoxious features of the sewage; that the proposed radiating exits situated on the floor of the harbor and debouching imperfectly filtered sewage cannot fail to affect the deep sea fish in their annual migration upstream. Anyone who has seen the black oil afloat in the water of Newark bay will not have to be persuaded on this point.

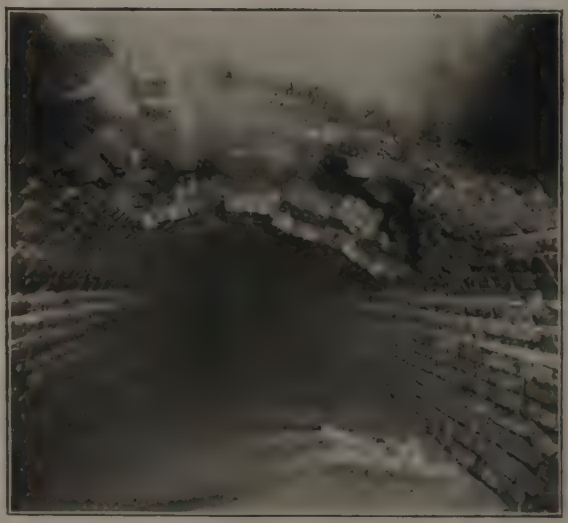
Assuming, for the sake of argument, that the New Jersey engineers can do what they say they can, the next point is indisputable. Sanitarians and engineers who have studied the subject agree that the capacity of New York harbor to contain sewage is limited by its unusual situation. The fall of the Hudson river is so gradual that between its estuary and the mouth of the harbor, two tides instead of one continually ebb and flow and in the trough between crests the drift of flotsam within the river and harbor is reversed several times before it is finally carried out to sea. This was well illustrated by the experiment of starting a float on an ebb tide at Spuyten Duyvil. It took forty-two hours to reach Coney Island because its direction was reversed three times by the incoming tide. As with the float, so with the sewage. The prospect is far from attractive.

Oxidation is the process which renders sewage comparatively inoffensive. When raw sewage is poured into pure water containing one hundred per cent of the oxygen for which it has such an avidity, it is innocuous only as long as there is a plentiful margin of oxygen left. Estimates of how much loose oxygen is necessary for fish life differ from fifty to seventy per cent. The Sewerage Commission has conclusively established by experiment that there are places in the waters about New York now where at certain tides there is no loose oxygen whatever.

Why, therefore, should New York city, with its population increasing at the rate of thirty-six per cent in a decade and its own sewage disposal problem increasing in the same proportion, make to New Jersey this more than generous present of the harbor's whole margin of capacity to assimilate waste?

Since the Sewerage Commission submitted its report this summer, the affair has been at a standstill. If the city of New York does not take this opportunity to join with the state in an active campaign to defend her title to her own harbor now, what will her doubled population have to pay for a clean and safe harbor in another generation?

Nor would inertia on the part of the city be merely a costly indulgence at this stage, for the needless extravagance of the sacrifice is apparent when we consider that of the twenty-five municipalities which propose to drain by way of the Passaic Valley system, more than twenty are inland towns. The report of the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission, moreover, goes sufficiently far afield to demonstrate that the expenditure which would build the



A DOWN TOWN SEWER.
Through the holes caused by the fallen brick, the street pavings are visible.

Passaic Valley tunnel out into New York harbor would cover the cost of a similar system, discharging a completely purified residuum into Newark bay.

A CONTAMINATED BATH.

A sewer three feet in diameter empties a few feet above it.

The New Jersey project is not the only one which is menacing the harbor waters. Another suit is pending between the United States government, plaintiff, and the state of New York and the Bronx Valley Commission, defendant, apropos of a less tremendous but more imminent peril due to a sewer now in process of construction, destined to carry the waste of White Plains into the Hudson river three hundred feet above the city limits; by the peculiarities of the franchise granted to the Bronx Valley Commission, its processes are exempt from the control of the New York State Health Department.

The outlet of this sewer is planned at forty feet below the surface of the water and five hundred feet from the shore on the theory that the sewage will be diffused at once. No attempt at purification or screening is planned for the project. At Peddock's Island in Boston harbor where a similar system is in operation, the sewage, far from disappearing, rises at once to the surface and is very offensive.

In 1903, when neither the New Jersey nor the Bronx Valley project was an immediate issue, the question of protecting New York harbor against pollution had become so grave that the first commission was appointed to make recommendations for saving the harbor. Let us now consider the magnitude of the problem facing its successor, the present Metropolitan Sewerage Commission, irrespective of imminent future difficulties.

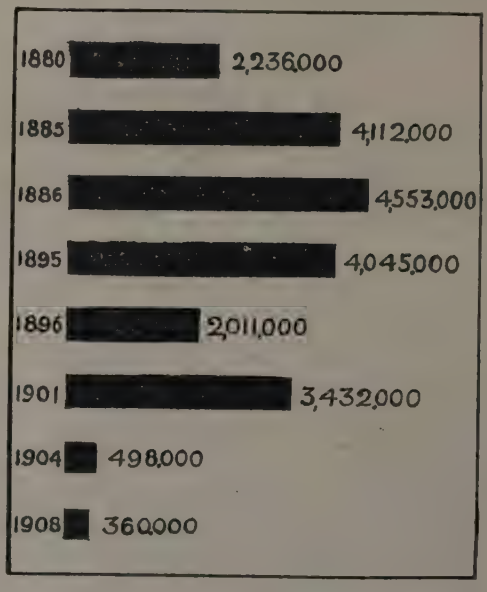
New York has no centralized system of waste piping as have most large European cities. Paris has such a system, but Paris was embarrassed during the flood last winter by a lack of maps. These had been burned with the archives during the commune, and Paris consequently paid a large price for a picturesque episode in her history. New York is now paying indemnity for the unfortunate by-products which have accompanied the growth of her commercial supremacy. In the City Hall a map of the sewers can be found—but such a map: sections of piping torn up and moved around corners to accommodate electric light wires belonging to private companies; conduits for wires let through the center of sewer walls; brick walls collapsing and almost letting the sidewalks in after them! Under every fifth or sixth of the piers which surround Manhattan Island is a sewer of which the mouth, flush with the pierhead or even under it, is out of water at low tide. More careful construction and a gradual slope would have admitted of an exit below the surface at all tides.

Circling the city also and in close proximity to the exits of the sewers are a series of much patronized public baths and the intakes of the high-pressure water system of the Fire Department. The commission has maps showing all three in colors; their proximity makes plain at a glance why the authorities refuse to use the high-pressure water system to clean the streets of the city. These maps also explain why the commission recommends the abolition of the floating baths

and the substitution of baths on shore provided from the regular city water supply. Recent experiments have even proved that contrary to the commonly accepted theory, the amount of salt in the brackish waters surrounding the city has no antiseptic property whatever.

Probably no one can make a just estimate of the relation between these sewers and the death rate. But remembering how many of the hospitals of the city are close to the water's edge, one wonders how large a factor in the mortality tables is due the effect of the night stenches upon sleepless patients. How many baby lives on the East Side are sacrificed each summer to intestinal trouble of which the infection is carried by flies from the floating sewage?

Nor are the silent arguments for a better system of drainage presented by the patrons of public baths and the denizens of the lower East Side alone. They represent all the social strata of the city and bring the question home to the doors of every one of us, up and down town. Oysters are still taken from the now polluted waters within the Narrows and, after being transplanted for a few months in more remote beds, are brought into our markets. The once famous Hudson river shad are now so redolent of petroleum as to be no longer a delicacy, though we need not distress ourselves about their flavor, as they will soon be a thing of the past. Property owners on both rivers are concerned, and the commercial supremacy of the city, so largely dependent on the efficiency of its quarantine and health departments, must suffer as Boston, Philadelphia, Chicago and Baltimore grapple successfully with the problems of reconstruction on which New York has not yet begun.



NEW YORK'S ANNUAL CATCH OF SHAD.

The Metropolitan Sewerage Commission has spent four years making a painstaking study of the waters about the city. An interesting article by Dr. George A. Soper, chairman of the commission, in THE SURVEY for June 5, 1909, described the methods pursued and the ingenious instruments used in its experiments. The commission has recently made to the mayor an extensive report on its work from which most of the facts in the foregoing article were obtained. It has presented general reconstructive recommendations and will presumably spend the next three years, the extended term of its existence, in making these recommendations specific.

The general scheme is to establish a sewage district embracing about seven hundred square miles in New York and New Jersey, containing a number of collecting sewers leading to local purification works. By a system of sedimentation, the drainage can be reduced to a condition in which it can be carried into the harbor without ill effects. A permanent interstate commission is recommended, to put and keep this policy in operation.

It is probably a disappointment to those who have followed the work of Dr. Soper and his colleagues that they do not bring in a verdict in favor of a vast trunk sewer emptying far beyond the city and the harbor. Once built, such a structure would doubtless solve the problem of

drainage for the five boroughs for many years to come; but certain obstacles of construction would make this solution impracticable unless, like the Egyptians of old, we are willing to sacrifice human lives by the score on the altar of our engineering fame. For the trunk sewer would have to lie many feet below the floor of the harbor at a depth at which workmen could with difficulty live. To be effective, it would have to debouch at least ten miles outside of Sandy Hook. The work of dredging and construction could not be carried on in the open sea without an artificial harbor for the protection of boats and machinery, and it is hardly conceivable that the dirt dredged from the farther points should all be brought back to the New York end. Were the building itself practicable, the cost of such a structure might be enough to deter the city and the state from carrying it out, moreover, and there is no time to waste. The simpler plan, then, of restricting the drainage into the harbor to such as has been screened and at least partly purified by chemicals seems the better one for immediate action. It will safeguard the city from danger at least; and if her heritage of pure waters, with their multiple attendant resources for recreation, do not return to her intact, she must thank the thousand mixed elements of her extravagant growth for that, not blame her commission of hard-working sanitarians.

THE FIRST NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES

MONSIGNOR WILLIAM J. WHITE
SUPERVISOR OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

With all the pomp with which the Catholic church surrounds the ritual of High Mass and in the presence of the apostolic delegate, Archbishop Diomede Falconio, the first National Conference of Catholic Charities was opened at the Catholic University on Sunday, September 25. It lasted three days and brought together five hundred delegates from every part of the United States. The keynote was sounded by Archbishop Blenk, who preached the conference sermon, when he said: "If God wants us to be charitable, He wants us to be enlightened in our charity, that is charity guided and directed by the light of the intellect; for He is not only the God of love, He is also the God of light."

The need of organization, of system is here set forth and the kindred idea of co-operation with non-Catholic and secular charitable activities is suggested. Indeed, at every session the plea for co-operation with other forces at work in the same field was sounded. The question of whether it would be wise to hold Catholic state conferences was voted down, and the delegates were exhorted to take a more active part in existing state conferences. The fear expressed in some quarters, that a National Conference of Catholic Charities might hurt the attendance of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, is seen to be groundless. Indeed, we may hope for a large attendance of Catholics at the sessions of this important body, as a result of the quickening influence of the conference which has just finished its deliberations at Washington.

When the reports by states were read on the first day it was found that in all the public charitable and correctional institutions of the United States the religious rights of Catholic inmates were respected. No obstacles were placed in the way of the priests who attended these institutions. The American people believe in the "square deal" here as in other departments of life.

Perhaps the most significant session of the conference was the one in which so-

cial reform was discussed and where industrial conditions were blamed for some of the poverty and crime found in large cities. Study and action were recommended and the delegates were exhorted to take an interest in the Consumers' League, the Child Labor Committee, the anti-tuberculosis crusade and other movements for the betterment of the poor. Said one speaker:

> The Catholic Church is the church of the workingman, the church of the common people. If she will continue to receive the loving allegiance of those whose hands are horny with toil, whose brows are wrinkled with care and whose only happiness is in the promise of a life with Jesus Christ through eternity, then we, who have some little knowledge of social conditions and some influence in our respective communities must initiate or take part in movements that have for their object the material well being of the workingman. We must create for them a human environment, the while we teach that "the greatest fact of that environment is man's right relation to God."

This is the platform on which the delegates to the first National Conference of Catholic Charities stand. It includes organization, co-operation, and a war on the causes of poverty whether that cause is a disease germ lurking in a dark corner or a merchant prince grown rich on defrauding laborers of their wages.

On Sunday evening a public meeting of the delegates was held at the New National Theater, at which Cardinal Gibbons presided. Cuno H. Rudolph, president of the Board of Commissioners, welcomed the delegates on behalf of the district. Rt. Rev. Monsignor Shahan, rector of the Catholic University and president of the conference, spoke on the Practical Mission of the Conference. Catholic Ideals in Charity was the theme of Judge M. O'Doherty, judge of the Jefferson Circuit Court of Louisville, Ky., the principal speaker of the evening.

The business part of the conference began at 9.30 on Monday morning in McMahon Hall on the University grounds, with the presentation and discussion of reports on the condition of Catholic Charities in cities, dioceses and states. With an hour's intermission for lunch, which was served in Divinity Hall, the session continued all day, although at four o'clock there were section meetings which were well attended. In the evening there were two general meetings, one in McMahon Hall, where David F. Tilley, president of Particular Council, St. Vincent de Paul Society, and member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities, read a paper on The State and Private Institutions. Paul Fuller of New York spoke on the Recognition of the Religion of Dependents by the State, and Rev. Dr. J. W. Melody, professor of moral theology in the Catholic University, on the Natural Rights of Dependents. The second general meeting, attended by two hundred women delegates, was held at Trinity College near the university. Rev. P. Mueller-Simoni of Strassburg, Germany, read an excellent paper on the work of the International Association for the Protection of Young Girls, and reports from city committees on dangers to which young girls are exposed were received. This session was the most vital and remarkable held. Social investigators of broad experience, mothers, women physicians and settlement workers spoke with a frankness seldom heard at a public meeting. Low wages, midnight joy rides, lack of parental supervision were enumerated as causes for downfall in large cities. A committee having branches in all the large cities was formed to fight the evil and act in conjunction with the International Association.

The Dependent Family was the subject on Tuesday morning. Robert Biggs of Baltimore, president of Particular Council of the St. Vincent de Paul Society, and member of Municipal Commission for the Prevention of Tuberculosis, read a paper on The Problems Presented by the Dependent Family which created much discussion. He blamed the great industrial forces of the day for much of the existing poverty and pleaded for proper methods in handling the problem. "The man or woman," he said, "who has no other conception of charity work than the mere giving of material relief should stay out of the work or learn new methods. Time and thought and not almsgiving are the real factors that should inspire every worker."

Mount Vernon was visited on Tuesday afternoon. The delegates were the guests of the local committee, of which Judge De Lacy was chairman.

The Church and Social Reform was the topic discussed on Tuesday evening. Monsignor William J. White, diocesan director of charities of Brooklyn, read a paper on The Reform Problems Which the Church Should Meet. Rev. Joseph McSorley, C. S. P., spoke on the Catholic Layman and Social Reform, and The Church and the Social Conscience was the subject of a thoughtful and scholarly paper by Thomas Woodlock, former editor of the *Wall Street Journal*.

After the session on Tuesday evening the committee on organization, of which David F. Tilley of Boston was chairman, made its report on permanent organization.

The conference closed on Wednesday with a session on delinquency. Michael F. Girten, judge of the Municipal Court of Chicago, made the principal address. Judge De Courcy of Boston took issue in his remarks as chairman with some of Lombroso's theories on heredity, and in the discussion following Judge Girten's paper low wages were blamed for some of the crime prevalent in large cities. The suggestion made by Judge Girten, "that the merchant prince who pays criminally low wages with one hand, while making large public subscriptions with the other, be boycotted and that a ban be placed on underpaid labor," was received with enthusiastic applause. The delegates ended the session by singing the *Te Deum* and America. At 2.30 the same afternoon they were received at the White House by President Taft, who spoke of the great charity work done by Catholics in the United States.

That the conference was a success beyond the expectation of the committee who had called the delegates together was evident at the first session. The section meetings, where a large number of papers which were read only by title were discussed, proved to be the most important feature . Indeed, there was a greater variety of opinion and frankness in divergent views than is generally found at state or national conferences. The reason is evident. In these latter assemblies there is always the fear that frank criticism may be misinterpreted and the religious sensibilities of others hurt. In a Catholic conference no such fear is present and boarding-out, placing-out, and the institutional system of caring for children were championed by workers who did not hesitate to point out the defects in other systems.

The section meeting in which Tuberculosis Among the Poor was considered by Dr. Lawrence F. Flick of Philadelphia was well attended, as was the meeting on probation. Other papers discussed at section meetings were: Social Settlements by Grace O'Brien of Catholic Settlement Association, Brooklyn; Schools of Philanthropy by Mrs. P. J. Toomey of St. Louis, and Legal Aid for the Poor by Bernard Fox of Cincinnati.

The following officers were chosen for the next conference which will be held at Washington in September, 1912:

Honorary president, Cardinal Gibbons; president, Monsignor T. J. Shahan, rector of Catholic University; treasurer, Judge W. H. DeLacy of the District of Columbia; secretary, Dr. W. J. Kerby of Catholic University; vice-presidents, Judge C. A. DeCourcy, Boston, Mass.; Mrs. T. Hughes Kelly, New York; J. F. Kennedy, Chicago; John H. Grehan, New Orleans; C. C. Desmond, Los Angeles, Cal.; John C. Hagen, Richmond, Va.

The executive committee, which will have charge of the second conference is made up of the following:

D. F. Tilley, Boston, Mass.; E. A. Waldo, New Orleans; J. A. Flaherty, Philadelphia, Pa.; Rev. P. H. Boyle, Little Rock, Ark.; D. B. Murphy, Rochester, N. Y.; Richard Crane, Cincinnati O.; Rev. John A. Ryan, St. Paul, Minn; Mrs. John MacMahon of Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. J. M. Molamphy of Pittsburgh, Pa.; Dr. John Wingartner of Wheeling, W. Va.; Lawrence Conner of Dubuque, Ia.; Mrs. Thomas Taylor of Austin, Texas.; Paul Carpenter of Milwaukee, Wis.; Edmond J. Butler of New York.

WAGES, HOURS AND SPEED IN THE MISSOURI BOOT AND SHOE FACTORIES

In Missouri the rapidly growing boot and shoe industry already leads all others in the total value of production and in the number of employes. For this reason the St. Louis Social Service Conference, desiring a knowledge of facts concerning Missouri industries and their relation to many social questions, selected this industry for its first study. Last winter and spring an extensive yet very incomplete investigation of working conditions in the shoe factories was made. In presenting the following résumé of the most salient points of the report, it is well to state that the statistics are so incomplete and unrelated to numerous other factors, that present tentative interpretations and deductions, no matter by whom made, may, from the light of future inquiry, be proven unwarranted and impertinent.

All of the figures used were given to the conference's visitor by factory superintendents or are taken direct from the Red Book for 1908-1909, issued by the State Bureau of Labor Statistics. It is regrettable that no statistical material was obtained from shoe operators, and this lack forms one of the many elements of incompleteness in the report.

During 1908-09 there were in St. Louis twenty-six shoe factories. The conference's representative sought to gather information regarding capital invested, dividends, yearly output, number of men, women and children employed, wages, health of employes, sanitary conditions and the like. It has been sought to supplement the information gathered by personal investigation and to compare it with the labor bureau reports. Much of the information particularly desired could not be secured, as often one or more factories would give certain material which another or others would withhold—thus spoiling averages and summaries. Practically no statement could be procured on dividends, and the report is vague and meager with regard to sanitary conditions.

The employers have given annual and daily average, maximum and minimum output; hours and wages per day and per pair, price and how many pairs in a case; number of employes (men, women and children under sixteen) and the various kinds of employment (with totals) such as cutters, skivers, stitchers, vampers, etc., etc., in each factory. Incomplete figures were procured on number of days working, not working, time, part time, and overtime. The figures on the average age of men, women and children employes, and average time at trade are also unsatisfactory. Though the effort was made, no figures whatever were got on average time off for sickness or other reasons.

From the 1908-09 Red Book it is found that there were fifty-one Missouri shoe factories—twenty-six in St. Louis, the remaining twenty-five scattered through the state. Of these twenty-five, four were in the penitentiary, eight in cities of less than 5,000, and six, called "rural factories," are in towns of such inconsiderable size that they are listed by the county they are in. Parenthetically, the reader's attention is called to the fact that in Missouri towns under 5,000 in population are exempt from factory inspection,—including of course the enforcement of child labor laws.

During 1908 the average annual wage of an employe,—man and woman, boy and girl,—in city, town, and country, in any Missouri factory was $460, or $9.58 a week, counting forty-eight weeks to the year. Almost a dollar a week less than this is $8.67, the average wage in the fifty-one Missouri shoe factories. The average weekly wage in the twenty-six St. Louis shoe factories was $9.58; in the twenty-five out of St. Louis, only $6.67; and from this it drops to $5.28 for the six rural factories, and to $3.91 a week or $188 a year for the average rate for a convict's labor in the penitentiary. Take a glance back over these figures to secure their order: peni-

tentiary rate, lowest; rural factories, next; small towns; cities. And, though the city wage is largest, even it is very small—$9.58 a week, $459.81 a year.

This yearly average of $459.81 paid in the St. Louis shoe factories falls $100.19 below the $560 estimated by the ten district workers of the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo as the "lowest tolerable budget without charity for a man, wife, and three children from eight to fourteen years of age."[1] Fortunately it is not necessary to consider the three children between eight and fourteen years old in reckoning a budget for shoe workers in St. Louis. Most of the men leave the shoe factories before their children get that old.

The average age of the male employe in four factories reporting is twenty-eight years. It is uncommon to find a male operator over thirty-eight and almost impossible to find one of forty-five. What becomes of them, a future study must determine. This is too vital a question to leave unanswered.

In all figures given, the weekly wage has been based on forty-eight working weeks a year. Estimates on this basis are uncertain, for full data could not be had on the average amount of lost time for each employe. For the same reason the average daily wage is no criterion of weekly or yearly earnings. Thus, in six factories reporting the average daily wage for women is found to be $1.77; for men, $2.43. Cutters, among the most skilled workers, average $3.75 a day. For several shoe trade employments in the St. Louis factories the Red Book lists a weekly wage of $2.50. In all employments except lasting a ten-hour day, fifty-nine-hour week, obtains. Lasters have a nine-hour day.

The investigation figures on speed are incomplete and very technical. Some general idea may be gained, however, from the report on eyeletters. Average daily wage, $1.64; output daily, 1-2000 pairs. In one factory, a woman eyeletter ranges daily from 125-150 cases of twenty-four pairs a case. She receives two cents a case. To make three dollars she handles 7,200 shoes.

Related to all this statistical material are such statements as: "The increase in child labor was not due to stringency, the increased cost of living, or to the poorer condition of the masses, but, instead, to an increased demand for those workers from the new canneries and shoe factories,"[1] and: "The city of St. Louis was originally the boot and shoe center, as far as Missouri goes, but, in the last three or four years, this industry has spread out into the state and now every town of any size has a factory."[2] Again it is pointed out that factory inspection extends only to towns of 5,000 and over.

Recent St. Louis newspaper items say that the number of factories in St. Louis has decreased during 1909-1910, but that there has been a great increase in the outlying districts.

The boot and shoe workers are but weakly unionized. Since losing a big St. Louis strike in 1907, the union has never regained its strength. St. Louis union men have told investigators that one great difficulty in the way of organizing there is the general feeling among city workers that, in case of a strike, shoe workers from the country factories would be brought in as strikebreakers.

From this report the most distinct impression that the conference received was that, in the light of this incomplete investigation, the wage paid in all shoe factories in the state, whether in city, town, country, or penitentiary, seems very low. The low scale, it believes, is due to the lowest wages paid, *i. e.*, in penitentiary and rural factories. The remedies nearest at hand are: first, the abolition of the penitentiary contract system of labor; second, the extension of factory inspection throughout the state; and third, the regulation of the hours of employment of women.

[1] THE SURVEY: June 4, 1910, p. 370.

[1] Red Book, page 321.

[2] Red Book, page 181.

THE TREND OF THINGS

A bird's eye view of social and industrial conditions and covering seven counties in south central Pennsylvania appears in a pamphlet outline entitled a Survey of Huntingdon Presbytery, by G. B. St. John, recently issued by the Department of Immigration of the Board of Foreign Missions of the Presbyterian Church. The district covers about one-eighth of the state, and has a population of 321,939, of whom about one-fifth are foreigners.

Five counties are agricultural and in these Mr. St. John finds that the American farmers have within the last generation been displaced by Germans. The Americans seem to have migrated to the cities, some finding work among the 15,000 employes of the Pennsylvania Railroad shops at Altoona, or the 5,000 employed by the Logan Steel Works at Burnham, in Mifflin county. Juniata county has shown a decrease within the last forty years. The other agricultural districts have increased during that time, but three have begun to fall off of late.

The principal industrial counties are Blair and Clearfield, whose mines, quarries and brick yards have drawn such numbers that population has almost trebled in forty years. Throughout the presbytery neglect of the more recent immigrants, Slavs and Italians, is evident and in these two densely settled counties the problem of the immigrant is most acute.

Of the two races, the Italian is the more transient, moving as the centers of quarrying and brickmaking change. The Slav settles permanently around the coal mines, from which his willingness to accept a low standard of working conditions drove his American and Irish competitors. It is interesting to note, however, that at the present time the Slav miners are for the most part organized, and the most recent element that has come into the mines to lower conditions is the non-union American farm laborer, willing to work for almost anything during the slack season on the farm. The union miners have an eight-hour day and can earn four to four and a half dollars a day. But many of the mines are shut down during several months in the year and weekly earnings frequently average only between five and ten dollars throughout the year. With such an income life can give only the satisfaction of the barest necessities. The standard of living is further lowered by miserable housing in hideous company houses of the roughest wooden construction, built on piles and often so badly as to let in rain and snow. In many of these there is no water supply and pails must be carried in summer five or six blocks, and filled in winter by melting snow. The spiritual opportunities offered the workers are of the same grade—a district school whose curriculum is not adapted to the needs of the pupils, and is under the direction of a young and inexperienced teacher. There is no church nor any other center of social life, no organized recreation nor club for young or old. It is not surprising, under such circumstances, that drunkenness is common. "There is nothing else for the miners to do," says one mine superintendent.

With such material and such spiritual opportunities Mr. St. John fears that we are in danger of developing in these communities a permanent peasant class, incapable of adapting itself to American civilization. There is some encouragement, however, in the fact that in spite of social neglect, the Slavic immigrant, the hardiest and most ambitious of his race, is hard-working and thrifty; the police records show that few commit crimes more serious than drunkenness and disorderly conduct and their children are, according to school records, intelligent and eager to learn. There is a ray of encouragement, too, in the fact that everywhere among both Slavs and Italians, Mr. St. John found a growing unrest and discontent with their position in the social system.

In a district like Huntington Presbytery, of thinly settled farms and small, densely populated industrial centers, there is only one agency for social improvement and that is the church, which, too, in such districts more than in cities, is recognized as any agency for social as well as individual regeneration. A federation of all churches, Mr. St. John believes, strengthened within the Presbyterian Church by a special superintendent of social work and a committee on foreign speaking people, should not only bring religion to the foreigners, but should try in all but the largest cities, to secure better housing, better education and better recreation,—should, that is, absorb the functions of all those social agencies which are not practicable in a district like Huntington Presbytery.

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Chicago's health department bulletin, whose "healthgrams" have been so widely quoted, took occasion during the first week of the school year to print some "schoolgrams":

"Let the first lesson be: How to keep well.

"You'll be brighter, learn more and keep in better health if your teacher will keep the windows of the school room open. Bad air makes a sluggish brain.

"'Do unto others as you would have others do unto you'—meaning: Don't carry disease germs to school and cause sickness and perhaps death among your playmates. If you have a contagious disease at home keep entirely away from all other children. Stay at home if you have a sore throat.

"'Skidoo' from the boy or girl with 'a little sore throat.'

"A 'little sore throat' in one little child may cause a big lot of trouble for many other children. Many 'little sore throats' are in reality diphtheria.

"Wash the drinking cup thoroughly before putting it to your mouth. The child who used it just before you may have left the germs of disease on it. Wash the germs off.

"Keep that pencil out of your mouth—it may have scarlet fever, diphtheria or typhoid fever germs on it.

"Swapping gum, swapping apples and swapping candy are about the dirtiest things—and the most dangerous things—that a child can do. Don't be that dirty.

"Keep your hands clean. Soap is your good friend—dirt is your worst enemy.

"Eat very little candy—treat your stomach well and you'll live longer.

"Never buy candy or fruit at an open stand on the street. Flies have left all kinds of dirt on it and dirt from the streets has been blown upon it.

"When you play, play out of doors—but never play in dusty places.

"Don't run to school—especially just after eating. Start in time so that you will not have to run.

"Be well and you'll be happy—even in school."

* * *

The Massachusetts Civic League has outlined a plan for a better housing campaign throughout the state. E. T. Hartman, secretary of the league, declares that "there is probably no town in Massachusetts, surely no city, that has not some bad housing conditions, whose growth should be stopped by persistent work along certain known and consistent lines." In the work of improving conditions the league offers to send representatives to advise and co-operate with local groups. The plan proposed covers the enactment of laws which will make it impossible in the future to construct houses inadequately lighted or ventilated; the ascertaining and improving of laws providing for the proper maintenance and use of buildings already constructed; the educating of the tenant in his responsibilities, of the public in its rights in regard to sanitary conditions in housing, and of the landlord to the financial value of property well kept up.

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In the early spring of 1909 the Charity Organization Society of New York city relinquished its mendicancy department and the National Association for the Prevention of Mendicancy and Charitable Imposture was formed, with James Forbes as secretary and director. The objects of the association are "to investigate throughout the United States the causes and effects of homelessness, vagrancy, begging, imposture and fraudulent appeals and to create and apply methods of prevention, and to assist blind, crippled and indigent persons to secure employment or . . . in other ways seek the advancement of their interests." The first annual report of the association shows the work of the mendicancy police taken up at the point where it was dropped when those police were discontinued. Many "old timers", who had been forced off the streets and either furnished with work or put in the care of relatives, were found to be back on the streets. In dealing with these and with new cases many difficulties were found in the association's first year, among them the "political pull" of some of the meanest and most inexcusable mendicants, the softheartedness of magistrates and the lack of sufficient funds to do the association's work effectively. But the most important was the lack of willingness on the part of individuals or societies to take care of those old persons or cripples who ought not to be expected to work and who have an unconquerable dread of institutional life. This shrinking should be respected, the society feels, and their needs should be met by adequate pensions. A number of typical cases are quoted in the report, the majority of which show some physical handicap, which made self-support practically impossible, as the fundamental cause of mendicancy, imposture or fraudulent appeal. Probably only a small number of cases can be dealt with by the police alone, the furnishing of relief or suitable work being far the most important and difficult side of the problem. The work of the association has this year been limited to New York city, but the co-operation, financial and otherwise, of some thirty charity organization societies in other cities has been secured, and it is expected that, with adequate financial assistance, the scope of the work will gradually expand. The annual report shows seventy-two persons arrested, seven furnished with employment, four aided with transportation and 287 with advice and in some cases money. The society has records of almost 9,000 mendicants, including photographs and finger prints—a mass of information which should be invaluable to charitable institutions and individuals throughout the country. To render effective national service it is glad to enter into co-operation with charity organizations throughout the country and desires correspondence toward this end.

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The National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, 20 West Forty-fourth street, New York city, has issued its Bulletin No. 11, which is A Descriptive List of Trade and Industrial Schools in the United States. The materials for this catalog have been compiled by Edward H. Reisner, the secretary of the society. The contents fall into eight divisions, the most important of which are those on Intermediate Industrial Schools, Trade Schools (Day Courses), Technical Schools (Day Courses), Apprentice Schools and Evening Schools giving (a) Technical and (b) Practical Shop Courses.

The pamphlet was published as a result of a general demand for a tabulation of the main facts and features of the administration and curricula of the industrial and trade schools at present in operation in this country. As a majority of the existing intermediate industrial schools have been inaugurated within a period of two years, the facts relating to this section are of particular interest to those concerned with modern educational movements.

COMMUNICATIONS

ARE CHARITABLE SOCIETIES RUDE?

To the Editor:

To the admirable advice on page 841 of THE SURVEY on the press, let me add: Be ordinarily polite to a reporter.

My experience as a reporter was that the rudest places I went to, short of people in society, were the charitable offices. I still sting with the memory of the way I was treated in two or three—two I distinctly remember, but will not name, offices of large societies in New York in the seventies—when I visited them, as a reporter.

Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell was a model in the way she treated a reporter. I still reverence the memory of ten minutes with that saintly and sainted woman. Note, it is easier to be sainted than saintly. My own personal experience is that until you are known, and sometimes after that, the manners of charitable societies are bad. The officials deal so much with cheats, impostors, and dependents, that they begin by treating all the unknown as in one of these three classes. The sergeant at the desk in the police station comes to have the same manner, only worse.

TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

Philadelphia, Pa.

THE PAGE BILL

TO THE EDITOR:

There is a statement on page 869 of your issue of September 17, from one of your female correspondents which ought not to go unrebuked. She says "that when a man and woman have all the children our present economic conditions permit them to bring up decently"—which would seem to imply that the bringing of children into the world should be governed entirely by questions of economy and prudence—"for that man and that woman the use of the sex function should cease." For one to assume that position is to teach contrary to the entire consensus of the Christian Church and of the Sacred Scriptures. The marriage office of the English Prayer Book says that holy matrimony was ordained not only for the procreation of children, but also "as a remedy against sin . . . that such persons as have not the gift of continency might marry and keep themselves undefiled," and for "mutual society,—help and comfort."

St. Paul says it is better to marry than to be consumed with desire, and directs married people not "to defraud one the other except it be with consent and that for a time." As a married man I resent the terms of "prostitution" and "lust" being applied to the natural relationship of a man and his wife. "Lust" means desire for a physical gratification irrespective of affection for, or against the will of, the object. There may be of course married men who are brutal and inconsiderate to their wives, but as a teacher of morals I utterly deny the position of your—I presume maiden—correspondent that all marital intercourse except for the purpose of producing children is wrong.

G. WOOLSEY HODGE,

Rector of the Church of the Ascension, Philadelphia.

JOTTINGS

Annual Meeting of the New York Charity Organization Society.—The New York Charity Organization Society will hold its annual meeting in room 306 of the United Charities Building, 105 East 22nd street, New York, on Wednesday, October 12, at a quarter past three o'clock.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

NATIONAL.

National Conference of Charities and Correction. June, 1911. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.

STATE.

Maine Conference of Charities and Correction. October 26-29, 1910. Portland. Secretary, Francis H. Hiller, Portland.

Massachusetts Conference of Charities. October 26-28, 1910. Fitchburg. Secretary, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont street, Boston.

Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities. October 11-13, 1910. Willliamsport. Secretary, Louis C. Colborn, Somerset.

Minnesota Conference of Charities and Correction. November, 1910. Crookston. Secretary, E. T. Lies, City and County Building, Minnneapolis.

New York Conference of Charities and Correction. November 15-17, 1910. Rochester. Secretary, Frank E. Wade, 1106 D. S. Morgan Building, Buffalo.

South Carolina Conference of Charities and Correction. December 8-9, 1910. Florence. President, A. T. Jamison, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood.

Connecticut Conference of Charities and Correction. March or April, 1911. New Haven. Secretary, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury.

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction. March, 1911. Princeton. Secretary, J. Byron Deacon, 417 Roger Williams Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

PRISON CONGRESS GOES TO LONDON

The International Prison Congress in session last week in Washington adjourned with the selection of London as the meeting place for 1915 and Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise as president of the International Commission to succeed Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago. The new president is chairman of the British Prison Commission and has been a leading delegate to the congresses since that of Paris in 1895. The 1915 meeting will bring the congress back to the city of its first meeting place and afford a remarkable opportunity for reviewing the advances since the initial congress of 1872.

The American meeting this year, however, brought the international body to the country of its inspiration and many were the tributes paid to its founder, E. C. Wines. It is more than appropriate, therefore, that this year's congress brought with it an unequivocal declaration on the part of a majority of the delegates in favor of the scientific principle of the indeterminate sentence, that is, of reformation as the basis for treating offenders. Here, as at no previous congress, a more complete understanding was reached as to the exact meaning of principles and practice, removing many of the tenacious conflicts of ideas. While the Washington meeting thus carried with it a worldwide recognition of those newer and more humanitarian concepts for which prison reformers and reformatory managers in America have long stood, the trip throughout the country and the incidental discussions at Washington brought out with equal clearness the utter and bitter inconsistency embodied in the treatment of men, women, and children in the local prisons and jails of the United States. In his closing address, the president-elect voiced both the appreciation of the foreign delegates of the hospitality shown them and the indebtedness of the Old World to the New for its demonstrations of modern treatment of the delinquent; but he linked with these things a ringing appeal to America to root out the entrenched evils of the locally administered jails and workhouses.

The different sections of the conference met under the chairmanships of Adolphe Prins of Belgium, Prof. Dr. J. Simon van der Aa of Holland, Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise, and Dr. Katharine B. Davis of New York state. The appointment of the superintendent of Bedford Reformatory was a recognition of the part which American women have played in the field of prison reform. A general review of the congress will be published in the November magazine number of THE SURVEY, coupled with several of the leading papers, a series of sketches of the foreign delegates, a review of the American trip by one of the latter, and a presentation by a member of the Chinese party of the significance of the group of Oriental jurists and prison administrators in attendance at the International Congress.

In brief, the resolutions under the section on criminal law, approved the scientific principle of the indeterminate sentence and defined the make-up of parole boards which should give it application; they provided that crimes and misdemeanors of which a person is guilty in one country should be recognized with reference to establishing recidivism in other countries. Under the section on prison administration, the essential principles on which the reformatory method is based were defined, short term sentences deprecated, and the joint confinement of prisoners waiting trial and those serving short sentences condemned. The resolutions defined the terms on which conditional liberation and parole should be carried out, and distinguished between probation and parole; they held that all penal institutions, including houses of

SIDNEY WEBB.

detention and jails, should be under the control of a central authority, that all prisoners should be employed at useful labor, and that local jails and houses of detention should, so far as possible, be used solely for prisoners awaiting trial. Under the third section on prevention, the resolutions held that the state should allow payment to prisoners and that this money should be available for the assistance of their families if needed. They affirmed the uselessness of repeated short sentences for inebriety and the practical success of special establishments for the detention for long periods of habitual criminal drunkards. They favored workhouses for professional mendicants and vagrants, and advocated agricultural and industrial training and medical supervision in connection with the same; also the extension or establishment of a system of identification or classification of such offenders. The section held that it is desirable to introduce and extend laws providing for probation and to provide some central authority which will exercise general supervision over the work. The effects of suspended sentence without probational oversight are difficult if not impossible to ascertain.

Under the fourth section, dealing with children, a strong series of resolutions were drawn up declaring that young delinquents should not be subjected to the penal procedure now applied to adults, and defining the principles of probationary control with respect to them. The section held that legislative measures and moral and social propaganda are necessary for the protection of illegitimate children, declaring incidentally but strongly for a single moral standard applicable to men and women alike. It supported laws for making parents responsible for the wrongdoing of their children.

By action of the International Prison Commission, Councillor Jules Bickl de Bellye, chief of the Hungarian prison system, who was president of the Budapest congress of 1905, and Z. R. Brockway of Elmira were honorary presidents of the Washington congress. Appropriate recognition was made of the services both to prison reform and to the congress of the late Samuel June Barrows, who had been elected president of the International Commission at Budapest. At the close of the sessions, Dr. Guillaume, secretary of the congress, now in his eighty-fourth year, was made honorary president and Professor van der Aa was elected to the secretaryship so long and honorably filled by Dr. Guillaume.

DISEASE OF DESTITUTION

Word reaches us from England of the first general meeting, held at Llanbedr, Wales, by the National Committee

for the Prevention of Destitution, organized to obtain legislation which would revolutionize the treatment of poverty in the British Isles. The reports of the Royal Commission to Investigate the Poor Law were submitted in the early part of 1909 and an outline of the report of the majority of the commissioners was given in THE SURVEY of April 3, 1909;[1] of the proposals of the minority for dealing with unemployment in THE SURVEY of April 17, 1909.[2]

The object of both majority and minority is the substitution of prevention for relief, and the method of prevention of poverty through unemployment, urged by both, has many points in common, though the minority plan is broader in scope and national instead of local in administration.

The development bill of the fall of 1909, by which certain public works were to be undertaken and work on them was to be arranged to fill in periods of slack work in the business world, and the Labor Exchanges opened last February, were a partial response, if not directly to the recommendations of the reports, at any rate to the public demand for regularizing employment which found one channel of expression through the reports. Only one-tenth, however, of those persons coming to the poor law authorities were found by the commissioners to be able-bodied. Nine-tenths were children, the sick in mind or body, old persons, or widows with little children. For these classes, with the exception of pensions for the old—and these do not, by the way, include those old persons who are being cared for by the poor law authorities—no action has been taken by Parliament on either majority or minority report. So far as can be ascertained the majority are not pressing for legislation; the minority, consisting of Mrs. Sidney Webb, George Lansbury, Rev. Russell Wakefield and F. Chandler, have spread their propaganda of the abolition of destitution—no small contract—so widely that it will be quite worth while to consider their propositions for dealing with the nine-tenths who should rightly be dependents.

Already, though less than a year old, the National Committee for the Prevention of Destitution numbers 30,000 and its organizers travel all over the country lecturing and forming local groups. In April a prevention of destitution bill was presented in Parliament; one week-long meeting to push the bill has been held and a monster mass meeting is planned to be held in London at Whitsuntide.

Both majority and minority agree that the mixed workhouse is an un-mixed evil. The substantial disagreement between the two is that whereas the majority would, where indoor care is needed,

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[1] C. L. Loch, English Royal Commission on Poor Law and Relief of Distress.
[2] John Martin, A Remedy for Unemployment.

split the workhouse up into about half a dozen institutions—hospitals and asylums—designed for the different classes of dependents but run by an improved poor law authority, the minority would put dependents of these classes into institutions coming under the Public Health, Education or other boards. The minority believe, that is, that duplication of authorities should be avoided and that the functions of poor law authorities should be simply to connect the dependent with existing institutions.

More important still, the minority would give institutional care only to those for whom outdoor care could not possibly be provided.

Even more radical is the difference in outdoor care suggested by the two groups. The majority would continue, but greatly improve, the present method of giving outdoor relief by special officials. The minority, true to their principle of avoiding a duplication of agencies brought to bear on any individual, would put children entirely in the care of the education authorities, which now, as they point out, not only teach but frequently partially feed, clothe and give them medical care. The aged they would bring under the pension office and the sick under the health departments. To the functions already belonging to these bodies they would add the power to search out destitution and prevent it in its incipient stages instead, as under the present system, of allowing the disease of destitution to gain such ground that the "patient" is a hopeless pauper before he comes to the notice of the authorities. Having sought out the case before it was incurable, the authority dealing with that individual should have the power either to compel adequate support from the responsible person—and in this the Labor Exchange would help—to pension those suitable for pensions or give whatever other care was necessary. In the case of the sick or feeble-minded, the health authorities should have power to treat at home or forcibly to remove, as the case demanded, and would make it its special business to take in time and enforce treatment of industrial diseases, such as tuberculosis, lead poisoning, varicose veins, and hernia. It is with something of a shock that we learn that this system of medical assistance, though it would be as universal and as compulsory as the public school system, is not to be free. On the other hand both majority and minority have advanced ideas in regard to the care of widows with young children, both urging that their complete support should legitimately fall on the community and that childhood should be extended to the age of fifteen.

As in the case of unemployment, however, the minority scheme of pensions is broader in scope than that of the majority. The former believe that all old persons and widows of the wage-earning class should be eligible to receive support from the government; the latter that pensions should be given at the discretion of those administering poor relief.

At the recent meeting in Wales the problem of unemployment was discussed by Sidney Webb, Prof. Stanley Jevons and Prof. Thomas Jones; of neglected childhood by Clifford Sharp, and several sessions were devoted to the details of administration of the proposed system in Scotland and Wales. Of greatest interest to the visiting philanthropist was the general analysis of the minority method of abolishing destitution given by Beatrice Webb, and the discussion of objections to the prevention of destitution bill by George Lansbury of the London County Council.

The "breaking-up" of the poor law planned by the supporters of the prevention of destitution bill means more than simply changing the system of relief from the old punitive method of dealing with pauperism while leaving the causes of destitution unchecked. It means also not segregating the pauper victims of prolonged destitution, but bringing them under the same treatment with those in the initial stages of destitution. By searching out the latter class and treating them through recognized institutions, which already come into intimate contact with their lives and which are not associated with the reproach of pauperism, the minority believe that that social dis-

ease which produces a pauper class can ultimately be eliminated. The preventive idea in dealing with poverty is recognized by what Sidney Webb calls the "New York philanthropy" in far greater degree than by that "London philanthropy" which framed the majority report, but the New York school has not so fully as the minority worked out a plan of nipping destitution in the bud through the agency of public education and public health bodies, and it will be sometime before this school accepts the idea of any very wide system of government pensions.

CLASSES IN ENGLISH FOR IMMIGRANTS

Night classes to teach foreigners English have been conducted by the boards of education in many large cities throughout the country. Thus far, however, the smaller places have failed to provide similarly for immigrants who settle in them and whose conditions frequently involve handicaps quite as serious as those to be found in the larger cities. Foreign laborers who are unable to speak English find it even more difficult in small towns than in larger cities to become acquainted with work and other opportunities elsewhere. An excellent example has been set by Mt. Kisco, a small village of two or three thousand people, about forty miles from New York, where the Board of Education has decided to start a night school for foreigners, most of them Italians between twenty and twenty-seven years of age. The school is to have two sessions a week through the winter, beginning October 10, and already some forty-five men are on the register. The principal of the day school is to supervise the work without extra salary, and C. M. Wood, whose interest in the Italians of the village started the movement for the night school, volunteers her services for the beginners.

The far-reaching importance of a knowledge of English on the part of immigrants is strikingly brought out in a letter recently addressed by the manager of the Labor Information Office for Italians of New York city, G. E. di Palma Castiglione, to the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population. He makes the radical suggestion that there should be compulsory teaching of English to all adult residents of New York, who cannot prove that they know the language. He urges that this would help lessen congestion, for the immigrant who knows English is not only able to learn of opportunities in other places, but is less hesitant to go where he may not be surrounded by people who speak his native language. While present facilities and means are not adequate to provide this teaching of English, even if it were required by law, it is most desirable that provision be made for it. Another suggestion of the Labor Information Office for Italians, that public authorities regulate the business of taking boarders or lodgers, likewise points out a thing that urgently needs to be done. It must be recognized, however, that there would be difficulty in securing the money and machinery to enforce such a law even if it could be enacted.

INDUSTRIAL COMPENSATION AT CHENEY SILK MILLS

Cheney Brothers, silk manufacturers of Manchester, Conn., who have for some years maintained a non-contributory pension system for long service as well as a mutual tuberculosis benefit association, have this summer improved and extended their benefit association to cover sickness and accident, annuities and death benefits. Though the firm bears the full expense of work-accident and death payments, only members of the general association who pay two per cent of their wages toward sickness and death from disease payments and annuities payable after a certain age and term of service, are eligible to compensation for industrial accident. The compensation is therefore tied up with a contributory system, and in so far is inferior to the Harvester and Steel Corporation plans, which apply to all employes on a really non-contributory basis. The system in the Cheney mills is a pure compensatory

scheme, throwing the burden of the accident on the industry, except in cases of culpable negligence on the part of the workmen. The amount of the benefits stands midway between the other two plans, the death benefit being three years' wages and moderate funeral expenses; total incapacity, for which payment begins after three days, half pay for a maximum of six years; partial incapacity half the difference between pay received before and after the accident—the payment, that is, is based not on the nature of the injury but on the amount to which it handicaps the worker. All payments are increased one per cent for each year's service beyond five years, and five per cent for each child under sixteen, but no increase can exceed twenty-five per cent. All medical and surgical expenses are paid.

The total contributions of employes, increased by a twenty-five per cent contribution from the firm, are used for the sickness and annuity fund. Only the proportion of the employe's contribution which would be used on his annuity is recoverable if he leaves the firm. In case of death the annuity contribution, with four per cent interest, is paid to the defendants of the deceased; in case of the marriage of a woman employe the same amount is paid to her as dowry. The sickness benefit is one-half pay for fifty-two weeks and one-quarter for a further period of the same length. In cases of confinement the firm requires a woman belonging to the benefit association to stay away fourteen weeks at least, eight of which are to be before her baby is born.

In consequence of the fact that all work-accident payments, all running expenses and all risks are paid by the firm, Cheney Brothers reserve the right to appoint the treasurer and a majority of the board of trustees.

LARGE ENROLLMENT IN BOSTON SCHOOL

The School for Social Workers, maintained in Boston by Simmons College and Harvard University, has opened its seventh year with sixty-two students, the largest enrollment as yet. One-half of them are giving all their working time through the year to the course. Twelve are doing three-fifths of the full work, nearly all of whom expect to complete the course next year. The others, persons already at work or holding fellowships in research, attend two mornings a week through the year. There are ten men, three of them fellows in research. Of the total, eighteen hold degrees of a college or professional school and four are graduate nurses.

The program has been enriched by the addition of a course on physiology by Professor Stiles and a course on psychology by Dr. Dewing, both of Simmons College. An elementary knowledge of those subjects and of economics is now required of all candidates for the school certificate. The offices of the school have been enlarged. The classroom is practically filled. There has been a marked increase in the number of former students who are now holding positions in social service in and about Boston; notably in public offices, through the civil service. In the research work there are nine assistants and fellows. The executive staff of the school remains unchanged, Jeffrey R. Brackett, director; Zilpha D. Smith, associate; and Theodore W. Glocker, assistant.

PHILADELPHIA PUBLIC PLAYGROUNDS COMMITTEE

Philadelphia, which has lagged behind, is planning a comprehensive system for public recreation. Last July Councils appropriated $121,900 to the newly appointed Public Playgrounds Committee under a unique plan by which the committee is to create municipal baths as well as playgrounds and recreation centers. For the present, the existing public baths maintained by the Bureau of City Property and the playgrounds managed by the Board of Public Education and those under the commissioners of Fairmount Park, are not to be in the control of the new committee. After the committee has organized the necessary ad-

ministrative machinery, some or all of these may be transferred to its jurisdiction.

The members of the committee serve without pay. The sum of $25,000 has been set aside for stationery, clerical force, supervision and salaries of teachers. The balance, $96,900, is for the development of playgrounds, completing the improvement of Starr Garden, and for general maintenance.

Although the school authorities have had vacation playgrounds, effective interest in municipal recreation centers really began with the formation of the Philadelphia Playgrounds Association three years ago. City officials at first favored playgrounds mainly as an easy bid for popular approval. Later a number of them studied playgrounds in other cities. The journey had good results, and Councils are no longer inclined to vote money for playgrounds under conditions making its use impossible. This change has been due largely to the persistence of Otto T. Mallery.

Several sites have been given to the city for playgrounds as a result of the interest awakened. The first to be developed will be Starr Garden, a small park with meager playground apparatus, which has long belonged to the city but has been privately supported.

The committee appointed to supervise playgrounds consists of:

James R. C. McAllister, chairman, also chairman of finance committee of Councils; Mayor John E. Reyburn; Alfred S. Eisenhower, chief of the Bureau of City Property; Joseph S. Neff, director of the Department of Public Health and Charities; William H. Staake, judge of Court of Common Pleas No. 5; William A. Stecher, director of physical education of the Board of Education; John W. B. Carson and Otto T. Mallery, secretary.

These gentlemen were all interested in the work of the playgrounds association. W. D. Champlin, who served as assistant secretary of the association, is the executive secretary of the commission. A supervisor of the playgrounds has not yet been chosen. The commission intends to use every possible care to select a man of tact, judgment and experience, a policy which promises thoroughness in handling the whole problem.

DR. C. S. BERNHEIMER GOES TO BROOKLYN

Dr. Charles S. Bernheimer, for four years assistant headworker of the University Settlement in New York, leaves the settlement this month to take charge of the Hebrew Educational Society of Brooklyn. Dr. Bernheimer, who has been a social worker in both Philadelphia and New York, brings to his new work much experience and a keen interest in problems connected with the Jewish immigrant. In 1905 he edited a compilation on the Russian Jew in America, his own contribution being a study of the Jewish population of Philadelphia.

Since his connection with the University Settlement besides his regular club work he made a study of a block in the lower East Side, and later a study of East Side rents during the period of hard times.[1] During the past year he presented facts as to conditions in this part of New York to the Committee on Congestion, and made a study of the shirtwaist strike which was published as one of the University Settlement Studies. He has written and lectured on immigration, settlements, and practical social subjects.

The work of Brooklyn Hebrew Educational Society includes manual, domestic and religious training, courses preparatory to the regents' examinations, instruction in home nursing and gymnasium practice, clubs and classes for mothers, gardening, and other activities carried on by social settlements.

NEW SECRETARY FOR THE ST. LOUIS CIVIC LEAGUE

By reason of his large acquaintanceship with those in social work all over the country, the appointment of Roger N. Baldwin as secretary of the St. Louis Civic League has more than local interest. Mr. Baldwin went from Boston to St. Louis in 1906 to have charge of Self-Culture Hall and to head the new department of sociology at Washington University. In 1907 he became chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court and it was largely through his efforts that a

[1] See THE SURVEY for January 4 and 18, 1908.

new juvenile court law was enacted last year. While director of Self-Culture Hall, Mr. Baldwin organized the St. Louis Social Service Conference, composing now in its membership of 175 practically all the active social workers of St. Louis. He is also a director of the St. Louis School of Social Economy and secretary of the National Probation Officers' Association. In his new office he succeeds Mayo Fesler, who goes to Cleveland to be secretary of the Municipal Association.

The St. Louis Civic League has an active membership of 1,800. In large measure it has restricted its field of operation to the physical betterment of the city and has had gratifying results in dealing with parks, playgrounds, billboards, lighting, garbage collection, and the like. Lately its tendency has been toward including moral and social betterment, and it is in this direction that Mr. Baldwin will probably extend the work. He holds that public service should be a profession and not a plum tree, and that a reconstruction of the whole mental attitude of the public toward municipal service must be built up. The Civic League, already interested in charter revision and several other such issues, will probably work more and more for pure, non-partisan city politics.

ST. LOUIS CITY CLUB

Following the lead of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston, St. Louis has organized a City Club modeled closely after the Boston organization. The membership will probably reach 1,000 within a few weeks. A floor of one of the large downtown office buildings will be rented and, though the club will be largely for luncheon purposes, it will be open evenings. At least once a week there will be regular discussion of civic questions by in and out-of-town experts and it is presumed from the character of the membership that the daily table talk will be largely of civic matters and questions of the day. The club will, of course, be non-partisan politically. City officials, representative business and professional men, labor leaders, and others attended the organization meetings.

Young men will probably predominate in the membership. Luther Ely Smith, president of the Municipal Voters League, was made temporary chairman, and Roger N. Baldwin, secretary-elect of the Civic League, acting secretary.

HEALTH DAY IN BOSTON SCHOOLS

At the second annual Health Day in the public schools of Boston on October 7 a pamphlet, The Co-operation of School Children in Securing a Cleaner Condition of Our Streets, prepared by Mayor Fitzgerald, was read in all the elementary schools in all the grades, and in high schools special exercises were held on the importance of health. The lessons were drawn from the courses in physiology, hygiene and physical education and from the prescribed courses in athletics, games and plays. In many of the upper elementary grades and high schools, special speakers were secured. The pupils were instructed in recent changes in the school rules and regulations calling special attention to room temperature, ventilation, opening of windows during exercises, and in the gist of recent legislation which makes it necessary for every pupil to furnish a certificate of good health before procuring a working certificate. The law which went into effect October 1, abolishing the use of common drinking cups in schools and public places, was also explained.

In the afternoon in Tremont Temple, over 2,000 Boston teachers listened to an address by Joseph Lee of the school committee on physical education in the schools. Mr. Lee said that inasmuch as we force the child to go to school medical inspection is the way of protecting him from injury after we get him there. Another interesting feature of the Tremont Temple meeting was the illustration by seniors from the Boston Normal School of games and dances which they learn to teach pupils from the primary grades to the grammar grades.

WHO PAYS THE TAXES IN GROWING CITIES

JOHN MARTIN

Social workers in growing cities are usually busy increasing city expenditures. Every year they find new social purposes for which public money should be spent. Schools must be improved, they say, industrial education initiated, medical inspection of children extended, hospitals enlarged, anti-tuberculosis campaigns fought, playgrounds established, parks improved, health protection bettered, tenement houses inspected, children's courts inaugurated, probation officers appointed. Money and ever more money they demand.

Therefore it is of vital concern to them to know who pays the city taxes. Do the dollars they persuade mayors and aldermen to appropriate come out of the puny earnings of tenement dwellers? Does every cent expended on municipal playgrounds leave only so much the less for the immigrant rent-payer to spend on bread and milk? Must the swarms in the tenements crowd the closer because their petty income has been charged with the costs of a tenement department? On whom does the burden fall? If the ill-nourished family in the two-room flat must give up a pint of milk for every lesson in cookery which the girl gets at school, the price of a loaf for every hour the boy spends in a gymnasium, then the social worker may well lie awake o' nights wondering if his work be humane or cruel, whether he is blessing the poor or robbing the poor.

In an article on Our Bungling Taxation[1] a writer in THE SURVEY recently said that "the tax is ultimately shifted on the tenant," that all the taxes on a tenement house are "in the tenant's rent and he doesn't see it, but under normal conditions he pays it just the same." If that contention, the stock argument of complaining real estate interests at election periods, be demonstrable, then this writer's conclusion is incontrovertible, that "every cent in taxes taken from these families is practically injustice"—unless, indeed, it can be proven that the city spends more efficiently and on more urgent needs than the families near the poverty line would spend, a proof surely hard to make even in the best-governed cities. Clearly social workers would not be justified in taking the bread out of the baby's mouth in order to endow a hospital bed, in robbing the wife of a day in the country in order to enlarge a park, in depleting the pitiful family savings in order to employ a teacher in economics, in taking the father's fare money and forcing him to live near his work in order to pay for a commission on congestion and city planning.

Happily, however, they need not put on sackcloth and ashes, for the burdens of taxation in growing cities fall on shoulders well able to bear them.

In the following discussion I shall consider conditions in New York city, because New York is the supreme type of a growing city, because there lots and buildings are separately assessed, and because small differences in systems of taxation and in trade customs between cities make slight modifications of the argument necessary in each case. These the reader can supply for his own city.

Real estate taxes, which alone are under consideration, are levied on (1) land and (2) improvements. Whether or not these items are assessed separately their joint value goes on the tax rolls.

As to who pays the tax on land there is no dispute among reputable economists. The owner pays the bill and he cannot pass on the burden to the tenant. In the words of Prof. E. R. A. Seligman, "It may be laid down as a general rule that a tax laid on the owner of the site cannot be shifted."[1]

[1]THE SURVEY for July 16, 1910. Price, .10 cents.

[1]Incidence of Taxation, third edition, pp. 281-2.

In New York city this year the assessment for taxation is:

Ordinary land value	$4,001,129,651.
Improvement value	2,490,206,348.
Total	6,491,335,999.

Therefore out of every thirteen dollars levied as taxes on real estate eight dollars —about two-thirds—is levied on the land. This major part, by the unanimous verdict of authorities, is paid exclusively by owners.

As to who pays the other five out of every thirteen dollars, the portion levied on improvements, there is not the same unanimity. The majority opinion is that the occupier, in the long run, pays it in the form of higher rent. This conclusion is reached as follows:

> Buildings require the investment of so much capital and labor. They require an outlay for construction, for maintenance, for repairs, for insurance. No one will enter on the business of having houses built for investment unless he can count on a definite return, which must in general be equal to the returns from capital invested in undertakings of approximately the same nature. A tax imposed on the owners of the building will therefore generally be shifted to the occupiers; for, if the tax could not be shifted, it would reduce the profits of the owners below the customary level in similar investments. The result would be a cessation of building operations, a consequent scarcity of houses and a gradual increase in the rent or value of existing houses, until the margin became high enough to tempt the investor into further operations. . . . Given a stationary supply of houses, their value or their rent will rise only with the slow increase of population, that is, with a relative diminution of the supply. But in the long run the working of the law is inevitable. Such a tax will, therefore, be shifted to the consumer, that is to the tenant.[1]

It will be noticed that the doctrine asserts that, at most, the taxes on improvements can be shifted to tenants only in "the long run," at the end of a period sufficiently prolonged to show the effects of a check in building operations. The doctrine also implies that a tax on owners of buildings, if not borne by them, will be shifted to the tenant.

But there is another person who may possibly be shouldered with the burden—the landowner. When, as in New York, population and land values are growing and when new areas are constantly brought into use for building, the burden is really thrown on that individual's capacious back. In the districts just being developed this burden-bearer is usually the owner of the vacant land which awaits improvement by buildings. In the built-up districts he owns usually both lot and improvements.

How is this conclusion reached?

In New York city houses are generally erected by builders to sell to investors, the builder doing all the bargaining with the landowner and assuming all the risks of meeting the public taste and of securing tenants. When his house is full he puts it on the market and obtains a purchaser for land and building as one investment by showing that the net returns, ascertained by deducting from the gross rents all costs of operation—insurance, repairs, water, taxes, janitor and so forth—will pay the investor six or seven per cent on his money.

The incidence of the tax on the building is seen most easily by considering a district partially developed. There the rent obtainable at any time for a certain standard of house accommodation is known. The factors of accessibility (depending mainly on rapid transit), convenience to centers of population, to stores, churches and schools, the water supply, lighting and drainage facilities and so forth, are all known, and house rents under the conditions existing have been determined.

A prospective builder, therefore, can calculate exactly how much he can pay for a lot and yet be able to erect a house and to show a prospective purchaser a satisfactory net return on his investment for land and building. In calculating this net return taxes are always included among the fixed annual charges. Therefore if the lot-owner asks such a price that the net return would be less than normal if that price were paid for the lot, the builder declines the bargain.

Can the lot-owner, however, compel the builder to pay the price demanded? If he can, the builder must either exact a rent sufficient to yield a return on the

[1] Seligman, Incidence of Taxation, page 287.

price or lose money on the whole operation. Here is the crux of the problem as to the incidence of the taxes on the buildings. If the landowner had a monopoly, or if all the land available for building were held in a few hands, all of whom were prepared to forego profits for a few years, then the lots might be withheld until rents on existing houses were so high that the builder could afford to pay the price demanded, and still obtain a net return on the new house and lot sufficient to secure a purchaser. Actually, however, there is competition among lot-sellers for purchasers and the value of a lot at any time in any district is limited by the rent which buildings to be erected on that lot will bring at that time and place. It is misleading to reason as if the landowner could fix the price of the lot and the future occupier could be compelled to pay the interest charges on the price thus arbitrarily named. If that were the case there would appear to be no limit to the landowners' demands.

It is objected to this line of reasoning that the "ground-owner is in the stronger position and as between the landowner and the tenant the tenant is the weaker party. The house builder knows in normal cases of increasing demand that he can more easily raise rents (since demand increases) than compel the ground-owner to take less than the market value. The landowner is not compelled to part with his land; but the tenant is compelled to occupy some apartments."[1]

"To take less than the market value." But what is "the market value"? That is the whole problem. Market value depends on net returns after taxes and other operating expenses are paid. Market value is simply net return capitalized. The higher the taxes the less the net return for the given rent—which is a known quantity at that time and place, —and therefore the less the "market value" of the land.

"The landowner is not compelled to part with his land" only in case he can afford to hold it and all other landowners in that neighborhood agree to stand out with him for a higher price. And not only owners in that neighborhood, but also owners of land suitable for buildings anywhere around the city. So long as the builder can secure land anywhere at a price which, upon the rents obtainable then and there, will show a normal return on the total investment, he will not pay any landowner a higher price in the hope that, for the houses he will build, he will be able to exact a rent higher than is being paid for like accommodations in the same neighborhood.

The compulsion upon the tenant "to occupy some apartments," a compulsion which will make him willing to pay a rent increased by the amount of the tax on the building, becomes operative only if the land monopoly is so close that builders cannot buy land and supply apartments fast enough to keep pace with the growth of population. Before bridges and subways were built this was the actual condition in Manhattan and rents rose fast.

In a district just being opened to population the builder cannot calculate with the same precision how much rent he can secure for his houses when erected, as he can in a district already partially developed. Public taste, fashion, racial and religious preferences, the loneliness of a new district, the distance from stores, the absence of schools and churches, the uncertainty of water and light supplies, untried transportation facilities—all these are bewildering factors. The successful operator is he who calculates them with the greatest accuracy. When he proves by experiment that he can get urban rents for the houses which he erects on rural lands, he is able to sell at prices compounded of building costs and urban lot values. Then he wins a rich surplus over the near-agricultural price which he paid. For he pays the non-active landowner originally only such a price as will leave to him, the operator, ample returns for the risk he runs—returns calculated after all operating expenses have been met. Among the operating expenses are included the taxes both on the land while he is laying it out and upon the houses when they are erected. Were the total taxes less he could afford to pay more for the land, all other conditions remaining the same; were the taxes higher he would pay less for the land, all other con-

[1] Seligman, Incidence of Taxation, page 291.

ditions remaining the same. If taxes were so high that he could not afford to pay more than the value of the land for agriculture, then the farms would continue to be cultivated, house building would be checked and rents would rise. In practice, however, there is a wide difference between agricultural values and the lowest lot-values.

As a rule a district is rapidly made available for building by the extension of a railway or an electric line, the opening of a bridge, the erection of a large manufacturing plant or the like. Then a wide margin is created between agricultural and lot values—a margin which is narrowed by high taxes, unless the whole area thus made available is held as a close monopoly.

Economists agree that the rents in the old, congested parts of a big, growing city are limited by the rents of the new houses in the suburbs. The difference of rents in different districts for rooms of the same size, style and airiness will measure the difference in desirability of location. Tenants will leave the old part when the rents in the newer parts are so much lower as more than to compensate for cost of carfare, inconvenience of a double journey each day, and remoteness from white ways, showy stores, amusements and so on. Therefore, since in the newer districts the tax on the building does not affect the rent, neither does it affect the rent in the congested districts. Rents in the built-up regions do not go up or down as taxes go up or down. In those regions rents fluctuate exclusively as demand for accommodations fluctuates, and that fluctuation, for a given population, depends exclusively on the rents in the newer houses, which, in turn, do not vary with the tax rate. If population decreases rents fall whatever the movement of the tax rate. Rents in the congested quarters of New York decreased in 1908, after the panic, when migration set towards Europe, because the demand for tenements diminished. In every decaying town, though taxes may rise, rents fall, until finally houses are abandoned.

It is considered by economists as beyond dispute that, when urban lands change hands, the purchase price is normally fixed so as to allow for the capitalized value of the existing taxes. By "this principle of capitalization the new purchaser of the site buys himself free of the tax." "The tax virtually disappears and becomes a charge on no one. In the meantime, however, it is the original owner or his heir who suffers."[1] Precisely the same principle applies to house and lot when, as is the custom in New York, they are sold together. The purchase price is fixed after allowing for the taxes as an annual charge and thus the whole tax is capitalized. "The tax virtually disappears and becomes a charge on no one. It is the original owner or his heir who suffers"—not the tenant.

Both the argument that taxes on buildings are shifted to tenants in the long run, and the argument of this article that the taxes are shifted to the site-owner accept the contention that rents of old houses vary according to rents of new houses which compete with them, and that rents of new houses, in turn, must meet in the long run the costs of building and maintenance. Therefore, whatever factors are included in the costs of building or in the annual expenses of new houses affect the rents all over the city. Whatever increases the cost of new houses (for the old standard of accommodations) tends to raise rents in both old and new houses; whatever decreases the cost of new houses tends to decrease rents in both old and new houses. Among these factors taxes hold only a minor place. More important are (1) cost of building materials, (2) cost of labor, (3) cost of loans—*i. e.*, the interest rate. By the increase of prices since 1896 and by the constant increase of wages the cost of building has risen rapidly. Interest rates are also rising, rising much faster than taxes. A builder usually gets a mortgage on land and structure for at least two-thirds of their full value, which mortgage is assumed by the investor when he takes over the property. An increase from four per cent to five per

[1] Seligman, The Incidence of Taxation, pp. 282-3.

cent in the average mortgage rate is of far more consequence than an increase of a few points in the tax rate. The total tax is a fraction over one and three-quarters per cent and, by constitutional limitation, cannot rise above two per cent. Fluctuations of this rate are measured by mills and, within the last seven years, the increase of the rate has been only three-tenths of one per cent—an increase that can have had but small effect upon the annual expense of conducting a tenement or apartment house, compared with the effect of the recent rise of over one per cent in mortgage rates and of the increase by over thirty per cent in ten years in the cost of building. Taxpayers who raise loud outcry over every trifling increase of taxes are straining at a gnat and swallowing a camel.

One point is clear. While social workers can be positive that eight-thirteenths of real estate taxes certainly do not fall on the tenant; and that, as to the other five-thirteenths, there is as much reason for supposing that the landlord pays as that the tenant pays, and while such authorities as Lord Goschen, Marshall, Pantaleoni, Edgeworth and Cannan assert that the owner pays surely a part of the five-thirteenths, enthusiasm for increasing municipal expenditures for social work need not be dampened by fear of imposing hardship instead of benefit.

Further, social workers can be easy in conscience about the fate of the 'original owner or his heirs" who carry the load. Their lot has indeed fallen in pleasant places; for, despite all taxes, ordinary and special, which fall upon them in New York and the other growing cities, they receive, beyond the ordinary rate of return on their investments, a juicy bonus in the shape of what John Stuart Mill christened "the unearned increment", an increment for which "they toil not neither do they spin."

For the last four years, two of them fat and two lean, the average annual increase in the value of the naked site of Greater New York has been $159,573,813, all but a small margin of which is due simply to the growth of population, manufactures and commerce and to the habits of industry, order and refinement prevailing among the people. The whole of these unthinkable sums has gone as a free gift from the community into the pockets of the real estate owners. Some have got more; some less. In odd spots values have receded; in general they have fast advanced. On the average, the fortunes of the taxpayers, without effort on their part, have steadily swollen. For the improvements they have made they could get today all that they have expended on them; and, in addition, they could sell their lots, in the aggregate, for over $600,000,000 more than they would have fetched four years ago. Well might Prof. Thorold Rogers exclaim, "The landlord grows rich in his sleep."

If, then, social workers see ways by which city expenditures will abate disease, prolong life, reduce vice, extend opportunity, elevate character, enlarge manhood, surely they are justified in urging city officers to make the expenditures. The money so used will simply reduce the amount of the annual gift which the city makes to the owners of its site. Is there the faintest reason to be niggardly in providing for hospitals, schools, parks, playgrounds, baths, for Health Department and Tenement Department, for medical inspection or the enforcement of pure food laws, while tens of millions of dollars drop annually, a lucky windfall, into the pockets of those who must pay the taxes? Every fresh municipal social service is a new instalment of social justice. Every dollar wasted or stolen in connection with these services is a robbery of the poor; every improvement in their administration, a blessing to the poor. Social workers need concern themselves only with the necessity, the adequacy and the beneficial and efficient operation of the city services they recommend; they need not be anxious about the sources of city revenue. So long as the humanitarian activities of the municipality are so administered as to elevate and help the recipients, no fears need be entertained as to their desirability. Each extension of such community effort brings nearer the kingdom of heaven on earth.

A MILLION FOR TUBERCULOSIS

ERNEST P. BICKNELL
NATIONAL DIRECTOR, AMERICAN RED CROSS

Plans are laid for a record breaking sale of Red Cross Christmas seals this year under the optimistic slogan of "A Million for Tuberculosis." Last year the sale brought in $240,000 but there are several reasons for believing that this can be greatly increased.

To begin with, the cost of seals to local agents has been reduced from twenty per cent to twelve and one-half per cent of the total receipts. Many anti-tuberculosis associations which did not sell the stamps in 1909 are preparing for an active campaign under the new terms. With eighty-seven and one-half per cent assured to the local agent, there is believed to be a certainty of substantial profit this year for every association which makes a vigorous effort.

Moreover, in addition to reducing the charge to agents, the Red Cross has decided to divide evenly with the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis any profits which may accrue from its twelve and one-half per cent. In short, the Red Cross desires to manufacture and distribute the ammunition for the campaign. The agencies will conduct the sale, reap the profits, and expend the money in maintaining their local work against tuberculosis. The Red Cross expects no more profit than a barely sufficient margin to insure it against loss, should unfavorable conditions arise.

In all parts of the country, social, civic, fraternal and charitable organizations are uniting in the Christmas sale. Lodges, labor unions, and women's clubs, besides nearly 450 regular anti-tuberculosis agencies and seventy-five local chapters of the American National Red Cross, are among the agencies which will help.

Some confusion resulted last year from the mistakes of persons who attempted to use Red Cross stamps for postage. A good many letters and parcels, as a result, found their way to the dead letter office. To prevent a recurrence of this difficulty, the Post Office Department has requested the Red Cross to discontinue the use of the word "stamp" in describing its "stickers." The department has also prohibited affixing the "stamps" on the face of letters or packages. Certain foreign governments made serious objection to the admission of letters and parcels from the United States bearing Christmas stamps upon their faces. The Red Cross accordingly has adopted the name "seal" instead of "stamp" as suggesting the back of letters rather than the face.

Suggestions as to detailed methods for conducting a local Red Cross seal campaign may be obtained of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York. A few general suggestions, however, will perhaps be of value here.

Plan to interest in the local campaign every possible group. Church calendars, for instance, should announce the sale of seals. Local papers should be kept supplied with stories and information. Lodges and labor unions will probably give an evening to a lecture on tuberculosis with special reference to Red Cross Seals. Women's clubs and other organizations will usually help furnish attendants for selling booths. In many cases, influential women will pledge themselves to dispose of a certain quantity of seals and every bank, factory, and large corporation should be invited to use them on its mail. Advertising slips should be distributed to every large store to be inserted in all parcels. School children make excellent sales agents.

These are but a few of the more general suggestions which might be offered. An early beginning should be made to enlist the co-operation of every man, woman and child. On the other hand, the actual sale should not begin before

Thanksgiving, or interest may abate before Christmas.

The American National Red Cross has already printed 25,000,000 seals, and arrangements have been made to avoid all danger of a shortage by printing as many millions more as may be required. Advertising matter will be distributed liberally. The Red Cross will supply it to local agents without additional cost. It will be varied and artistic, including posters for billboards, cards for windows and selling booths, and slips for envelope enclosures. An extensive newspaper campaign will be handled jointly by the publicity bureau of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis and the Red Cross, supplemented by local press work.

With "a million for tuberculosis" to be expended next year, immeasurable good could be done. Progress today is usually slow because the community requires preliminary education, and financial backing for an educational movement is difficult to obtain. This lack can be supplied by the sale of Red Cross Christmas seals. The opportunity is open to every reputable anti-tuberculosis organization in the United States, and in places where no such societies exist, to any associations interested in the prevention of consumption.

Information concerning appointment of agents, terms and conditions may be obtained from the American Red Cross, Washington, D. C.

THE INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS OF EDUCATORS

WINIFRED S. GIBBS

It would seem to be significant that a national government was ready to stand as patron of a great educational conference, and the student of present day conditions might well have been encouraged by a visit to Brussels while the International Congress of Education was in session. It was called officially a "congress of home education," but the questions and problems of the schoolroom were also discussed. The sections covered child study, circles of parents, the rural family, education before the school age, education during the school age, education of abnormal children. The countries represented included Belgium, Holland, France, England, Germany, Russia, Hungary and the United States. It is the purpose of this report to give the merest outline of the proceedings, to touch upon one or two central points brought out in each section, and to note a few impressions made upon one whose interests include sociology and pedagogy.

The teacher of domestic science so often noted, she who thinks her field limited to that of the classroom, would do well to attend such a convention as this. She would find that she was, or should be, fellow worker with physicians and psychologists, pedagogs and musicians, priests and artisans, and that her little "subject" was settling into its proper place as one of the agencies which might hope to contribute to better homes and better citizens.

The section on child study considered such questions as the attributes of children, their defects, physical and mental, methods of determining the effect of fatigue, heredity. England, America, Holland, Belgium, Hungary, Greece, Scotland, and France contributed. Mrs. Arthur Phillip, secretary of the Ministering Children's League of London, made a plea for parents' associations, and sketched a plan for their formation, and for their administration by committees which should take care that the discussion did not sink to the level of personal gossip. Dr. Drummond of Edinburgh discussed heredity and the extent to which results can be modified, saying that it is not enough for the educator to foster good tendencies and to starve the evil; he must also see that the good is placed near the child, and that he is taught how to make it his own.

Several speakers dealt with the cause of crime. Mrs. Frederic Schoff of Phila-

delphia took the ground that we should not take the so-called "criminal class" for granted, that each child has an unsullied nature and that if we safeguard this in the early, impressionable years, we may rob the "criminal class" of recruits. Mrs. Schoff gave an account of an exhaustive study of this question and ended with an earnest plea that a "chance" be given to each child. After all is said, does not that express what we are trying to do? Methods may be diverse, workers may differ on many points, but every social worker wishes to give a "chance" to those who come under his ministrations.

Dr. Tom Williams of Washington asked for co-operation between school and home; he showed that nervousness is often a "habit," and touched upon one phase of the much discussed part played by the mind in disease and in daily well being.

The section devoted to general questions opened many avenues for discussion. Mrs. Andrews of Boston told of the co-peration between parents and teachers in that city. The dietitian of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor attempted to show what may be accomplished by home instruction in proper feeding and economic living. Mons. l'Abbé Soulange Bodin of Paris was emphatic in his assertion that the choice of literature which a child shall read is of prime importance. To anyone just beginning to realize the social significance of every work, the paper of Fannie Luchmund of Teachers College, St. Louis, was interesting, as she traced the interrelationships to be found and made us realize that we are aiming at one goal.

Many of us sigh as we contemplate the numbers of incoming foreigners who never get beyond our own city, and think regretfully of how these people might expand in rural communities. John Medd, member of the departmental committee on agricultural education, had an interesting paper on this subject. He urged the reformer to develop village life which, in his opinion, tends to give the best results if moral character is the object of consideration. Instances were cited and statistics quoted in support of this view. Other questions considered in this section were the importance of religious training and the influence of music on character.

The section which treated of education before the school age, began quite properly, it would seem to a dietitian, with the question of right feeding, and continued with able discussions of all phases of instruction, especially of the governess, nurse, and others to whom are entrusted the care and teaching of children at home. Here were brought out the advantage of individual instruction, and the opportunity for advancement when the child is not hampered by association with mates mentally slower than itself.

The section on education during the school age had, of course, a large experience upon which to report. Mme. Meyboom of Amsterdam and Mary Wolseley-Lewis of London discussed the boarding school for young women. To one interested chiefly in the combining of interests and methods of home and school, it was interesting to note that a plea was made for a school building which had once been a home, even with the loss of a certain amount of space. The training of teachers, the possibilities of teaching domestic science in ways other than the formal class, and the question of industrial education found a place here. The University of Chicago was represented by Euphrosyne Dingley, who begged that the child should be considered before the object; that after instruction in necessary principles had been given, the student in manual training should determine whether he would make an airship or a clothes wringer.

The meetings given to the methods to be used in the study of abnormal children were among the most hotly contested at the congress. This is not the place, however, to detail discussions. Dr. Herbert Goddard of Vineland, N. J., told of his great human laboratory and something of the exhaustive methods used to study and help the defective. Prof. W. S. Monroe of Montclair also contributed to this subject, and Mrs. J. Scott Anderson of Swarthmore, Pa., made her hearers realize vividly the need of re-

membering, when dealing with the deaf, that "there is a mind behind the closed ears."

Special mention has been made of the part played by America at this great gathering, that those interested might learn how they were represented, but it would be only graceful to acknowledge the advantage to be derived from intercourse with workers in other countries and the inspiration from comparison of methods. A committee of American delegates met to consider the advisability of inviting the congress to meet in the United States in 1911. Many cities were suggested, but it was decided that Washington was the only one in a position to entertain the delegates, as there the social part of the meetings could be managed with no expense. Details of the plan were left to a later date.

A vote of thanks is due to the Belgian government for its cordial hospitality. The delegates were entertained at a reception in the beautiful Hotel de Ville, and everything possible was done by the reception committee to welcome delegates at all the meetings.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Department Editor

THE CITY SENSIBLE

In Portland, Ore., a movement for city improvement has been started under the title The City Sensible. This is a very good title, and one more accurately descriptive than the commoner phrase, The City Beautiful.

PLAYGROUND BAND

In Los Angeles, where administration of the playgrounds is interesting in a good many ways, it is reported that a band is to be organized among the boys on the Slauson avenue playground, which proposes to give concerts Sunday evenings, and to practice only the best music.

FASTER THAN AN AEROPLANE

Municipal Journal tells of a dirt road 380 miles long, and stretching across the entire state of Iowa, which was built in one hour's time by a force of ten thousand men. It seems that at a good roads meeting in Des Moines last spring the suggestion was made and received with general approval. Preliminary planning and organization followed, the republican and democratic local committees working in friendly rivalry for the common end. When the word was given, the long army of builders went to work and in an hour the road was finished. Probably 380 miles an hour is a record

HINTS FOR SUPERVISORS

At a meeting some weeks ago of the Board of Supervisors of Adams county, Ill., resolutions were passed which offer excellent suggestion for boards of supervisors in other counties. They were introduced at the request of the Boulevard and Park Association of Quincy, and are as follows:

"Whereas, bridges on the highways and other county properties in Adams county are used for advertising purposes, and without the consent of the county, thus disfiguring expensive properties, and

"Whereas, the county should not show preference in allowing such advertising by any firm, corporation or individual, therefore be it

"Resolved, that all advertising should be prohibited on county property, and on trees and fences along the highways; and be it further

"Resolved, that this preamble and resolution be referred to the committee on county roads."

PLAY AND THE CHURCH

This department—in which there have been notes from time to time on the Church and the Playground—has meant for a long while to call attention to the discussion of this subject in the March number of the *Playground*. The number was beautifully illustrated, and full of suggestion and interest for those concerned with this particular question. Dr. Gulick contributed a general article in which he said that "the spiritual life cannot be lived apart from the world. When the church throws open the gates of its beautiful grounds in order that within the enclosure the people may have opportunities for play, this action stands as a symbol—a symbol of the relationship of religion to life." It is not enough "that we shall attack that which is anti-social and anti-religious in our corporate body—for example, the association of the dance hall with the saloon—we must conduct our fight chiefly along constructive lines. We must present that which is better, rather than merely antagonize that which exists."

AN IMPROVEMENT CHARTER

A recent editorial in the Indianapolis *Sun*, reprinted in the Fort Wayne *Journal-Gazette*,

and doubtless in other papers, contained an admirable statement of the need in each community of a central improvement association, and of its opportunity. It said: "To develop a city along broad-gauge lines, along lines that mean civic growth instead of sectional or class growth, and substantial, permanent growth instead of spurts, needs a great central body that will breathe the broad civic spirit of 'all for one and one for all' into all the organizations of particular trades, commercial bodies, business associations and sectional improvement associations." The association in Fort Wayne has been incorporated—as improvement associations are not very often—and its purpose is defined as the "laying out of parks, playgrounds, boulevards and pleasure drives in and near the city of Fort Wayne; to govern, manage, control and improve the same"; and for such purposes authority is given it to take and hold such property, and to exercise its powers in trust for the city of Fort Wayne. Should the association be dissolved, all its property must go to the city. By the terms of its charter, it is organized without capital stock or pecuniary profit, and the by-laws provide that its officers shall serve without salary.

MASSACHUSETTS ADVERTISING LAW

The Massachusetts Civic League has published a folder on The Advertising Nuisance; the Law and How to Work It. In general terms, it says that no advertising sign may be put up anywhere in Massachusetts, without the written consent of the owner or tenant of the land on which it is exhibited. Of course advertising signs very often are put up without such written consent, and the problem with which the folder has to do is how to deal with these illegally placed advertisements. Three methods are suggested. Under the first, or "diplomatic method," one may simply write to the person directly responsible and ask him to remove the sign, threatening him with the fine imposed by law if he does not comply with the request. "This method has the merit of giving the offender some trouble and of thus acting as a deterrent." The second, or "circumspectly legal method," is to ask the owner or tenant of the land whether he gave a written consent, and if he did not, to induce him or some public officer to go to the nearest police court and ask that the offender be prosecuted. One may also safely tear the sign down himself. The third, or "crowbar method," is to go ahead and pull the signs down simply on one's own belief that they have been illegally placed. Of course there is some element of risk in this, but if enough people took the risk the advertising nuisance would be soon lessened.

AN APPEAL FOR PARK MONEY

The report for 1910 of the Metropolitan Park Commission of Providence is the usual well illustrated and complete statement of the needs and desires of the commission. The principal appeal, which is for a comparatively small bond issue needed to make certain necessary purchases of land, has been put by the secretary in a novel and interesting way. He says:

"Each year we add to our hoarded wealth more than enough to provide the most splendid park system in the United States. Each week the pay roll of the metropolitan district is enough to provide for two park systems like that proposed by the Metropolitan Park Commission and shown in orange color upon the map. Each year the interest paid out to depositors of the savings banks is more than the whole of the ultimate investment that has been suggested. We have about as much wealth on deposit within gunshot of Market square as was required by Baron Haussmann to make over Paris. . . . Citizens of Providence donate more than a million to philanthropy each year, and enormous sums to the reformation of criminals; yet vice and crime and misery may be largely prevented by happy surroundings for its generations of children. . . . A merchant would think very little of investing one per cent of his capital to bring his establishment up to date, to improve it, and add to its convenience and beauty and its opportunity for doing business in competition with his neighbors."

STUDYING CIVICS

Perhaps the editor of this department may be pardoned for quoting part of a personal letter which he has received from so good an authority on civics as the chairman of the civic department of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. Mrs. Moulton writes:

"Were you ever in a civic class of teachers? If not, you do not know what you have missed. It was my rare privilege to attend such a class in Cincinnati just prior to the closing of the schools in June. Here was a large group of the upper grade teachers, met together to study civics that they might be the better equipped to instruct their pupils in their obligations to their city and to their school. The discussions were interesting and on leading civic topics that concerned the city. Their meetings had continued throughout the school year. To me this normal class in civics tells its own story—that a higher civic life now confronts our cities—both large and small—and that the aim of education means the forming of boys and girls into the graceful art of being true citizens."

Mrs. Moulton encloses a leaflet which the class has sent to all the principals and teachers of the Cincinnati public schools. It is based on recognition that, "regardless of what may be our special work, the chief duty of each of us is to train citizens. This means, in part, that we should endeavor to create such a sense of civic duty as will cause the children to feel a greater personal responsibility in promoting the welfare of the home, the school and the community." Further, it pre-

mises that "we are in the midst of a great movement to make our cities places wherein people may more nearly enjoy complete living," and twelve questions are submitted which the leaflet suggests, might well be put to the children by way of awakening their interest and sense of responsibility.

DENVER'S CIVIC ADVANCE MAYOR

In an address delivered some months ago before the Denver Chamber of Commerce, Mayor Speer, an enthusiast on city improvement, said:

"The real good things in life do not come without effort. It costs money to build a city, but money wisely spent for that purpose is a wealth creator; it pays a higher rate of interest than any other investment. There is a difference between the hardships of the plains and the comforts of a city. You would not be without these conveniences for many times their cost. The people of Denver pay in taxes to conduct their city government about two cents each per day. This amount is so distributed that over three-fourths of our population pay an average of less than one cent per day. Few stop to consider the protection, amusements and comforts they receive in return for this payment."

The mayor observed, further on, that when parks were purchased in a certain district, objections were made because the bonds did not run for fifty years instead of for fifteen. "Yet when the assessment was made, forty-six and one-half per cent of the entire cost was paid within the first thirty days." He added that when the Cherry Creek wall and drive were suggested, many ridiculed the idea and claimed that it was not a proper locality in which to build a boulevard. "Yet since a part of it has been completed, we have found that property values have more than doubled, and what were formerly dumps are being transformed into places of beauty." He closed his address with this suggestion:

"At best life is short. We want the good opinion of our fellow men while here, and to be kindly remembered after we have passed on. I know of no better way than to cultivate and unfold some blossoms along life's path, add rest stations, play stations and beauty spots along the way. The time will come when men will be judged more by their disbursements than by their accumulations. Denver has been kind to most of us, by giving to some health, to some wealth, to some happiness and to some a combination of all. We can pay a part of this debt by making our city more attractive."

AN INSPIRING PETITION

About a year ago, under the title of A Civic Revival, THE SURVEY contained an article describing a remarkable campaign which had recently culminated in Fort Wayne, Ind. The end of that campaign, it may be recalled, was the summoning of a city planner to make a study of Fort Wayne, and suggest what the people in their newly awakened enthusiasm could best do. The city planner, whose report is in press at this writing, made a long list of suggestions. Some of these have been carried out, but the biggest was so big that it seemed as if nothing could be done at once. This was the redemption of the rivers. But history repeats itself, and there is again a story of people who are unable to forget the vision they have seen. A petition addressed to the honorable mayor, the Common Council and Board of Public Works of the City of Fort Wayne comes to hand, signed by all kinds of people.

It prays the council to authorize the appointment of a non-partisan "waterfront commission", to consist of the mayor, one member of the Board of Public Works, one member of the Park Commission, three members of the council and three citizens not in office, the commission to serve without pay, but the council to appropriate $5,000 that a skilled hydraulic engineer may be retained to make studies for the location of dams, etc. Further, the petition prays the council to levy an annual tax of five cents on the $100 of property valuation in the city, to the end that the plans recommended by the commission and its engineer may be carried out. Now, is not this widely signed petition, asking that taxes may be increased in order that the city may be made more beautiful, a fine thing and a fitting chapter to follow the civic revival?

COMMUNICATIONS

WEST SIDE INSTITUTE

TO THE EDITOR:

Mistakes and misstatements are not uncommon in the daily press and in periodicals. It is somewhat to be regretted, however, that THE SURVEY, the acknowledged organ of the social movement, has been gravely misinformed concerning the facts in regard to a new and important piece of social work. The case is even more regrettable since absolutely accurate information was obtainable in the same building where the editorial offices are located.

I refer to the editorial in the issue of October 8, 1910, Reorganization of West Side House. Passing over several minor errors, it is stated, "The Board of Directors . . . guarantee $10,000, to meet expenses, including a reasonable rent." This is exactly what has not been done. The directors have guaranteed only a part of this $10,000 fund, and are now engaged in a campaign to raise the remainder. The rental of the building has been successfully financed, provided that the money

for the running expenses is raised. Therefore the reopening of the building under the new name, the West Side Institute, is not assured, but hinges on the ability of the Board of Directors to secure the necessary $10,000 annually for a period of three years.

In many ways the organized effort which is now being made to secure the opening of the West Side Institute is a remarkable one. When the West Side Neighborhood House was closed and the building was boarded up, the people of the West Side realized, for the first time, the importance to them of that institution and the work carried on there. The bill introduced into the Legislature by Senator McManus and Assemblyman Boylan was one expression of this feeling. The failure of this effort seemed to mean the dashing of the last hope.

There were, however, some men in the neighborhood who had confidence enough in themselves and their neighbors to make another attempt. These men compose the present Board of Directors. They form a non-partisan, non-sectarian group, who represent interests as varied as exist in the neighborhood. The names of the men, almost all of whom live or have their business within a few blocks of the building, reveal the diversity of their interests:

Rt. Rev. Mgr. Joseph F. Mooney, rector of the Church of the Sacred Heart, 411 West 51st street; Rev. Winfred R. Ackert, pastor of the Vermilye Chapel, 416 West 54th street; Rev. Dr. James F. Driscoll, pastor of the Church of St. Ambrose, 515 West 54th street; Christian F. Tietjen, president of the West Side Bank, Eighth avenue and 34th street; Aaron Buchsbaum, wholesale and retail butcher, 729 Ninth avenue; Thomas C. O'Sullivan, judge of the Court of General Sessions, 340 West 55th street; Peter Schmuck, judge of the City Court, 325 West 39th street; Herman W. Beyer, president Beyer Dyeing and Printing Company, 505 West 50th street; Owen W. Bohan, attorney-at-law, 411 West 49th street; Edward Ewing Pratt, assistant professor of economics, New York School of Philanthropy, 105 East 22nd street; William Fellowes Morgan, trustee, Columbia University; William C. Demorest, president, Association of Columbia Alumni; Samuel Murtland, physician; Thomas H. Morgan, physician, 349 West 51st street; George F. Ewald, Chelsea Exchange Bank, 406 West 51st street; Arthur Wesell, Wesell, Nickel and Gross, piano action manufacturers, 45th street and Tenth avenue; Joseph H. Hayes, attorney-at-law, 451 West 47th street; Henry Miller, broker, 747 Ninth avenue; Herman Obertubbesing, official handicapper, A. A. U., 415 West 46th street.

This unlertaking is unique. For the first time a settlement may be established in response to a demand on the part of the neighborhood. For the first time the definite and distinct aim is to become self-supporting. For the first time the management is in the hands of the people. The whole movement is an experiment in democracy, and an effort toward community betterment which will be watched with interest by those interested in social progress.

EDWARD EWING PRATT.

New York.

THE FINANCIAL SECRETARY

TO THE EDITOR:

May I add a word of appreciation to many which you must have received for the admirable statement by O. F. Lewis, *re* financial secretaries, which you recently published?

Three additional tests of efficiency on the part of the management of appealing agencies occur to me as deserving place in Dr. Lewis's list:

1. That the work which the agency exists to do needs to be done;

2. That the particular way of going at that work which the agency represents is up to date;

3. That the work would not be done by any existing agency if the apppealing agency were not in the field.

WILLIAM H. ALLEN.

Director Bureau Municipal Research, New York.

THE SURVEY AS A SOCIAL TOOL

TO THE EDITOR:

I have just been getting out some new outlines for several of my courses in the Western State Normal School. This work brings to consciousness a fact that I had not realized before, that is, I find that I use THE SURVEY for reference purposes in connection with courses on hygiene, school organization and administration, history of the school, and the study of interests, activities and occupations rather more than any other periodical. We are fortunate in having men who can give us so effective a social tool as THE SURVEY is.

FRANK A. MANNY.

Kalamazoo, Mich.

JOTTINGS

New England Child Labor.—The National Child Labor Committee has temporarily discontinued its New England office, formerly located at 101 Tremont street, Boston, and has entered into a very close affiliation with the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee for carrying on the interests of this work in that state. In the other New England states steps are being taken to form state branches of the national committee and it is believed that with these strong local organizations, interest can be so promoted that New England will again take the lead, which she has lost to New York, Ohio, Illinois and many of the western states, in the matter of protection of working children.

THE COMMON WELFARE

A PARCELS POST MADE IN GERMANY

Wagons bearing the legend "Parcel Agency for the Imperial German Mail" may be seen every day on the streets of New York. That is, the German government offers here in New York for the benefit of its citizens at home a service that our own government will not render us. It is good evidence that John Wanamaker hit the nail on the head when he said some years ago that there are just four insurmountable obstacles to the introduction of a parcels post system in the United States. These four obstacles are the American, Adams, United States and Wells Fargo Express Companies. Mr. Wanamaker's opinion is quite widely shared.

Since his retirement as postmaster general the government has arranged by treaty for an exchange parcels post service with forty-three foreign countries. The rate of postage is twelve cents a pound, or four cents less than for small parcels within the country. The weight allowed by most of the treaties is eleven pounds while within the United States it is four. Except in a few instances, there is no limit to the value of the goods that may be sent. To several countries bundles cannot be registered and sometimes the service is restricted to certain named offices in the foreign country. There are differences in the customs declarations required by countries, in the kinds of articles that will be carried and in the charges for delivery, but the service is growing rapidly nevertheless. As a result a parcel may be mailed from Santa Fé to Smyrna, Dalny, Wei Hai Wei, or Montevideo which cannot be posted to Dallas, Denver, or New York. Parcels can be sent from Berlin to Brooklyn that cannot be sent from New York to Brooklyn.

The conditions are such that extensive use of the international parcels post is hardly to be expected yet, particularly as most people do not know even of its existence. During the year ending June 30, 1909, 1,136,690 pounds were dispatched from the United States, an increase of 17 per cent. The number of parcels was 438,558. From foreign countries we received 1,124,948 pounds, an increase of 540,281 or 92.40 per cent, mailed in 263,722 parcels.

The largest number of packages went to Great Britain, Ireland, Mexico, Germany and Japan. The first three had over half the total. The greatest number came from Germany and Great Britain. We sent about twelve times as much to Mexico as we received, whereas Germany mailed to us five times as much as we sent. Over three-quarters of the bulk of the parcels came from Germany and Great Britain. The exchange with Canada would undoubtedly be large if

GERMAN PARCELS POST WAGON IN NEW YORK.

that country and Russia were not among the few remaining ones with which treaties have not yet been negotiated.

Extensive as the service is from foreign countries, most European nations and Uruguay, besides Germany as already mentioned, maintain additional facilities in connection with certain express companies. These services were established before the government service, and vary from it in certain respects as to indemnity and insurance. Bundles that are not prepaid, that are over weight, or that contain articles not covered by the treaty agreement, are handled in this way. The French postal authorities turn over considerable trade to the American Express Company whereas Germany sends quite a little mail in the United States through Hensel, Bruckman and Lorbacher. This company handles about 15,000 parcels a year.

CITY CLUB PLANS A BETTER PHILADELPHIA

The current plans of the Philadelphia City Club, which grew out of the reform wave of 1905, merit the happy phrase of the *North American* of that city, "a new and enlightened campaign for advancing Philadelphia." After the animosities of that campaign died, the club, which was associated with the City Party, realized, in the words of the annual report, that it must include men "of every shade of political belief and men of no political belief, as measured by the partisan standard." It was decided to appeal for a large representative membership and to secure experts to plan a "safe and healthful and intelligent and convenient and prosperous and beautiful Philadelphia."

Believing that the public has already the most important machinery for advancing Philadelphia, the club aims to make the citizens recognize that the municipal government is theirs, that it is owned by them, controlled and directed by them and financed by them.

To carry out this plan the club decided to get full and accurate information of what is being done for the common good by public and private agencies. A civic secretary was engaged to work under the general secretary, Richard Waterman.

Arthur W. Dunn, for several years director of civics in the public schools of Indianapolis, mapped out the plan for this year's work. The club will publish the addresses given at fourteen special meetings on Philadelphia and distribute them among city officials and the officers of citizen organizations. It will co-operate with school authorities by giving them material for teachers of civics in class work. City officials will be asked to exhibit lantern slides showing the equipment and work of the various departments. It is also planned to provide slides with explanatory text for a series of lectures on "What is Philadelphia doing to make herself a safe and healthful and prosperous and beautiful city?" These are to be loaned to local citizen organizations for use by their own speakers. The public school authorities, the home and school associations and other organizations will be asked to unite with the City Club to bring about a greater use of public school buildings for evening gatherings of a civic character.

At each of these special meetings city officials and citizens are to describe what is being done to accomplish certain benefits for the public. Under each topic the functions to be performed and the public and the private agencies at work will be discussed. These fortnightly meetings, which began October 15, will consider the broad subjects of Health, Safety, Convenience, Education, Prosperity, Philanthropy and City Plan.

Prof. A. C. Abbott of the University of Pennsylvania and Joseph S. Neff, director of the Department of Public Health and Charities, were the principal speakers at the opening meeting, devoted to the problem of how to secure clean milk.

PITTSBURGH SQUIRES AND THE PUBLIC

Philadelphia excepted, the cities of Pennsylvania are saddled with a system of aldermanic courts suitable perhaps for small towns and country sides, but rusty bludgeons indeed for securing fair play

and expeditious civil justice in the industrial districts. With the rise of the great tide of non-English speaking immigrants during the past twenty years, they have tended more than ever to become nests of all manner of graft and criminal abuse. Public opinion has long chafed under the system, but apparently only a change in the state constitution can eradicate it. As yet no successful steps have been taken to set this slow process of reform in motion, for the "squires" are entrenched behind an even more formidable bulwark—the Pennsylvania republican machine.

Within the past fortnight, William H. Matthews, the headworker of Kingsley House, Pittsburgh, has launched a blow at the system which is so well-delivered, specific and discomfiting in high places, that there is hope that it will dislodge the inertia even of those citizens who think that any civic evil is more to be condoned than the open discussion of it.

The facts are given out in the form of a report by a Kingsley House attorney in the current issue of the *Kingsley House Record*. They are the result of four months' investigation, primarily of the courts in the neighborhood of the settlement in what is known as the "hill district," an old residential quarter now inhabited by Italian and Jewish immigrants, Negroes, and the lower paid workers of all nationalities. How the taxpayers are fleeced of their money by crooked administration of the system is first made clear; next cases are cited showing the injustice meted out to ignorant litigants; and, finally, the operations of a double-faced court are exposed, in which the judge is both squire and municipal magistrate, and throws his work whichever way it will net him the most money.

The taxpayers of Allegheny county last year paid the sum of $33,120.50 to aldermen and justices of the peace, and their constables, on account of discharged criminal cases. When a person is brought before an alderman on a criminal charge, the alderman, after hearing the evidence against the accused, must

WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS.

hold him for court if there is a "prima facie" case against him, or else discharge him for want of sufficient evidence. In the latter event the county is bound to pay the costs, whereas cases which are returned to court have to run the gauntlet first of the grand jury and then of the criminal court. Either the grand jury or the court may deprive the alderman of his fees; only when the alderman discharges a case is he sure of obtaining his fees.

Of this $33,120.50, about one-half, or $16,861.85, was paid to 118 aldermen and justices of the peace throughout the county, and the balance to their constables. While some aldermen did not receive a cent for discharged cases and some received only three or four dollars, two aldermen in the hill district, Louis Alpern and Samul Frankel, together received $3,776.40, or nearly one-fourth of the $16,861.85.

Frankel's name has long been one to conjure with in Pittsburgh's under world. In 1906, he and Max Friedman were indicted on charges of leasing houses to be kept as bawdy houses. Friedman was convicted and Frankel got a Scotch

verdict. The year following he took office as alderman. In that year, 1907, 233 cases were discharged by him, for which the county paid him $760.20. In 1908 he had nearly twice as many discharge cases and collected from the county considerably more than twice as much in fees, viz., $1,741.25. In 1909 he increased his revenue from this source to $1,961.85. Both in 1908 and in 1909 he received more than any other alderman. These facts were drawn out by the investigators from the reports of the county comptroller. They found that Alpern's business in discharge cases was also steadily remunerative and second only to Frankel's. His record is as follows:

	Am't rec'd
1907—518 discharged cases	$1,711.55
1908—461 discharged cases	1,522.95
1909—467 discharged cases	1,814.55

Even more damaging is the comparison which the report makes between the records of Alpern and Frankel, and Aldermen T. V. McMasters, a downtown alderman who does a big business. To quote:

Aldermen Alpern and Frankel discharge so many of their cases that one would naturally suppose that the comparatively few cases which they hold for court would surely run the gauntlet of the grand jury and result in a fair number of convictions in criminal court. That this is not true is shown conclusively by the following table, based upon the district attorney's records and the comptroller's annual report for 1909.

	Alpern.	Frankel.	McMasters.
Discharged cases...	467	512	15
Ignored by grand jury	65	40	33
True bills	84	47	131
Total	616	599	179
Percentage of discharged to whole No. of cases.....	76 %	85 %	8 %
Per cent of cases ignored by grand jury to whole No. returned to court..	44	46	20
Per cent of discharged and ignored cases to whole No. of cases	86	92	26
Amounts paid by the county on account of discharged cases Controller's Report, p. 156).....	$1,814.55	$1,961.85	$42.35

It will be seen that although Alderman McMasters returned to court nearly twice as many cases as Frankel returned, and although Frankel discharged over thirty times as many as McMasters discharged, yet the grand jury ignored more of Frankel's than of McMaster's cases. And Alpern's record is like Frankel's. The action of the grand jury is the more significant in that it is based upon the very same evidence which was supposed to justify the alderman in holding the defendant for four. Neither alderman nor grand jury hears evidence for the defendant but simply determines whether the prosecution has made out a prima facie case against the accused.

THE SQUIRE AND THE "POOR DEVILS"

The iniquities of the Pennsylvania aldermen's courts in minor civil cases was brought out forcibly in 1909 in the report for the Pittsburgh Survey prepared by H. V. Blaxter and Allen H. Kerr, two members of the Allegheny county bar. The Kingsley House report goes further into the criminal work of the squires' offices, and does not mince matters in citing cases. Here are three in point:

An information was recently made before Alpern against a Poplar alley woman for prostituting a minor child. Alpern promptly discharged the case for want of sufficient evidence. The case was brought to the attention of the district attorney's office and a second information was made before Magistrate Kirby, who held the woman for court. The grand jury found a true bill and when the case came up for trial Alpern apppeared as a witness for the defendant. Shortly thereafter another information was made against the same woman for harboring another minor child.

In June, 1909, Joe Jeffitch, a Croatian, was arrested on a charge of criminal fraud, under a warrant issued by Alderman Samuel Frankel. A relative of the prosecutor claimed that a relative of the defendant owed him seventy dollars, so that this was not only an attempt to collect a civil debt by criminal process but the debt was one for which the defendant was in no way liable. He was planning to visit his home in the old country—had in fact bought his ticket and was on the point of leaving. After he was arrested he was told that if he would pay the seventy dollars and costs they would let him off; otherwise he would go to jail. He went to jail and sent for an attorney, giving up his trip abroad. The attorney defended him at the hearing and did his best to show the alderman that there was nothing in the charge. Frankel, however, reserved his decision. The attorney tried again and again to persuade him either to discharge the case or to hold it for court, and finally, Frankel, finding that he could not wear out the patience of the defendant or his attorney, held the defendant for court. The attorney himself signed the bail bond, paid a small fee

and saw the entry made in the alderman's docket. He thought that was the end of the matter for he felt sure that the grand jury would not find a true bill. Shortly afterward, however, while the attorney was out of the city, Frankel called at his office and wanted to settle the case. He was afraid he would lose his costs. When the attorney returned from his vacation he looked up the case in the proper office, but found that it had not been returned by Frankel. Upon further inquiry he found that Frankel had discharged the case and collected his costs from the county. Before collecting them he had to swear that his claim against the county of Allegheny was "correct, just and true in every particular" and "authorized by legal authority."

In a recent case of Commonwealth *vs.* John Rolls, the defendant, a Negro, was accused of a heinous crime in which an alderman is not permitted to accept bail. Mr. Alpern, however, not only admitted him to bail, but went on the bail bond himself. When the case came on for trial the defendant was not in court and the authorities had to call on Alpern to bring his man into court. The defendant was convicted and sentenced to the penitentiary, but the alderman still holds office.

THE SQUIRE AND THE CITY POLICE

The crime Rolls was guilty of was sodomy. The case brings up the third phase of the situation, for Alpern is not only an alderman, but a city magistrate. Some months ago the facts as to his action in the Rolls case were brought to the attention of Mayor William A. Magee by a probation officer of the juvenile court, Nannie Oppenheimer, who is fighting at every point for the children of the hill district, against the odds of disease and immorality which beset their growth. The mayor refused to remove Alpern.

In illustrating how Alpern plays both ends against the middle in his double capacity of police magistrate and alderman, the Kingsley House report quotes the statement of a police officer who in his official capacity has brought about 455 cases a month before Magistrate Alpern during the past year. He alleges that in a number of these cases, where he himself made the arrest, took the defendant to jail after hearing, got the witnesses into court, and took charge of the entire case, he later found that the name of the constable who served Alpern in the capacity of squire had been put on the information, and the squire's man had collected fees for work done by the police. The following cases are cited by the Kingsley House attorney:

In Commonwealth *vs.* John Gall, a police officer made the arrest and took defendant to No. 2 police station. The following morning he had a hearing before Police Magistrate Alpern and was held for court. A police officer made the information and subpoenaed the witnesses, although the subpoena was issued to Samuel Marks, constable for Alpern.

In Commonwealth *vs.* John Gons, the record shows that two informations were made before Louis Alpern, alderman, and subpoenas issued to Constable L. Aronson. But a police officer made the arrest and took the defendant to No. 2 police station where he had a hearing before Magistrate Louis Alpern. He was held over, and it was the next day that informations were made before Louis Alpern, alderman.

In Commonwealth *vs.* Thomas Schools, the arrest was made by police officers. Defendant was taken to No. 2 police station and given a hearing the next morning. This was a police arrest and the information was made before Louis Alpern, alderman. There were two hearings on the same day, the first at the police station and the second at Alderman Alpern's office on Fifth avenue.

Not long ago the district attorney's office called Mr. Alpern to task for collecting fees as alderman in cases which were really police cases, since informations and arrests were made and subpoenas served by police officers. Mr. Alpern then promised to return to the county his fees in thirty-three specific cases of this sort. The investigators found, however, that he had merely refrained so far from collecting his fees in some of the thirty-three cases. In two of them he had collected his costs and not returned them to the county, while in three of the cases the court had denied him his fees.

All aldermen's court records in Pennsylvania are without adequate review; it is often almost impossible to secure access to them. In the mill and mining towns of the state there are probably not a few squires of the old school, who bring wisdom and fairness to the settlement of disputes among the people. But it would be a fool's paradise to suppose that, on a lesser scale, these abuses in the "hill" courts are not repeated throughout the industrial district. Inquiries made for the Pittsburgh Survey in 1908 by Alois B. Koukol, secretary of the National

Slavonic Society, and Peter Roberts, secretary for immigration of the International Y. M. C. A., indicated that such was the case. By securing explicit legal evidence, and centering his fire on the two petty tribunals which harass the people of the Kingsley House section, Mr. Matthews has reopened the case against the system in a way which cannot be dropped. It is a piece of fearless neighborhood work which ought to mean much for the city and the state.

JUDICIAL ASSIGNMENTS TO CHILDREN'S COURTS

Chief Justice Isaac Franklin Russell of the Court of Special Sessions, New York, has shown that he possesses a quality which is even rarer than that of efficiency, that of being willing to reconsider and modify an administrative act which on further reflection he finds to be unwise.

THE SURVEY of October 1 considered at some length the assignment of judges to the Children's Courts in New York under the provisions of the legislation enacted at the last session, taking effect September 1. We expressed regret that the new assignments offered no substantial change from the monthly rotation of judges which had formerly prevailed in the Manhattan Children's Court and, in the main, changed the system in Brooklyn from a bi-monthly rotation to a monthly rotation—in our judgment a backward step. We expressed the view that these assignments were not only in themselves unfortunate, but were in conflict with the spirit and apparently with the language of the new law.

On October 10 Chief Justice Russell cancelled the assignments for 1911 and promulgated new assignments in which the principles of continuity of service for a reasonable term and assignment for special fitness received much greater recognition. The original assignments and the new assignments are indicated in the table below.

It will be observed that Chief Justice Russell has reduced the number of different judges assigned to the Manhattan Children's Court from six to three; the number assigned to the Brooklyn court from six to three, and the number assigned to Queens and Richmond from eleven to seven. The total number of

Assignments of Justices to the Children's Courts.

	New York County		Kings County		Queens & Richmond Counties	
1911	Original assignments	New assignments	Original assignments	New assignments	Original assignments	New assignments
January	Wyatt	Wyatt	Wilkin	Wilkin	Ryan	Ryan
February	Salmon	Wyatt	Wilkin	Wilkin	Moss	Ryan
March	Olmsted	Olmsted	Moss	Wilkin	Fleming	O'Keefe
April	Wilkin	Hoyt	Fleming	Ryan	Olmsted	Olmsted
May	Hoyt	Hoyt	Ryan	Ryan	Salmon	Russell
June	Hoyt	Hoyt	McInerney	McInerney	Wilkin	Wilkin
July	Deuel	Wyatt	Wilkin	Wilkin	Russell	Russell
August	Hoyt	Hoyt	Wilkin	Wilkin	Deuel	Deuel
September	Hoyt	Hoyt	Ryan	McInerney	Wyatt	Wilkin
October	Wyatt	Wyatt	Moss	McInerney	Hoyt	O'Keefe
November	Wyatt	Wyatt	Deuel	Ryan	Russell	Russell
December	Salmon	Olmsted	McInerney	Ryan	Forker	Hoyt
No different justices assigned.	6	3	6	3	11	7
No assignments of two consecutive months.	3	3	2	4	0	1
No assignments of three consecutive months.	0	1	0	1	0	0

Total Number of Justices Assigned to Children's Courts.

By original assignments	18
By new assignments	9

different justices assigned to the children's court service is reduced from thirteen to nine.

In continuity of service also there is improvement. In the Manhattan court there are but three assignments of one month each as compared with six in the original schedule, and there is one assignment for a period of three months as against none in the former schedule. In the revised schedule for Brooklyn, there is one monthly assignment as compared with eight in the previous schedule, and there is also one assignment for three months as against none in the earlier schedule. The assignments to Queens and Richmond, however, are still in the main on a monthly basis, although the number of different judges is reduced from eleven to seven.

It is our conviction that the new assignments will greatly improve and strengthen the work of the Manhattan and Brooklyn Children's Courts. The judges selected have shown a special interest in juvenile work and each of them has acquired an extended experience.

The volume of work in the Manhattan Children's Court (12,000 cases a year) presents a problem much more difficult than in any other juvenile court in the land. It may be that a satisfactory solution will only be found in a division of the court or in the establishment of a series of children's courts entirely separate from any connection with any court for adults. We hope, however, and we believe, that experience will demonstrate that a sitting of three months is not only practicable, but that a considerably longer term of service is entirely practicable, even with the present volume of work.

The enormous number of cases makes it more difficult, but not less essential, that ample and favorable conditions be secured for the careful consideration of the condition and needs of each child. There is nothing essentially new in the juvenile court movement. There is no panacea in a juvenile court which in any respect whatever takes the place of, or renders unnecessary, a careful study of the circumstances and necessities of each individual child. Multiplicity of cases should not excuse superficial consideration. Snap judgments in relation to 12,000 cases would be just twelve times as bad as snap judgments in relation to 1,000. Continuity of attention for each of the 12,000 children coming before the Manhattan court is just as necessary as for each of the smaller number of cases coming before the Brooklyn, Boston, Cleveland, Chicago or Denver juvenile court. In fact, the evils of frequent rotation tend to increase in nature, as well as in volume, as the number of cases increases.

In the degree of control over the Children's Courts in New York which the new law vests in Chief Justice Russell, he has an opportunity such as perhaps has never before come to a judicial officer to break new ground and establish new standards in juvenile court work in the metropolis. The responsibility is measured by the opportunity. We trust that Judge Russell will acquaint himself with the methods and the procedure of the various juvenile courts in different cities; that without following too closely any one model, either of the courts heretofore established in this city or of those established elsewhere, he will build up a series of children's courts in the four counties comprising the city of New York which will make a contribution to the development of the juvenile court work in this country such as should be made by its greatest city.

We are forced, however, to point out that the assignments to the Children's Court of Queens and Richmond counties are still on the basis of a much more frequent rotation than the law seems to us to contemplate. We confidently expect also that the revision just made is only the first of a series of steps toward greater continuity of service. We are confident that experience and study will lead Justice Russell to favor assignments for still longer periods. Especially, it would seem desirable that when a judge is to sit two or more months in the Manhattan court during the year, his service should be continuous, and not as in some cases even in the revised assignments, broken into monthly periods.

JOURNAL OF CRIMINAL LAW

The most valuable achievement thus far of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, whose recent convention is reported in this issue of THE SURVEY, is the establishment of a bimonthly journal which has made clear in its first three issues the important place it is to fill in the movement to secure a better administration of criminal justice. That such a periodical has been needed is evident from the statement in its initial number, that heretofore there has been nothing of the sort in the English language although some thirty or forty are published to serve the countries of continental Europe and even India and South America.

The *Journal* aims not only "to extend interest to the study of questions relating to the administration of the criminal law," but to advocate reforms in penal methods "to the end that a more effective, speedy and inexpensive system of criminal justice may be secured, more modern and effective methods of dealing with criminals may be introduced, and the causes of the present widespread and increasing popular dissatisfaction with the administration of the criminal law may be removed." Further assurance is given that it will encourage and advocate legislation looking toward better records, statistics and other information relating to the causes, nature and punishment of crime.

The editorial board, like the membership of the institute, recognizes the joint interest of sociologists, psychologists, students of political science, and practical social workers, with the legal profession, in solving the problems to which the *Journal* is devoted. Associated with the editor-in-Chief, James W. Garner, professor of political science in the University of Illinois, are representatives of all these lines of thought and effort.

The thoroughgoing scientific standards which the *Journal* sets before itself in going about its task are well shown by the stress it places upon the necessity for reliable statistics in establishing a fundamental basis for real discussion and progress. The utter inadequacy of the statistics of crime in this country is insisted upon in several articles; one of them being in fact an indictment against all our social statistics as "scarcely worth the name." Its very zeal may be taken in goodnature as a sufficient offset against its sweeping academic qualities.

The admitted inadequacy of our criminal statistics, however, indicates the more clearly the great service which the *Journal* should render as a steadying influence in a field in which discussion is peculiarly apt to go wide of the mark. This responsibility in thus representing the consensus of authoritative opinion demands a scrupulous accuracy on the part of editors and contributors. As the *Journal* settles into its work, there should be less possibility of such slips as that in the first number —an editorial reference to "the excellent work" done in the past by the New York Juvenile Court, based merely upon the annual report of the clerk of the court, when even a superficial enquiry would reveal the criticism which nearly all leaders in probation have directed toward the methods and system which circumscribed the usefulness of this particular juvenile tribunal;—as that in the third number where we find an editorial heading which attributes certain "ideas on the treatment of convicted criminals" to a man whose quoted speech merely reiterates the language of an article written much earlier by another man.

Timeliness characterizes the *Journal's* reporting of interesting and significant developments in its field. Court decisions, new laws, administrative orders and noteworthy papers or utterances are promptly cited, and most valuable features are the current bibliography and book reviews. It is to be hoped that the chronicle of current events will involve early reports on experience under various new methods. For example, it would now be most valuable to have careful statements of the results under Mayor Gaynor's police reforms inaugurated a few months ago and reported in the second issue of the *Journal*.

Rarely has a periodical devoted to a special field of social reform started with more influential and authoritative backing or with greater opportunity to render service of large importance.

THE AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION[1]

O. F. LEWIS

SECRETARY, PRISON ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK

At the meetings of the American Prison Association papers are read and discussed; at those of the International Prison Congress papers have already been prepared and printed and are summarized by a "reporter", his report furnishing the basis for discussion and eventual resolutions. Adherents of the former method will probably not declare themselves as yet persuaded that the European plan is the wiser. Certainly, many will feel that resolutions drawn on the basis of a single report and an hour's discussion often run the risk of being framed with far less deliberation than is necessary in the case of principles which have been subject to the test of years. Realizing this difficulty, neither the American Prison Association nor the National Conference of Charities and Correction is a "resoluting" body. Nevertheless, it is certain that the reports of the committees of the American Prison Association carry great weight in the moulding of public opinion.

Significant at the outset was the presidential address of Amos W. Butler of Indianapolis. Speaking on Convicts and Conservation, he emphasized the enormous waste of "convict resources" now occurring in many parts of the United States through keeping prisoners in idleness or but partially employing them. Mr. Butler declared that no present system of prison labor is in all important respects successful. He advocated the extension of the system of state farms now profitably conducted in the South.

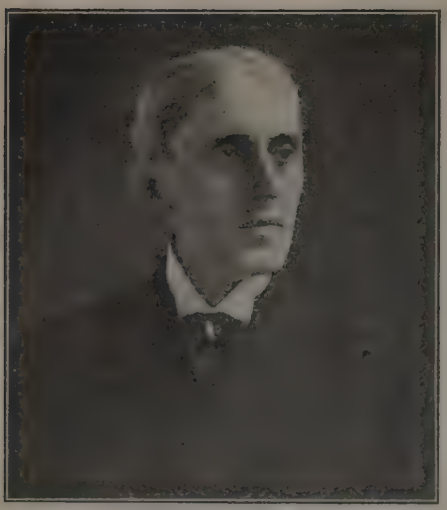
Whenever a new prison is to be constructed, the authorities should buy ample land upon which to erect it—not less than an acre for each prisoner, counting the maximum population. Why, since prisoners make again habitable the abandoned farms of Massachusetts and remove the boulders from

AMOS W. BUTLER.
Secretary of the Indiana Board of State Charities, retiring president of the American Prison Association.

the rich soil of Rhode Island, can they not reclaim the tide flats of New Jersey and the Everglades of Florida? If prisoners build dykes in Europe and levees in Louisiana, why not elsewhere? In Europe the courses of streams have been changed, mountains tunnelled, and canals built by prisoners. In the great mountain districts of the United States, in the lands of disappearing timber and along our sandy shores, there are possibilities already without limit. With selected prisoners under the right kind of supervision, what could not be done? These suggestions provide for the very least competition with free labor, for doing something good at the state's expense.

Indeed, emphasis throughout the meetings and at the succeeding International Prison Congress was laid on the necessity of combining the principle of reformation with the principle of reasonable work. When President Taft received the members of both bodies at the White House, he considered it his duty to warn the delegates that they should avoid making prisons so attractive and comfortable as to furnish a motive for desiring incarceration. It is undoubtedly true that this motive is sometimes present in the case of those committed to the idleness of common

[1] The November magazine number of THE SURVEY will be an International Prison Congress number. It will include several of the important papers, reviews of the different meetings on criminal law, prevention, etc.; a series of impressions of American conditions by Dr. Simon van der Aa of Holland and sketches of several of the foreign delegates by Isabel C. Barrows. In this issue we print brief reviews of the two national organizations which met in Washington just before the international body.



JOSEPH P. BYERS.
Superintendent of the New York House of Refuge, re-elected secretary of the American Prison Association.

jails and to the half-administered industries of some county penitentiaries, but that prisons and reformatories throughout this country are being made attractive through luxuries and sentimental treatment is greatly to be doubted. One must surely agree with President Taft's statement, that prisoners are not properly trained and used if, by associating with hardened criminals men who are not criminals and who may be saved altogether from becoming criminals, the number of criminals is increased rather than diminished.

One of the principal underlying themes of the association's meeting and of the International Prison Congress was the problem of the short sentence man. Fully recognizing for many years that reformatories and prisons are fed from the lesser prisons far more abundantly than might be the case were reformatory and preventive measures more largely present in workhouses, jails and houses of correction, the discussions of the American Prison Association centered upon the problems of proper discipline within prison walls and with subsequent supervision and rehabilitation of the prisoner on release. An able paper was presented by James A. Leonard, emphasizing the duty of society to give to the released man a "square deal" and a helping hand. "Severe methods of punishment have been largely discredited in American reformatories", said Dr. Leonard. "Almost every American reformatory is operating under some modified indeterminate sentence law. The young criminal can be made to stand secure when released from prison only after his feet rest upon the rock of economic independence."

In the discussion following Dr. Leonard's report, J. P. Gilmour, warden of the Central Prison at Toronto, Canada, told of 150 convicts serving sentences on a farm under his supervision where there is no bolt, bar nor gun. Mrs. D. A. O'Sullivan, superintendent of the Mercer Reformatory, Toronto, pointed out in a forcible speech the difficulties in after life of the reformatory girl who is often looked upon as legitimate prey for unscrupulous persons.

Frederick G. Pettigrove, chairman of the Prison Commission of Massachusetts, thought that prison officers should have clear heads and warm hearts. "They should be able to think straight rather than to shoot straight. Any prison system that depends upon the shot gun belongs to the bottomless pit and should be consigned there as soon as possible. Don't shoot a prisoner trying to escape, for he will be captured in time, but shoot him if he tries to assault his keeper or other prison official."

In the belief of Joseph F. Scott, superintendent of Elmira Reformatory, prison officials should be selected from the civil service. As regards the prisoner, he said that "while a prisoner is doing the work assigned to him, he should be made to do it for all he is worth. When, after hours, he is resting, and this time is to an extent his own, he should be encouraged with kindly consideration."

One of the most interesting sessions was held under the leadership of George W. Benham, warden of the New York State Prison at Auburn. Mr. Benham, reporting for the committee, said that the average prisoner aims to obey the rules. Prison discipline in general should be applied to all alike but, nevertheless, every individual's peculiarity must be studied. A strong effort should be made to reduce the minimum of those among the prison population who prove to be immune from any reformation or

improvement. Men of the incorrigible class should be segregated from the balance of the prison population, and placed in a separate building containing a sufficient number of light, well ventilated, roomy cells, each connected with an enclosed yard of such size that the prisoners may be kept at some employment and not suffer impairment by isolation. These quarters should also be used for the temporary confinement of prisoners who break prison rules, thus permitting the abolition of the unsanitary, dark cells now used in many prisons. Mr. Benham said:

> The chief influences that have entered into the improvement of the conduct of prisoners are the indeterminate sentence and commutation for good behavior laws. These, together with the merit and reward ideas of inducing good order have, in the committee's opinion, accomplished much more during their short period of existence and have sent more men from prison with a clean record than the thousands upon thousands of brutal lashes from the "cat", and the millions of hours of repugnant and spirit-breaking methods, which have been inflicted in the years gone by. The use of striped uniforms and the lock step is humiliating. The theory of any benefit arising from their use is wrong. The foundation stones of successful results in prison discipline are fairness and integrity on the part of the managing officials, labor, simple food prepared in a clean and wholesome manner, clean and substantial clothing, cleanliness of body and surroundings, education and religious instruction.

In a genial but earnest manner, Albert H. Hall of Minneapolis, made the radical suggestion in the report of the committee on criminal law reform, that Bertillon measurements and photographs of every citizen should be made and filed in a central bureau for public record. "The United States government ought to make it its chief concern to discover, develop, and realize itself, by gathering and recording full biographic and civic data of every man. We have developed the registration and identification of domestic animals. Why omit the record of human life, the supreme product of creation? The task is not impossible. Its benefits would be incalculable and far-reaching." Mr. Hall made the further suggestion that criminal statistics in the United States should be far more adequate and comprehensive than they are at present. He called attention to the pressing need of an expert criminal legislation bureau equipped with all available statistics. Another suggestion was that examining magistrates in criminal offences be clothed with authority to take a stenographic record of the examination of the accused, a copy to be furnished to him.

Very interesting was the report of the committee on discharged prisoners, made to the convention by F. A. Whittier, superintendent of the Minnesota State Training School for Boys. The recommendations of the committee were wholly in line with the principles above outlined and were corroborative evidence of the strength of the principle of parole, official supervision, and friendly aid to the man released from prison.

George L. Sehon, superintendent of the Kentucky Children's Home Society, laid stress in his committee report upon the fact that the child of today must be developed into a real asset for the society of tomorrow. All wholesome agencies are helpful preventives in the lives of the nation's dependent children. State and national governments have been entirely too lax in their treatment of parents. Adequate punishment should be provided for every man who fails to exert every effort to the support of his family and the proper training of his children. State aid, in the shape of

O. F. LEWIS.

Secretary of the New York Prison Association, who was in charge of the publicity.

pensions, or in some other form, should be forthcoming for the widows, who, because of their poverty, are unable to raise their children above the level of dependence. Mr. Sehon, supported by a majority of the members of the committee, endorsed the principle of vasectomy, a conclusion from which Judge William H. DeLacy of Washington, a member of the same committee, dissented vigorously.

On October 2, a joint meeting was held of the American Prison Association and the International Prison Congress. Amos W. Butler, president of the American Prison Association, presided. The venerable Z. R. Brockway of Elmira, N. Y., who was one of the speakers, held that "the real sacrilege of the work for the reformation of criminals consists in unwarrantable ignorance, selfish indifference, superficiality, falseness, and failure to recognize and work with the mysterious underlying forces that make for righteousness."

A banquet, noteworthy in its dignity and influence, was tendered the foreign delegates on Tuesday, October 4, at the New Willard Hotel by the American Prison Association. About 300 covers were laid. Frederick H. Mills of New York was toastmaster. Responses were made by representatives of many lands. As a testimonial by American penologists of their respect and regard for their foreign colleagues, the banquet was a notable success. A valuable tea service was presented by the foreign visitors to Mr. Mills, who had been in charge of the tour of inspection as representative of the United States government.

Dr. Guillaume, secretary of the International Prison Congress, who has attended every session of the congress since its institution forty years ago, declared that the organization owes its origin to America. "The United States," said he, "will become the Holy Land of philanthropists the world over." Major R. W. McClaughry, warden of the United States Penitentiary at Leavenworth, Kan., urged that means be devised to prevent the law's delay. A noteworthy speech was that of Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise, in which he emphasized the great need of the centralization of the administration of correctional institutions and the greater care necessary in the humane and reformatory treatment of short sentence men in American jails and workhouses.

The limits of space alone prevent the presentation here of a number of discussions and addresses. The general conclusion of those attending this year's conference was that "the conference was at a high-tide level." Credit in abundant measure is due to the officers of the association for the valuable series of meetings and the excellent arrangements at Washington. It is not under-emphasizing the valuable help rendered by many members of the American Prison Association to make this recent meeting a success, to speak a special word of commendation for the services of the general secretary, Joseph P. Byers.

The 1911 meeting of the association will be held at Omaha, Neb., the time to be determined by the executive committee.

The officers chosen for 1911 are T. B. Patton of Huntingdon, Pa., president; James A. Leonard of Mansfield, Ohio, Governor A. W. Gilchrist of Tallahassee, Fla., Demetrio Castillo, Havana, Cuba, Lieut.-Col. A. Irvin of Stone Mountain, Canada, vice-presidents; Joseph P. Byers of New York, general secretary; H. H. Shirer, Columbus, Ohio, financial secretary; Frederick H. Mills, New York, treasurer.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY

HARRY E. SMOOT
ATTORNEY CHICAGO JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION

The second annual conference of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology was arranged to come between the meetings of the American Prison Association and the International Prison Congress so that the members of

these bodies might attend the meetings of the institute. The institute is the outgrowth of a conference on criminal law and criminology held in Chicago in June of last year in celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of Northwestern University Law School. The conference last year selected from a proposed list of topics six questions which were assigned to committees with instructions to study, investigate and report upon them at the next conference.

The president, John H. Wigmore, professor of law at Northwestern University, said in his address:

> The obvious benefit and need of that work (the work of the institute) is seen in two ways: general organization of workers, and research in specific problems of the day.
>
> First, the organization of the workers has brought all the natural benefit of organization. Many important workers hitherto isolated, have been found out and brought into touch. All workers have been encouraged by the consciousness of co-operation. The efficiency of all the laborers has been multiplied. Wasteful and misdirected labor has been prevented. Public interest and confidence have been confirmed and stimulated. Without organization these things must have lingered or failed.
>
> The local organization needed for influencing state law and practice has also been stimulated. State conferences have been held in Wisconsin and in Kansas. During the first year of our existence this feature has not been emphasized as it must be in the future. But, for this purpose, strong men must arise in each state who will lead the work. The states of Pennsylvania, New York, Illinois and Missouri have a special duty in this respect, and that duty has not yet been realized.
>
> Next, tangible results have been reached or hastened in the specific problems of our field. Nine working committees were appointed including over seventy workers. Of these nine, seven have reported. Of these seven, the work of one stands completed, the committee on the establishment of a journal. The journal is the breath of life of the institute. It is in the ablest hands; its pages will serve as a perpetual organ for the spread of principles.

The *Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology* was established by a committee by virtue of a resolution adopted by the institute which called attention to the fact that there was no periodical in the English language devoted to the scientific study of criminal law and criminology although some twenty-five such journals are published in foreign countries including Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Russia, South America, Spain and Switzerland. The first number of the *Journal,* which is published bi-monthly, was issued in May.

The committee on translation of European treatises has already done much of its work. The resolution of the institute calling for the appointment of this committee recognizes that "it is exceedingly desirable that important treatises on criminology in foreign languages be made readily accessible in the English language." President Wigmore says of this committee that it "has let the contracts for translating nine most representative works. These will bring our whole thinking public into touch with the best European results of theory and practice. Two of these are almost off the press and others are actually in course of translation." The committee reports that "it realizes the necessity of educating the professions and the public by the wide diffusion of information on this subject"; that "the legal profession in particular has a duty to familiarize itself with the principles of that science as the sole means for intelligent and systematic improvement of the criminal law"; and that "one of its (the institute's) principal modes of stimulating and aiding this study (of modern criminal science) is to make available in the English language the most useful treatises now extant in the continental languages." As a result of the labors of this committee, the Modern Criminal Science Series has been started, which comprises the works spoken of in President Wigmore's report.

The works now being published are Criminal Psychology by Hans Gross; Modern Theories of Criminology by Bernaldo de Quiros; Criminal Sociology by Enrico Ferri; Individualization of Punishment by Raymond Saleilles; Crime, Its Causes and Remedies by Cesare Lombroso; Penal Philosophy by Gabriel Tarde; Criminality and Economic Conditions by W. A. Bonger; Criminology by Raffaelle Garofalo; Crime and Its Repression by Gustav Aschaffenburg. The series will be pub-

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

Dean of the Law School, Northwestern University, retiring president of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology.

lished by Messrs. Little, Brown and Company, Boston.

American readers are indebted for access to these works to the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology which secured the authorization of the writers in the series and made arrangements for special copyrights. Each work contains an American preface by the author and there will be special introductions by recognized authorities.

The committee on system of recording data of criminality had for its subject the "investigation of an effective system for recording the physical and moral status and the hereditary and environmental conditions of delinquents and in particular of the persistent offender; the same to contemplate in complex urban conditions, the use of consulting experts in the contributory sciences." In his report, the president said of this committee that it "has reported a system which is the ideal result of expert consultation. There remains the duty of testing this system in practice." The system reported by this committee comprises for the most part the schedules used by Dr. William Healey in the Juvenile Psychopathic Clinic of Chicago. These schedules are being used by the judges in a number of courts, both juvenile and municipal, in different sections of the country.

Other important topics worked upon during the year and reported at the last conference are, Organization of Courts, Criminal Procedure, and Criminal and Judicial Statistics.

Dean John D. Lawson of the University of Missouri Law School and Edwin R. Keedy of Northwestern University Law School reported on a special investigation in England on Criminal Procedure. This report, the most exhaustive yet made on the subject, will be published in the *Journal*.

All these committees are to continue their investigations of the subjects assigned them last year and to report again at the next conference.

The sessions of the conference closed with the annual dinner at the New Willard. Judge William H. DeLacy of the Washington Juvenile Court presided. Attorney-general Wickersham, the principal speaker, emphasized the need of changes in our criminal procedure. He contrasted trials of cases in England and in this country to show the degree of control exercised by the English judges. He assured the members that President Taft is heartily in accord with the measures suggested by the institute.

EDWIN R. KEEDY.

Professor of law in Northwestern University, retiring secretary of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology.

The institute authorized the appointment of committees to study during the coming year the following additional topics: "An investigation of the insane offender, with a view first to ascertain how the existing legal rules of criminal responsibility can be adjusted to the conclusions of modern medical science and modern penal science; and secondly, to devise such amendments in the mode of legal proceedings as will best realize these principles and avoid current abuses", and "The alien and the courts with a special reference to the following questions: treaty rights; status under the various state laws; procedure including interpreters, appeals, etc.; deportation for commission of crime; criminal statistics as affected by legal disabilities."

The institute voted that its executive board should have power to accept an invitation on behalf of the International Criminalistic Union to become the recognized unit of that association in this country.

The institute committees will do special work during the coming year on seven different topics, the precise wording of which can be found by consulting the bulletins of the institute or its *Journal*. These topics are the phases of the advanced work now being done by scientific men in criminal law, criminology, penology, psychiatry, psychology and other contributory sciences.

The membership now includes a majority of the men throughout this country who can contribute to the advancement of the science of criminal law and criminology. The institute desires, however, to add to its membership those who may be most benefited by the results obtained or who are in a position to place such results in practical use. Interesting in this regard is the report of the secretary which says in part: "We circularized and sent bulletins to over three thousand of the prosecuting attorneys in this country. At the time I left the work last March we had received but two answers to those circulars; one was an application for membership and the other was a letter of inquiry which was answered but led to no application."

The following officers were elected:

FREDERICK H. MILLS

Of New York, financial director of the International Prison Congress.

President, Nathan William MacChesney of Chicago, Ill., former vice-president of the Illinois Bar Association, and commissioner on uniform state laws; first vice-president, William H. DeLacy of Washington, D. C., judge of the Juvenile Court; second vice-president, Edward T. Devine of New York city; third vice-president, John D. Lawson of Columbia, Mo., dean of the law school of Missouri University; fourth vice-president, Adolf Meyer of Baltimore Md., professor of psychiatry in John-Hopkins University; fifth vice-president, Charles F. Amidon, judge of the United States Court for the District of North Dakota; treasurer, Bronson Winthrop, New York city, member of the New York bar; secretary, Harry E. Smoot of Chicago, attorney for the Juvenile Protective Association.

Executive Board, Amos W. Butler of Indianapolis, Ind., former president of the American Prison Association; Frederic B. Crossley of Chicago, librarian of the Gary Library of Criminal Law and Criminology; Charles A. Ellwood of Columbia, professor of law in Missouri University; Eugene A. Gilmore of Madison, Wis., professor of law in Wisconsin University; Harry Olson of Chicago, chief justice of the Municipal Court; Arthur W. Towne of Albany, N. Y., secretary of the State Probation Commission; John H. Wigmore of Chicago, Ill., professor of law in Northwestern University; William E. Healey of Chicago, director of the Juvenile Psychopathic Institute; Roscoe Pound of Cambridge, Mass., professor of law in Harvard University; Frederick W. Lehmann of St. Louis, Mo., former president of the American Bar Association.

THE SOCIAL ASPECT OF CITY ECONOMY

JAMES P. HEATON

New York city is going through the annual throes of a budget campaign. That the city government plays the most important part in the plans for social betterment may be little thought of by most people, but it is increasingly recognized by various organizations interested in special phases of social work. Each year their directing officials scrutinize most carefully the municipal activities, in so far as these affect their particular fields.

So long as there are unsupervised cases of tuberculosis in the tenements, 100,000 dark, windowless, interior bedrooms and sick and helpless patients in city institutions who are subjected to the care of incompetent employes, social workers cannot watch with equanimity the purchase of expensive automobiles for city officials, and the waste of public funds in excessive prices paid for real estate and extortionate fees to commissioners in condemnation proceedings. Social workers have felt compelled to face the facts and to try to make the community choose intelligently the purposes for which its money shall be expended.

The present administration of New York city has attracted nation-wide attention for its creditable efforts to make sure that the municipal funds are not needlessly wasted through lack of ordinary business foresight and efficient oversight. The determination of Mayor Gaynor and his fellow officers that the public shall be told the whole truth and nothing but the truth as to the expenditure of the public funds is a much appreciated phase of official frankness.

All over the country, however, social workers are wondering whether the city officials in their anxiety to economize will fail to furnish the funds necessary for the improvement of the service rendered by such departments as education, charities, correction, health, tenements and parks.

The most interesting new departure this year has been the municipal budget exhibit which the city is maintaining this month. A budget exhibit was given two years ago by the Bureau of Municipal Research. With a special appropriation of $25,000 and the co-operation of all the city departments a much more complete exhibit has been prepared than the bureau was able to arrange. The exhibit has been splendidly advertised. Every taxpayer was notified by an invitation enclosed with his bill. A large sign was placed on Brooklyn Bridge where it crosses Park Row that makes advertising men enviously wish they could have such a space for the benefit of their clients.

Part of the carpentry work necessary for the installation of the exhibit was performed by the boys of the Vocational School as a practical illustration of the value of some of the so-called "new fads" of the Board of Education. The Fire, Police and Street Cleaning Departments have very attractive exhibits consisting largely of samples of the material equipment for their work. The Department of Water Supply, Gas and Electricity, the board in charge of the new Catskill water system, and the borough presidents also have a chance to appeal to the eye by showing graphically the vastness of their construction works, such as sewer and water mains. The Department of Public Charities shows furniture made by the feeble-minded children on Randall's Island, Bellevue Hospital illustrates the method of bringing in ambulance patients, the Tenement House Department has models of fire escapes and tenement buildings and the Department of Correction displays examples of articles made by those confined in the workhouse.

Some of the exhibits which attract attention are not so spectacular. The chart of the Finance Department showing the amount of provisions condemned by inspectors from the consignments intended for charitable institutions, and the saving in coal bills due to buying by heat units

instead of weight are examples. The false measures and weights found by the city inspectors make a sad commentary upon the honesty of some dealers.

The exhibit shows well how the money is spent and how it is being saved. An omission is the failure to show as clearly how the funds spent are raised. The sources of revenue now used and those that might be employed are not explained nor are the effects of the present methods of raising money. The uniform note of the budget exhibit is that every effort is being made to use money economically and that larger sums could profitably be employed.

Although the administration came into power on a platform of economy, the department heads, with two or three exceptions, notably the borough presidents of Manhattan, the Bronx, the comptroller and the commissioner of correction, all submitted requests for rather substantial increases.

The Board of Estimate and Apportionment, hoping to keep the budget down to the total for last year, requested that the departmental heads submit revised estimates amounting to ten per cent less than the sum allowed to them last year, together with an explanation of the effects upon the service that would follow. The increase in fixed charges for the debt service, and mandatory increases in salaries force an economy of $7,000,000, if the budget is not to be greater. Social workers have been very anxious that such cuts should not be applied to the departments with whose needs they are thoroughly acquainted. The seriousness of the blow should that be done, which, however, is not probable, is apparent to all familiar with the needs of the Departments of Health, Charities and Education. It would be a serious handicap if these departments get merely what they enjoyed or endured last year. At this time it is impossible to say what the final outcome will be.

As in past years the estimates and their revisions have come in late. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment postponed the public hearings scheduled for October 13 and 17 and apparently everything will be done in a rush in the last week or ten days as before. This is one matter in which it was hoped that an improvement would be realized.

The Department of Health has asked for a little over $4,000,000 or an increase of over $1,300,000. Of this $316,000 is to enable the department to get 266 additional nurses and 48 medical inspectors so that they can examine the children in all free schools and care for newly born babies and their mothers. The Bureau of Child Hygiene has demonstrated its value and its work is being watched with approval all over the country. The other large increases requested are $115,000 for the division of contagious diseases, for new inspectors; $488,000 for the division of hospitals, and $96,000 for the tuberculosis sanatorium at Otisville. This last is particularly needed to follow up the good work in stamping out tuberculosis to which the department has devoted so much attention this past year. Minor increases that are very desirable are $51,000 for improved milk inspection and $12,000 for the Bureau of Records which is in need of a thorough reorganization. None of these needs can be adequately met if an increase is not granted the Health Department. The department requires generous funds to perfect further the system of visiting consumptives monthly in their tenement homes, of inspecting the patient in every new case of tuberculosis reported, and of guarding the dismissal of tuberculosis patients from the hospital to homes where conditions are not proper for their reception. The department would also like to open milk stations to take the place of those closed by Mr. Straus.

The Department of Education requested $35,970,000, or an increase of $7,309,000. The increases of most interest to social workers are $171,000 for evening schools and $96,000 for vacation schools, playgrounds and recreation centers and baths. Last year it was necessary to postpone opening three new evening high schools, to curtail the number of truant officers employed and to reduce greatly the sum for vacation schools, playgrounds and evening recreation centers. If the increases asked for these are allowed the sum spent will be

less than the cost in 1909. The board seems to have made effective economies in the sum allowed for supplies and is asking for 1911 $228,097.43 less than it had in 1906 for this purpose.

The Department of Public Charities, which has the management of most of the city hospitals as well as the care of homes for the aged and infirm, asked for an increase of $1,035,000. Of this, $327,000 is for the salary roll, partly for new employes and partly to increase salaries and especially those of helpers. It is proposed to pay every helper at least twenty dollars a month whereas at present the majority in the City Home get but fifty cents a day or fifteen dollars a month, and many less.

Often helpers really do the work of nurses and are paid with due allowance for maintenance $300 a year less than street sweepers. In the Metropolitan Hospital eighty-seven per cent of the employes get less than $480 a year which is the maximum for the helper grade. At the Kings County Hospital there are ninety-six unpaid helpers of whom the grand jury has said, "It is not proper that the sick should be treated and attended by convalescents, many of them from the alcoholic and venereal wards. Every year, as a result of the poor quality of the hospital help, more attendants are dismissed (2,620) than the average number of employes in the department (2,448) and the total number leaving the service each year is almost double the number in the department at any one time. The underpay of the lower grades of the hospital service has been a disgrace to the city for years and a cause of neglect of its patients."

The department needs more employes for the following new buildings that have been or are to be opened during the year:

(1) Two new hospital pavilions for tuberculosis patients at the Metropolitan Hospital, having a capacity for 350 patients.
(2) A new neurological hospital pavilion opened for patients last June with a capacity for eighty patients.
(3) New nurses' home, Kings County Hospital.
(4) A new wing to Kings County Hospital to accommodate 150.
(5) Two new dormitories for inmates at the farm colony, 100 inmates each.
(6) Insane pavilion at the farm colony.
(7) New staff house, Metropolitan Hospital.
(8) Morgue and pathological building, Metropolitan Hospital.
(9) Morgue and pathological building, Kings County Hospital.

The department is also under obligation to establish branches of the Dependent Adults Bureau in the domestic court buildings, and needs additional employes for other purposes.

The need for these new buildings, which are all practically ready for occupancy, is undoubted. At the Metropolitan Hospital there are at least 200 patients more than can properly be cared for in the present buildings. Small rooms originally used for cells and hardly large enough for one person hold two patients. Beds are so close together that it is impossible to walk between them and patients have had to be put in dark corridors. The State Board of Charities has but recently called the attention of the city authorities to the insufficient air space in the city hospitals.

At the City Home for the Aged and Infirm on Blackwell's Island the superintendent estimates that there is at least twenty-five per cent excess over the proper capacity. In the Brooklyn home there is "no place for the old women who are too weak to go up and down stairs and out on the grounds, to promenade or sit down in comfort. In case of a serious fire only a miracle could prevent a serious loss of life," said the grand jury. The extension of the farm colony is planned to relieve the overcrowding in the other homes. It will enable the city to care intelligently for the more able-bodied on a farm where they can be grouped wisely and employed in agriculture to the extent of their ability.

The new nurses' home at the Kings County Hospital will enable their removal from the isolation building, thus giving more room for caring for contagious cases and allowing the helpers to be removed from an unwholesome basement dormitory.

In private hospitals there is at least one nurse for every four patients, while in the Kings County Hospital the ratio

is one to eight. As a result nurses are compelled at times to work until twelve, one or two at night and then must go on duty again at seven.

For supplies the department has asked for an increase of $175,000. This is needed, for the allowance for 1910 was a decrease of $125,000 from the actual expenditures for 1909. The sum requested is but $14,000 over the amount already allowed for 1910 if the supplemental issues of revenue bonds are considered. The need for a larger appropriation to meet the rising cost of food supplies is very evident.

For repairs an increase of $461,000 is requested. Some criticism has recently been made of the way the department prepared the estimate of its needs for this purpose, but the condition of the buildings, which have been much neglected, is well known, and although this item can possibly be postponed in part a very substantial sum should be allowed.

The Park Department for Manhattan and the Bronx requested increases of $52,000 for playgrounds for salaries and wages, $38,537 for bathhouses and comfort stations, and $7,965 for children's farm schools. These are all items that social workers would be glad to see granted. A cut of ten per cent would mean the closing of half a dozen playgrounds. The Tenement House Department has asked for a modest increase of $27,127.50, of which two-thirds is for increases of salaries of present employes. The main question involved is whether the employes in question, most of whom deserve the increases, and many of whom have chances to go to other departments or to private positions at increased salaries, should be required to wait over a year at least until the committee on standardization is able to revise the salary schedules for the city.

The Department of Correction distinguished itself by submitting an estimate calling for $2,776.50 less than it received last year. The saving is entirely in the item of supplies. For salaries an increase of $22,449 is asked. Much of this is mandatory or already authorized by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

The attempt to economize ten per cent in the running expenses of the city is an aim that all must approve. Such an economy cannot wisely be effected by making an arbitrary horizontal decrease in the appropriation for every department irrespective of the demonstrated needs of each. Increases should be allowed to some and others may possibly be cut even more than ten per cent. Some of the departments undoubtedly need reorganization to get the fullest work from their present appropriations. This could perhaps be done most easily by refusing any increase which complicates the work of reorganization by making it necessary to start new kinds of work. This view should not prevail to the extent of making the inmates in city institutions and the sick wait for needed services until such time as the office arrangements of the department can be perfected.

COMMUNICATIONS

CHICAGO SCHOOLGRAMS

To the Editor:

Dear Sir.—On page 99 of the issue of The Survey for October 8, I find some of the "schoolgrams" offered by the Chicago Health Department. They are all good and I believe will be very helpful, but the last one staggers me. It says, "Be well, and you'll be happy—even in school." Of course, it is an oversight.

Isn't it rather a serious condition of affairs when the writer of such good advice, who evidently understands his problem as thoroughly as this writer does, feels it necessary to tell a child that he may even be happy in school!

E. R. Johnstone.

Vineland, N. J.

IMPORTANT NEW BOOKS ON PRISON REFORM

UNDER the title Correction and Prevention, the Russell Sage Foundation has issued a set of four books which show admirably the essential features and principles of American methods of dealing with crime and criminals. They follow the four sections of the International Prison Congress held this month in Washington: Penal Legislation; Prison Administration; Preventive Means; Questions Relating to Children. Written by experts, edited by Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago, the President of the International Prison Congress, well printed and profusely illustrated, they form an indispensable source of accurate information and give a rounded view of the subject such as can be obtained in no other printed form. The foreign delegates to the Prison Congress found the books of the greatest value. The books may be bought separately at the prices named under each one below, or the FOUR WILL BE SENT EXPRESS PREPAID FOR $10.

PRISON REFORM

Seven chapters in the first part of this volume give in historical and biographical form the story of Prison Reform, told by men still living whose lives have been intermingled with the noblest efforts in this direction.

- Historical Introduction, by Frederick Howard Wines, LL.D.
- E. C. Wines and Prison Reform, a Memoir by Frank B. Sanborn.
- The American Reformatory Prison System, by Z. R. Brockway.
- Possible and Actual Penalties for Crime, by Frederick Howard Wines.
- Samuel June Barrows, by Paul U. Kellogg.
- Rutherford B. Hayes, by W. M. F. Round.
- Biographical Sketches of Francis Lieber, Theodore W. Dwight, Edward Livingston, Dorothea Lynde Dix, Ellen Cheney Johnson, and Gardiner Tufts.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

A SOCIAL WORKER ON THE SUPREME BENCH

One of Charles E. Hughes's last days as governor of New York was made the occasion of a most unusual farewell tribute in the capitol at Albany. Marshalled by Homer Folks, who as secretary of the State Charities Aid Association and president of the State Probation Association has been one of the governor's advisers on matters in the field of charities and correction, a group of those who are particularly interested in public health questions gathered to say a final word to "a governor who knows and cares and hopes, and gives us courage to come here and ask for things which we should not have attempted otherwise," as Mr. Almy put it.

Mr. Folks's tribute is paid on another page of this issue. Commissioner Porter, whose Albany experience runs back to Governor Hill, spoke of Governor Hughes's consistent interest in the State Department of Health, particularly "in legislation regarding the pollution of streams, the disposal of mill waste and the drawing of proper and efficient legislative measures for the correction of some of the existing evils." But beyond these things, which perhaps are more on the routine side of public health work, he emphasized that the governor has "seen clearly the opening of that great door for general betterment. You have believed in clean streets and clean cities, in clean air, clean homes and clean morals. You have believed in decent tenements and efficient factory supervision, in pure foods and pure water, and in the fight that we have had against tuberculosis. You have realized that ignorance and selfishness were great obstacles against sanitary progress, and against these you have waged effective war."

The state campaign against tuberculosis, which the State Charities Aid Association has conducted for three years in a way to make it a model for all states, was briefly outlined by George F. Canfield. He held it impossible to overestimate the value of the governor's support and advocacy of the cause. He gave an impressive review of the tuberculosis legislation enacted during Governor Hughes's two terms. In 1908 was the bill defining the powers and duties of local health officers and the board of health, which made tuberculosis a reportable disease and provided for sani-

CHARLES EVANS HUGHES.
"Hundreds and thousands of lives will be saved if we have a series of governors like Hughes."

tary supervision of tuberculosis hospitals. This is the law which Dr. William H. Welsh of Johns Hopkins University said placed New York in the front rank of the states which are fighting tuberculosis. In 1909 the governor signed the bill authorizing boards of supervisors to establish county tuberculosis hospitals. And this year there was the repeal of the Goodsell bill which had made the location of hospitals practically impossible.

Frederic Almy, secretary of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, spoke of the 10,000 who die every year of tuberculosis in New York state. "Hundreds and thousands of lives will be saved if we have a series of governors like Governor Hughes," he said. Last year he made it possible for Buffalo to spend $200,000 for a city tuberculosis hospital, and similar bills have become law for Niagara Falls, Elmira, Poughkeepsie and Yonkers. "My view of Heaven," said Mr. Almy, "is a place where we can see things grow, and I wish Governor Hughes could see the results of his deeds in lives that have been saved all over this state. I am sure it would make him blush to know of all the good he has done in quiet, unselfish and unostentatious ways."

LAST WORDS OF GOV. HUGHES'S

The governor replied briefly:

It has always been pleasing to withdraw from controversy and debate and to have the opportunity of consultation with men and women who have no thought but to take the next step forward in bettering conditions of life. You have came here repeatedly to advise with me and I shall take away from the labors of this administration the thought of many happy hours of planning that the people of this state might suffer a little less from the causes of suffering and disease and might rise a little nearer to the attainable condition of wholesome living.

How I wish we could have done more! I leave office not with the thought of what has been done, but with the thought of what I should have liked to do. There are no groups in the community whom I esteem more highly and whose good will I more earnestly wish than those associations of our citizens who are working in our charitable institutions and in promoting philanthropic enterprise.

Speaking particularly of tuberculosis, which he called "a disgrace to our civilization," he emphasized the opportunity for every one to serve.

Here is a chance for the co-operation of all, no matter what their political views may be, no matter what their theories of government may be. I recognize the necessary limitations of governmental action. And here, not only must we have the action of government within its proper sphere, but this must be supplemented by the co-operation of those voluntary agencies which work outside the domain of government. Necessary information can be brought home to those who are in unfortunate circumstances which are remediable, so that they may know that the conditions may be a little less unfortunate by attention to a few simple rules with regard to hygiene and the proper ordering of life and its surroundings. Those who house other people and profess to have some patriotic pride in our institutions, can more clearly realize what they should do in the interest of the entire community in providing decent abodes for those from whom they take rent. Local authorities in our cities must appreciate the importance of securing prompt and full information in regard to cases and the faithful execution of our health laws so that this shall not be a paper program, but a realized advancement. In our counties the boards of supervisors are having opportunity, and should realize the necessity of, improving conditions.

Where governmental action can properly be had, the matter of fundamental importance is to have administration honest and efficient. There is no greater waste than the supplying of departments and institutions which do not realize their intended purposes. There is no surer economy than to have a public institution or department which is essential to the public welfare, so equipped as to do that which it is intended to do. We do not want public institutions and public enterprises merely described in statutes or conducted simply for the sake of making an imposing showing in published manuals of administration, but we want them to represent real work—actual accomplishment, because the men engaged in them are able, single-minded and loyal.

And in closing this informal address of perhaps ten minutes' length, which was in fact, though not in form, his exaugural, Goveror Hughes left this message with the people of New York state whom he had so often taken into his confidence and on whom he had depended for timely and intelligent support of his measures of reform:

The last word I want to say to you is this: This work must find its support in the sentiment of our communities. You cannot

carry it by main strength against the will of the people. The people must be brought to realize what can be done, what is practicable, and support it because they understand it. Every man and every woman who knows the situation can be a conductor of electrical energy and give this movement its needed power. And do not yield to discouragement. The task is so great, the preventable misfortunes of society are so many, the community suffers so much from the visionary on the one hand, and the man who is too practical to see what can be done on the other hand, that frequently there is a sense of discouragement on the part of those who realize keenly what could be done if only more would work together.

As a result of my four years—nearly four years—here, I want to say to all who are interested in any good work in the state, and particularly in this work: Do not permit yourselves to become discouraged. Whatever has in it merit, and will stand debate, and is practicable, will be had in this country if intelligent people present it and discuss it. Have an absolute, abiding confidence in your fellow men.

CIVIL SERVICE FOR PROBATION OFFICERS

Social workers who have been advocating a competitive examination for the twenty-five new positions of probation officer in the lower courts of New York, are much gratified that Mayor Gaynor has decided in favor of it and that the Municipal Civil Service Commission is planning an examination which promises to be thoroughly practical. The effect of the decision to choose these probation officers by competitive examination is of more than local interest.

In disapproving of the proposed exemption of these positions Mayor Gaynor wrote to the president of the commission:

> After careful consideration I have concluded that the probation officers, except the chief probation officers, should not be exempted from competitive examination. These officers should have a vocation for their work, even as a minister of the Gospel has a vocation for his work; but I am satisfied that the Civil Service Commission, by adopting a proper system of examination, can ascertain persons of that kind as well, if not better, than the board of judges could ascertain them if left free to appoint whom they saw fit. I trust you and your asssociates will establish a system of examination which will enable you to ascertain the vocational fitness of the applicants for the peculiar work which probation officers have to do.

The inferior courts act of 1910 provided for the appointment, on or before September 1, of three chief probation officers and twenty-five other probation officers in the Children's Courts, the Court of Special Sessions, and the City Magistrates' Courts. As announced in THE SURVEY for September 10, the appointments were not made on the date required by law, nor have they yet been made. In July, the Municipal Civil Service Commission announced an examination for these positions to be held on August 11, and about 1,750 candidates filed applications; but the examination was postponed. On October 5 the municipal commission recommended that the positions be exempted from examination. This action could not become effective, however, unless approved by both the mayor and the State Civil Service Commission. Mayor Gaynor held a public hearing on October 19 when arguments for and against exemption were strongly presented, and two days later the mayor directed the Municipal Civil Service Commission to hold a competitive examination for all of the positions except those of chief probation officer.

The question as to whether civil service examinations for probation officers are desirable and practicable has probably never been discussed so thoroughly and so broadly as in New York during the past four months. At the two public hearings held by the Municipal Civil Service Commission, at the hearing held by Mayor Gaynor, and in letters to the municipal commission, the competitive system as a means of assuring the selection of competent officers and of preventing the influence of partisan politics, has been advocated by representatives of many social, civic and religious organizations, including the State Probation Commission, the New York Probation Association, the Brooklyn Juvenile Probation Association, the Catholic Probation League, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the Prison Association of New York, the Jewish Shelter and Guardian Society, the City Club, the Catholic Protectory, the Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, the Civil Service Reform Association, the Association of Civil Service Employes, and the Nurses', Union,

University and other settlements. One of the most effective supporters of competition was Mgr. William J. White, Supervisor of Catholic Charities of Brooklyn.

FOR AND AGAINST THE MERIT SYSTEM

A variety of arguments has been presented in favor of allowing justices and magistrates a free hand in making appointments. At first the exponents of exemption seemed to occupy a vantage point, because the law creating the positions declared the probation officers to be confidential officers, and an attempt was made to construe this language as classifying the positions as exempt. The word "confidential" had been inserted in the bill during an executive meeting of a legislative committee late in the session. Governor Hughes in signing the bill disapproved of the use of the word, and indicated his belief that the positions should be filled according to the merit system. He quoted the State Civil Service Commission, with approval, as declaring "that probation officers had been appointed in cities and counties throughout the state as a result of open competitive examinations and with entirely satisfactory results." The representatives of the State Probation Commission and the social workers who advocated selection through a competitive examination, persistently urged that the best test of practicability is experience. They have shown that when examinations for such positions have been conducted in part orally, and have included experience and personal qualifications as subjects, the eligible lists established have made it possible to secure excellent appointments. Throughout the discussions, emphasis has been placed upon the great importance of having only those appointed who are fitted by temperament, character, ability and experience for the highly specialized and responsible duties devolving upon probation officers. Final decision rested upon the question as to whether personal qualifications and vocational fitness of candidates can be determined by a competitive examination.

Mayor Gaynor's action in deciding in favor of an examination is especially worthy of note, since he has been for years an eminent jurist (he was formerly a justice of the State Supreme Court), and since some judges who desired exemption claimed that judges are the only persons qualified to select competent probation officers.

Directly after Mayor Gaynor's decision in favor of a competitive examination the Municipal Civil Service Commission revised the schedule of subjects and relative weights, originally planned for the examination announced for August 11, by increasing the percentages allowed for experience and personal qualifications. The examination will allow thirty per cent for a written paper on the duties of probation officer, thirty per cent for experience, and forty per cent for an oral test. Preceding the formal examination there will be a physical inspection to eliminate candidates whose general appearance clearly indicates that they are unfitted to undertake probation work. The first of the physical tests is announced for October 31.

The municipal commission has been urged to have the assistance of persons familiar with probation and social work, in conducting the examination and in investigating the references and character of the candidates. It is greatly to be hoped that it will avail itself of such assistance. Although about 1,750 persons filed applications to take the examination originally announced on August 11, the number of candidates may be considerably increased, since the commission has reopened the filing of applications which will now be received up to November 7. It is planned to have all candidates take the written test on the same day at the Grand Central Palace. The date, which is not yet set, will fall between November 21 and December 10. Those who pass will be admitted to the oral test, which will partake of the nature of a personal interview, and will necessarily extend over several days or weeks.

Aside from its importance from the point of view of efficient probation work, the examination about to be held is of special interest and significance in that it is understood to be the first oral examination for any position ever conducted by

the New York Municipal Civil Service Commission.

The three chief probation officers, whom Mayor Gaynor believes should be in the exempt class, have been appointed and at work for several weeks, and their classification may properly be different from that of the other probation officers since their duties are largely administrative.

TO HAVE CHARGE OF TRINITY TENEMENTS

There has been much criticism of the Trinity tenements, begun before the tenement house commission of 1894 in New York and renewed with great vigor about two years ago. Since that time, at the request of the recently organized property committee of the vestry, as readers of THE SURVEY may remember,[1] an investigation was made by Emily W. Dinwiddie, secretary of the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society, of those 334 dwelling houses which were not only on Trinity ground but under the control of the church corporation.

The recent appointment of Miss Dinwiddie as supervisor of these houses promises to be a step toward making Trinity Corporation a model landlord. As we are told also that the better maintenance of the houses now controlled by the church is to be accompanied by the gradual taking up of the leases of the houses now out of its control, it seems that the corporation must before long free itself also of the charge of disclaiming responsibility for the care of the leased houses on half its land.

Trinity has begun to tear down some of its houses, and 180 have now been destroyed, the majority to make way for factories, which, it is expected, will build up the industries of the lower West Side, where most of the Trinity properties lie. At the time of Miss Dinwiddie's investigation, which followed years of agitation, only twelve houses in distinctly bad condition were found and these have since been improved or demolished. Besides putting those houses now under its

[1] THE SURVEY, February 26, 1910.

EMILY WAYLAND DINWIDDIE.
Housing expert placed in charge of Trinity's tenements.

control in the best possible condition, the work of improvement by the corporation will include taking over and in many cases fundamentally renovating those on leased ground, as their leases expire. With proper maintenance these old fashioned small houses with few tenants, low rents and rooms opening on wide yards, should prove a valuable type of tenement among the tall overcrowded houses of New York.

For the work she has undertaken Miss Dinwiddie is exceptionally well equipped, as she has a thorough knowledge of both the tenements and the tenement dwellers of New York. In 1901-2 she was in the relief department of the Charity Organization Society. During 1903 she served as inspector in the newly created Tenement House Department and during the same year and 1904 carried on a special investigation for the Octavia Hill Association of Philadelphia. Immediately after she was appointed assistant secretary to the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society, and

in 1905 became secretary from which place she now resigns. Her successor is Madge D. Headley a graduate of De Pauw University and of the New York School of Philanthropy.

CHICAGO FIRMS BUILD WORKMEN'S SANATORIUM

Thirty-two large firms in and about Chicago have opened at Watrous, N. M., the Valmora Industrial Sanitarium for the treatment of their employes who have tuberculosis. This is the first institution of the kind in the United States to be erected by a group of industrial concerns for their own workers. A somewhat similar idea was worked out several years ago by Dr. M. G. Overlock, factory inspector at Worcester, Mass., who induced a number of manufacturers in that state to co-operate in sending their sick workmen to the state sanatorium, and in several Connecticut cities, where workmen and employes have together raised free bed funds.

The Valmora property consists of one thousand acres in San Miguel county with a central administration building and twenty-four cottages. The present capacity is thirty patients, but plans have been made for an early increase to fifty. By the articles of association—the sanatorium is incorporated under the laws of Illinois—either firms or individuals may be members by paying a minimum fee of $500 and twenty cents for each employe over one thousand.

The treatment is to be given at cost price, which is ten dollars a week, and it may be borne by either patient or employer. It is probable that a considerable number of employers will undertake the payment as some of them already have enviable records in this regard.

Question might be raised of the wisdom of building a sanatorium so far from Chicago. Climate plays a constantly diminishing rôle in the plans of tuberculosis workers. It is understood that the property was bought for much less than a similar tract could be had for anywhere in the neighborhood of Chicago. But the saving in purchase price will eventually, if not rapidly, be dissipated by the cost of sending patients to New Mexico. The fare from Chicago to Watrous is $29.60 each way. A round trip railroad fare of almost sixty dollars will quickly run into large sums if the sanatorium is used in rapid rotation for a number of incipient cases. There is the additional disadvantage of a trip of 1,224 miles requiring fifteen hours, and the possibility of adding to New Mexico's already heavy burden of arrested cases who become permanent residents without physical ability or adequate opportunity for self-support.

Membership in the corporation is open to other firms. Those who have joined to date are: Marshall Field and Company, International Harvester Company, Butler Brothers, Siegel-Cooper and Company, Joseph T. Ryerson and Son, The Fair, Hibbard, Spencer, Bartlett and Company, R. T. Crane Company, J. V. Farwell and Company, Automatic Electric Company, The *Daily News*, Mandel Brothers, Western Trust and Savings Bank, F. A. Hardy and Company, First National Bank of Chicago, Continental National Bank, Hibernian National Bank, Ripon Anti-Tuberculosis Society, Illinois Trust and Savings Bank, Richard A. Morley Land and Investment Company, Morris and Company; Sears, Roebuck and Company; Carson, Pirie, Scott and Company; Rothschild and Company; Sprague, Warner and Company, L. Wolff Manufacturing Company, Carleton Dry Goods Company, St. Louis; Chalmers Detroit Automobile Company, Detroit; McDuffee Motor Company, Denver; The National City Bank; Union Trust Company; Selz, Schwab and Company.

The president of the corporation is E. Fletcher Ingals, M. D., of Chicago. The other officers and directors are: John F. Wolff, vice-president; Edwin B. Tuteur, M. D., secretary; Joseph E. Otis, treasurer; E. D. Raynolds, assistant treasurer; J. M. Blazer, counsel; John M. Dodson, M. D.; J. M. Glenn (of Chicago); Charles L. Mix, M. D.; Philip L. James; John T. Pirie, Jr.; Julius Rosenwald; Edward M. Skinner; A. A. Sprague, 2nd; Frederick Tice, M. D. The headquarters of the corporation are at 34 Washington street, Chicago.

JULIA WARD HOWE
FRIEND OF FREEDOM

Julia Ward Howe, "author, philanthropist, mother, friend of the slave, the prisoner, and all who suffer, singer of the battle hymn of freedom," has gone quietly to rest at the great age of ninety-one years. On her ninetieth birthday she was able to say, "The deeper I drink of the cup of life the sweeter it grows." On that day she could look back upon long years of service in behalf of progress for mankind and upon what she valued even more, a happy family life.

Best known as author of The Battle Hymn of the Republic, the Marseillaise of the Civil War, Julia Ward Howe was possessed of rare and varied talents. Daughter of Samuel Ward, first president of the Bank of Commerce and a founder of New York University, she early displayed literary and musical taste and enjoyed the friendship of Charles King, afterward president of Columbia; Washington Irving, John Jacob Astor, and Fitz-Greene Halleck.

While visiting with Longfellow and Charles Sumner at the Perkins Institute for the Blind in order to meet Laura Bridgman, she first saw Dr. Howe, whose work for the blind has been immortalized by Dickens. Her life which after the death of her father had threatened to become one of "beautiful poetic misery," as she termed it, was given a happy reaction and through Dr. Howe she became interested in public work.

Mrs. Howe, the banker's daughter and social belle, was soon converted to abolitionism and she assisted her husband in publishing the anti-slavery paper, the *Commonwealth*. The Battle Hymn of the Republic was written in November, 1861, during the excitement of the war. For some time it received very little mention, but the poem came to be a favorite hymn of those war days.

Dr. and Mrs. Howe went to Europe in 1867 to raise money to purchase supplies for the Grecian patriots. Again in 1872 Mrs. Howe made a trip abroad to interest women in the cause of peace. She sought to call together a great peace congress but was unsuccessful.

After her husband's death in 1876 Mrs. Howe became identified with the movement for the political enfranchisement of women. Her advocacy of the cause was sane and lent dignity and importance to the crusade.

One of the last tributes to this remarkable woman, whose life covered almost exactly the span of her friend, Florence Nightingale, was rendered when an audience of thousands from a score of countries, gathered in the Metropolitan Opera House during the Hudson-Fulton celebration of last year, greeted her with a thunder of applause as she read her poem in honor of Robert Fulton.

CITY AND COUNTRY
MEET IN CLEVELAND

During the week of October 10 Cleveland celebrated the centennial of Cuyahoga county. That the city chose to celebrate the anniversary of the county's founding rather than her own is indicative of an appreciation of opportunities and responsibilities near home. Since the census declared it the sixth city in size, Cleveland has been indulging in a tense vain gloriousness and pomposity, but while realizing its importance as one of the great cities of the nation, it is not forgetting that it is a part of the community that helped make it great. Instead of dominating and overshadowing its environs, as is so often the case with large cities, it asked them to share with it in celebrating the county's anniversary.

That Cleveland was sincere in its desire to exploit the county about the city one does not doubt who reads the program and studies the decorations, for the theme of them all was the history of the founding and growth of the county. That the

city was successful in making this a celebration in which all could take part one could judge by the crowds of country people that thronged the streets and filled the hotels and the homes of old Cleveland residents. Most urbanites are sceptical about city celebrations, declaring that the celebration reached its height in the old time county fair, and that it is impossible for scattered and diversified parts of a city to attempt such an effort. Cleveland proved in this celebration that it had not in its rapid development outgrown the human side, and that it was still possible for all of its people to unite, not only with themselves, but with their country and village friends, and the result was much like the county fair. There was none of the beauty and pomp that distinguished the Hudson-Fulton celebration of last year, but much of the old-time speechmaking in the Chamber of Commerce, that organization of which Cleveland is justly proud, and still more in the public square, which Cleveland has maintained among some other excellent characteristics of the small town. It is significant that in the center of this square stands a large monument erected by Cuyahoga county to the soldiers of the Civil War. That it is one of the most unsightly of monuments does not diminish the sentiment in which it is held.

The parades were rather unpretentious affairs, but remarkable in that they were not used as a means of exploiting the city's commercial life. Everywhere the streets were crowded with people with nothing more serious to do than visit with friends, flaunt gay-colored badges and flags, listen to the band concerts and "do the midway." The only difference between this and the old time village celebration is in the matter of numbers, and the fact that the people now await the flight of the airship instead of the time-honored balloon ascension. It is as though the old spirit of conservatism and simplicity that the forefathers brought with them from Connecticut were for a time holding in leash the tense, progressive spirit of the West, and in the interim the country is coming to the city, not on a shopping expedition, but in the same spirit of enjoyment that the city goes to the country on a hot afternoon in August. This is one way by which the city may help relieve the monotony of rural life.

ST. LOUIS SCHOOL OF SOCIAL ECONOMY

In its present location, down town, in the old Museum of Fine Arts at Nineteenth and Locust streets, the St. Louis School of Social Economy has commodious quarters within easy reach of the chief social agencies of the city.

One of the new features this year is an exchange by which the school gives a course in social service to officers, leaders and committee members of the Young Women's Christian Association and the association gives the school a normal course in athletics, games and folk dances. Another new feature is a Friday morning class for women with a measure of leisure who are interested in social work. Under the title Preventive Philanthropy and Constructive Social Work, this course deals with such questions as causes and elimination of poverty; equalization of employment and avoidance of rush seasons and irregularity of work; prevention of industrial accidents and sickness, systems of industrial insurance; fortification against intemperance, immorality, shiftlessness; good housing, city planning; the relation of the public school to other institutions, its function in social progress, and the reasons why three-fourths of the children who enter do not complete the grades; industrial and trade instruction, physical examination, medical inspection, school nursing, and increased use of public school property.

In January, the school will offer a night course for social workers unable to attend the day classes.

The department of research is organized with a force of thirteen students, four of whom are second year appointments. The research will be chiefly a continuation of the survey of child life begun last year. During the summer the investigations of standard of living, and of county outdoor relief in Missouri, and the report on the untrained child in industry were completed.

The faculty of the school has been strengthened by the addition of Lucy H. Oppen, a graduate of Smith College, an experienced teacher and for two years connected with the New York Charity Organization Society as assistant district secretary and chief of the investigation bureau. Miss Oppen will supervise the apprentice work of the students, and assist in the teaching. She is in every way well equipped for her new work.

CURFEW LAW IN SPOKANE

Rather more than a year ago the peculiarly shocking case of a little girl ruined through lack of oversight at home that left her free to spend her nights on the street, brought to the attention of the citizens of Spokane the fact that the city streets at night are schools of crime and immorality for children. H. H. Moore, secretary of the boys' division of the Y. M. C. A., found on the statute books an old curfew ordinance long disregarded, providing that children found on the streets after a certain hour should be arrested. He determined to start a movement for its revival in a modernized form and city officials, judges and public-spirited citizens were enlisted both by personal appeals and through the press, which also sought to arouse parental responsibility.

Toward the end of July, 1909, an improved ordinance went into effect, imposing a fine of ten dollars on parents or guardians of children under sixteen found on the streets after 8.30 P. M. in summer or 8 P. M. in winter and all young persons between sixteen and eighteen found after 9.30 in summer or 8.30 in winter.

The daily force of seventy-four policemen in a population of 125,000 is obviously inadequate to enforce such a law and the withdrawal of the police from the parks at ten o'clock at night is an element of weakness in carrying out the ordinance. Nevertheless, the two probation officers who have general charge of the parks and the police report a decrease in child loiterers at night.

The promoters believe that the law has proved its usefulness and that the inadequacy of the police force has been in part made up by a new sense of responsibility in parents, for which the press and those volunteers who have made it their business to conduct children home with a warning are responsible.

As for the effect on morality, neither Juvenile Court nor other statistics are available to show what this Spartan method of teaching the young the path they must tread has accomplished. Until some such measurable results can be shown there will be ground for the claim of critics of the curfew law in other cities, that the furnishings by the community of legitimate amusements and normal social life are a better incentive to morality than repressive measures.

THE RHODE ISLAND STATE CONFERENCE

The second Rhode Island State Conference of Charities and Correction was held October 18-19 at the rooms of the Pawtucket Business Men's Association. Governor Pothier, president of the conference, spoke of the problems confronting the citizens of the state, particularly those of the charitable organizations which affect social welfare, state progress, and the character and health of future generations. The "boy scout" movement, he thought, if properly conducted should become one of the most powerful instruments for good which has appeared for many years.

Hastings H. Hart's paper on Modern Methods of Dealing with Children showed that the child problem is one to be studied intellectually and scientifically; that private home-care for children is an improvement on institutional care.

Jessie M. Hixon was chairman of the session on Families and Neighborhoods. Mrs. John M. Glenn of New York made an address treating of desertion, the home maker as a factory worker, the widowed mother and premature employment. She brought out the necessity of keeping the family together, all laws recognizing that family life must be guarded if we are to have desirable citizens; that the individual is helpless to better conditions, as is the individual society, if we do not have proper laws to make deserting husbands

take care of their families and prevent their children from becoming public charges. The discussion was led by James Minnick of the Providence Society for Organizing Charity; Hastings H. Hart and William H. McKitchen.

The need of teaching social hygiene of sex was discussed under the chairmanship of Rev. Edward Talmadge Root. The speakers were E. L. Keyes, Jr., M. D., of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis; Gardner T. Swarts, M. D., secretary of the State Board of Health; Prof. John L. Alger of the State Normal School; Caesar Misch and Harriet J. Thomas. They showed that instruction should begin in the kindergarten. In the State Normal School lectures are given, which pupils attend with their parents' consent. In this work the teacher should be the inspiration and the model. The inspiration of the teacher is worth more than instruction. The governor is to appoint a committee to carry out the suggestions of the conference.

The Improved Care of the Insane in Rhode Island was the subject of Wednesday evening's session, of which Arthur H. Harrington, M. D., was chairman. Charles P. Bancroft, M. D., of Concord, N. H.; Henry C. Hall, M. D., of Providence, and William Mabon, M. D., of New York made addresses, urging not alone moral support, but vital action in creating public sentiment concerning the commitment of the insane.

The next conference will be in Newport next October. Gov. A. J. Pothier was re-elected president. Harriet E. Thomas of Newport is secretary; Anna F. Hunter of Newport, corresponding secretary, and Matthew J. Cummings of Providence, treasurer.

MUNICIPAL RESEARCH PLAN FOR FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

From a modest beginning a little over four years ago in New York, the Bureau of Municipal Research has grown in size and influence; similar agencies of citizen inquiry have been established in a half dozen other cities and now the idea has spread to the investigation of the departments of the national government.

President Taft, who for many months has been searching for ways to effect economies in the national government and to introduce more systematic and simpler business methods in the departments at Washington has established a bureau of research under Frederick A. Cleveland, a director of the Bureau of Municipal Research in New York and organizer of the one in Philadelphia. Dr. Cleveland is well qualified by experience for the appointment. After service as an instructor at the University of Pennsylvania, he became an accountant and was in charge of the work done by Haskins and Sells on the books of one of the three big life insurance companies in New York at the time of their reorganization. He has also served as a member of ex-Mayor McClellan's advisory commission on finance and taxation and on the committees appointed by Comptrollers Metz and Prendergast for the reorganization of accounts, methods, office organization and work. He is well known as a writer on financial subjects. Four or five other men are to be associated with him in the direction of the work, who will have an adequate force of investigators and clerical assistants. The expenses are to be met from an appropriation of $100,000 granted at the last session of congress. The bureau will make its reports directly to the president. Secretary Norton, who interested the president in the plan, will have an active part in carrying it out.

Besides this central agency of outside investigators, each government department is to have a committee of three. The men selected for this service will suggest new and simpler methods to their respective executive heads who will adopt those that seem practicable.

The special committee will begin work in the Treasury Department and try to devise a better method for making appropriations for the government service. The whole emphasis is to be directed to methods rather than to men or women.

The state is the most important branch of governmental service to which outside expert investigation has not been applied. It is quite likely that in the near future we may expect an announcement telling of work undertaken in this field.

ROCHESTER'S SOCIAL PLANS

The preparatory work done by a special committee of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce preliminary to the formation of a Federated Charities will soon bear fruit. A. E. Drescher, manufacturer and banker; Henry T. Noyes, Jr., manufacturer; Roland B. Woodward, secretary of the Chamber of Commerce; and A. J. Katz, retired capitalist, president of the United Jewish Charities and head of the Jewish Orphan Asylum; who are members of this committee, have just concluded a tour of inspection through Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. Later they may visit other cities. Their purpose was to look into the methods of organized charity work, and to consult leaders in social work as to the general trend of the movement in Rochester.

The Rochester Federated Charities will mean a real federation of the different social organizations, without their amalgamation into one corporation. It is expected that the Federated Charities will also perform the functions usual to an associated charities, as well as serve as a center for unified action in connection with social reform.

The society, after working out a satisfactory arrangement with the old body known as the Society for Organizing Charity, will include registration, investigation and co-operative treatment of individual families, even though it will become the mouthpiece of the associated interests of the city in furthering social and civic progress.

The action of this busy group of men in spending time in examining the work in other cities rather than delegating it to some one representative, is a most encouraging sign of the times. It comes very shortly after the visit of the special committee of the Chicago Association of Commerce to the St. Louis National Conference of Charities in order to obtain light on the best methods in charities endorsement and the broad scope of that field. It should be added that the Rochester Chamber of Commerce was represented at the St. Louis conference by Henry T. Noyes, Jr.

It is expected that the Chamber of Commerce will be relieved of its responsibility within the next month or two and that the society by that time will be in actual operation. Its progress will be watched with considerable interest.

HUGHES

An Appreciation

HOMER FOLKS

Place, Executive Chamber, Albany, N. Y.
Time, Thursday, October 6, 1910.
Exit Charles E. Hughes, governor of the state of New York.

Place, Supreme Court Room, Washington, D. C.
Time, Monday, October 10, 1910.
Enter Charles E. Hughes, associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.

Inclination and obligation alike prompt to an effort to express the significance to social work of the events above chronicled. Inclination because of the enduring satisfaction of having been to a very modest extent a co-worker during the past four years; obligation, because Governor Hughes's activities during these four years have placed all social workers under a lasting debt to him. As its motive cannot be misunderstood, let it be frank.

The governor of the Empire state is one of the most important factors in social work in the state. From the moment of his election he is concerned almost continually with social problems. He has hundreds of appointments to make on the boards of managers of the state charitable and correctional institutions, and on the central boards having supervision or control over them. A large part of the financial problems of the state turn on the development of its humanitarian work. An increasing portion of its legislation deals with social questions. An increasing number of state departments concern themselves directly, and in important ways, with social well-being. Add to this the fact that when the governor of the Empire state speaks, the people of the nation hear; that if he shows a deep interest in social questions, the people become interested. If he expresses optimistic views and participates in ameliorative measures, the people tend to become

optimistic and to participate in social work. In the performance of all these varied tasks no governor of New York has met more completely the possibilities of the office.

Looking back over four years of observation of Governor Hughes's work in these lines, our final impressions of this master social worker are something like these:

1. An unrivalled mental equipment; a piece of thinking machinery working with almost terrifying velocity; a power to analyze and weigh in the balance, which must ever be the envy of any observer.

2. An unexampled industry; hours of work which put to shame any ordinary worker; a cheerful expectation of spending and being spent in the people's service.

3. An absence of prejudice and a habit of taking into consideration all the factors in the situation; not simply a willingness to consider facts thrust upon him, but a constant insistence on having all the facts brought before him.

In first meeting such a personality, one feels a certain sense of insecurity. After working for years under conditions which involved not only getting the facts together, but also assembling various lines of influence, it is a bit disconcerting to find oneself depending solely on the naked merits of the case. On second thought and further experience, however, it is intensely stimulating to feel that the considerations, data, and arguments which you may bring forward, will actually be taken under advisement and will exert their due, proper and rightful weight in the final decision. I regard as one of the greatest services which Governor Hughes has rendered, the fact that his methods have stimulated hundreds of young men, and older men, too, for that matter, to participate in public affairs, by reason of the conviction created within them that it would be worth while; that when the facts had all been gathered and the arguments carefully presented, they would not be thrust into the waste basket, while some unnamed person representing large influence, or large means, or many votes, whispered in secret the word that determined the fate of the measure under consideration.

Governor Hughes's interest in social work grew visibly and continuously during his four-year term. He became one of the foremost advocates and most effective participants in the campaign for the prevention of tuberculosis. One of his very latest public addresses as also one of his best, was addressed to a delegation representing various tuberculosis committees, which called on him only two days before his resignation. A considerable part of his address, which may almost be looked upon, in a sense, as his farewell address, is published elsewhere in this number of THE SURVEY. Governor Hughes became greatly interested also in other lines of preventive work. He foresaw a fruitful movement for the reduction of insanity. He was keenly interested in the work of the Employers' Liability Commission. One of his last official acts was the appointment of a Commission on Congestion of Population. His inspection of the state institutions was not perfunctory. He could spend only some two-thirds of a day at the State Agricultural and Industrial School. "The governor could not have seen much of your institution," I said to the superintendent, later. "Yes, he saw it all," he replied. "When he came he made but one request—that the lunch period be limited to fifteen minutes." His address at the State Fair in September was a fine survey of the state administrative department and its institutions. The selection of site commissions for the New York State Training School for Boys, and the New York State Custodial Asylum, now the Letchworth Village, occurred early in his first year. Each of these institutions bids fair to set new standards in adaptation to purpose. Each has had at all times his keen interest and strong support, even when the condition of the treasury constrained him to withhold desired appropriations for more rapid development. Early in his first year he was called upon to decide whether he would continue an important reform begun under the auspices of his predecessor. In the face of considerable opposition he signed the bill establishing the State Probation Commission, and each subsequent year approved important measures refining and strengthening this growing and hopeful department of our correctional

system. If he did not always find the fittest man for an office, he at least looked for him, and stood ready to appoint him. No executive ever assumed more complete responsibility for his appointments. Has not the method been justified by its results?

Lest it be thought that admiration is based, not on things accomplished but on some sort of hero-worship, perhaps it had best be recorded that probably every social worker in the state felt at times disappointed in some act of the executive. His judgment of men did not always coincide with the general consensus of opinion, though probably it did so more frequently than in the case of any other incumbent of the office. One sometimes felt that he had too little regard for expert opinion, insisting too strongly on forming his own independent judgment of matters as to which his experience must of necessity be very limited; and, finally, one sometimes felt an assumption of an all-round fitness for public service on the part of lawyers as compared with any other class of citizens.

Stimson we do not know, and Dix we do not know; but if we knew both intimately, we would vote for the one who seemed to us most like Hughes.

Is it permissible to look forward as well as backward? May we try to guess from the past something as to methods and principles of the future? If so, it would be to express the belief that, in the upturned faces of hundreds, if not thousands, of audiences in all parts of the state, at the small stations of upstate railways, in the larger cities, and in the densely populated portions of the metropolis, Governor Hughes has read that which he could never have perused in the quiet of the library; that, in his judicial career, he will be sensitive, as he could not have been without these executive experiences, to the fact that law is not an exact science; that its human side should always be taken into account; that it is not comprehended solely in the records of legislative bodies and the decrees of courts, but is written still more largely in the development of the social, economic and political structure of the community.

The tide of democracy rises. The Supreme Court of the United States will be either the dam over which it will one day break in uncontrolled disaster, or it will be the mechanism by which its progress is made uniform and beneficent. I venture the assertion that no other appointment which could have been made would have brought genuine satisfaction to so large a number of American citizens.

THE CHICAGO PLAN

Two striking facts are emphasized in Mr. Wing's article on another page of this issue: first, that it is perfectly possible, and perhaps feasible, to support a municipal campaign against tuberculosis by a direct tax levy; and second, that private experimental initiative will surely result in official action, if carried on scientifically and persistently.

When the city of Chicago, acting largely under the leadership of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, voted at a special election to submit itself to a direct tax for a municipal tuberculosis hospital, a step both unique and significant for the city's welfare was taken. And when the board of directors of the new hospital, even before money was available for its use, with keen foresight interpreted its office as one of greater scope than mere institution builders and managers, and took upon itself the task of establishing a complete system of dispensary and hospital care for its city, another forward stride of the greatest importance to the city was taken. With from a half million to a million dollars yearly at its command, this sanatorium board, standing on the broad policy which it has outlined, should soon demonstrate that the prevention of tuberculosis and the reduction of mortality from it to a practical minimum, are by no means impossible even in a large city.

The selection of Frank E. Wing, under whose leadership as the chief executive of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute the municipal sanatorium became a reality, marks a further advance step in Chicago's campaign. Mr. Wing forms the connecting link between the private society and the municipal body, and assures the continuance of the harmonious

FRANK E. WING,

General superintendent Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium of Chicago.

Mr Wing, who is a native of Maine, was graduated from Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., in 1900. He was an instructor in science and athletics in the high schools at Stamford, Conn., and Milton, Mass., and later head of the Science department of the Allegheny Preparatory School at Pittsburgh. He entered social work in 1903 with the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor of which he was later assistant general agent. He was associate director of the Pittsburgh Survey in 1908. In the fall of that year he became superintendent of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, from which position he retires to enter municipal work. He is secretary of the Illinois State Association for the Prevention of Tuberculosis and of the Illinois State Conference of Charities and Correction. In training, experience and personality he is peculiarly well equipped for the public service on which he is entering.

relations that have been so fruitful in years past.

The Chicago Tuberculosis Institute is not going out of business. For it is left the limitless field of education, experimentation and stimulation of public activity. Its work in these directions will complement that of the municipal workers. Since this body was organized in 1906 it has spent less than $70,000, but it has been the chief factor in securing an expenditure of more than one million dollars for tuberculosis by the city of Chicago and Cook county. There are many parallel cases in public school work. Private initiative and funds demonstrated the value of recreation centers, public baths, playgrounds, and a score of other activities, before the public authorities carried them out in a big way. The State Charities Aid Association furnishes another instance in tuberculosis work in New York state. In three years it has spent about $55,000, and as a direct result of its demonstrations has inspired official appropriations aggregating more than $1,500,000. Private philanthropic organizations of all kinds may well profit by the experience of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute.

The two most efficient methods of securing money to build and maintain a local tuberculosis hospital afford some interesting comparisons in the light of Chicago's experience. Chicago is the only large city in the United States which has voted a special direct tax for establishing a sanatorium for consumptives, although Rock Island, Ill., has taken similar action, and at a recent election Cleveland voted to issue bonds for a $250,000 hospital. In New York and several other states, the Legislatures have enacted laws giving county officials permission to erect and maintain county tuberculosis hospitals without submitting the question to a popular vote. If the number of institutions being established by county boards is any indication, this latter course of procedure seems to be the most productive of results. On the other hand, it is doubtful if, in a large city, such a sum of money as is available in Chicago would have been appropriated without a direct authorization of the people. It is doubtful, too, whether it takes more work and money on the part of private societies to induce a county board to make an appropriation or to persuade an entire electorate to vote "yes" on a sanatorium question. The ideal situation seems to be a combination of both plans, so that a county may act without a referendum vote and a large city may vote to submit itself to a direct tax as in the case of Chicago.

CONVALESCENT PATIENTS AT EDWARD SANATORIUM.

FIRST COMPLETE CITY PLAN FOR CARE OF TUBERCULOSIS

FRANK E. WING

GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT, MUNICIPAL TUBERCULOSIS SANITARIUM OF CHICAGO

In characteristic way, Chicago is busying herself with the details of a comprehensive plan for the ultimate control of tuberculosis. She has laid the foundation along broad lines, and is now grappling with a structural work in some respects unique and destined eventually to find its completion in co-ordinated machinery well equipped for a complete solution of all phases of the tuberculosis problem.

With the county caring for advanced cases, with municipal care and control of other phases of the disease assured, and with several well managed private sanatoriums for the benefit of the financially able, a good beginning has been made toward the realization of the motto: "No tuberculosis patient uncared for; no tubercular infection uncontrolled."

MUNICIPAL SANITARIUM

In March, 1909, Governor Deneen signed an amendment to the Glackin tuberculosis sanitarium[1] law, passed at the preceding session of the Legislature, permitting cities and villages in Illinois, after a referendum to the people, to levy a tax annually not to exceed one mill on the dollar of city valuation, for the purpose of establishing a municipal sanitarium for the free care and treatment of persons suffering from tuberculosis. This question was submitted to the people of Chicago after a vigorous campaign by the Tuberculosis Institute, the Department of Health and the daily newspapers, at the general election of April 6, 1909, and was carried by an overwhelming vote of four to one. On April 12, 1909, Mayor Busse appointed Harlow N. Higinbotham, a prominent citizen well known as president of the World's Fair of 1893; Dr. William A. Evans, Chicago's efficient health commissioner; and Dr. Theodore B. Sachs,

[1]The word is spelled "sanitarium" instead of "sanatorium", wherever the city institution is referred to, as the former is the spelling used in the law creating the institution.

who for fifteen years has done the heavy thinking, backed up by untiring personal service, for the cause of the consumptive in Chicago, as directors of the newly created sanitarium. No appointments could have been more fittingly made.

On January 24, 1910, at the recommendation of these directors, the City Council passed the tax-levying ordinance placing the first tax at one-half a mill. This tax will return to the "tuberculosis sanitarium fund" $431,000 for use during the year 1911. It will become available as soon after January 1 as the 1910 taxes begin to come in.

While their accountability to the people would not legally begin until after the first installment of money was actually in the treasury next January, the directors accepted as their moral obligation the relief of the situation at the first possible date, and during the past summer took steps toward an earlier application of the funds destined to come under their control. Consequently, on September 5, an application was filed with the comptroller requesting him to negotiate a loan by the sale of tax warrants sufficient in amount to finance the work of the sanitarium board for the next six months. These negotiations proving successful, the board of directors met September 10 and adopted a plan putting into operation as of September 1 a system designed eventually to control the entire tuberculosis situation in Chicago. The preliminary steps of this plan are as follows:

(1) In order to get into closer contact with the large army of tuberculosis sufferers in Chicago, the Municipal Sanitarium will establish a dispensary department and take over the existing tuberculosis dispensaries, maintained as a part of the work of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute. These will serve as a nucleus of a city-wide system of tuberculosis clinics, furnishing the most complete means possible of detecting for institutional treatment, tuberculosis in curable stages, as well as of putting into operation sanatorium methods of treating consumptives in their homes. The entire nursing force of the existing Tuberculosis Institute dispensaries, as well as their mechanical facilities, will gradually be increased so as eventually to bring under medical and nursing control every case of tuberculosis in Chicago.

(2) To proceed as rapidly as possible toward the purchase of a site, and then go ahead with the construction of the proposed sanitarium, which under the law must be located within the corporate limits of the city. When completed, the sanitarium will have ample facilities for the treatment of patients in the curable stages of the disease.

(3) To secure the services at once of a general superintendent to act as executive officer of the board of directors in all of its departments.

COMPLETE SYSTEM PLANNED

Such, in brief, is the plan of the Municipal Sanitarium as it will first be put into operation. But the directors will not stop here. They hold a much broader conception of the scope of the "sanitarium fund." They feel that the people of Chicago, in authorizing a tax which if assessed to the maximum will yield nearly a million dollars a year for tuberculosis, will look to them to perfect a system designed really to take care of tuber-

CHICAGO FRESH AIR HOSPITAL.
Showing the main building and the men's "shack."

COOK COUNTY CONSUMPTIVES' HOSPITAL.
Opened only a year ago, it has already had to increase the number of beds for advanced cases.

culosis in Chicago. Consequently they hope eventually to widen the scope of their activities until they include institutional treatment of that large class of doubful middle stage cases at present neglected by most cities, day camps and night camps if desirable, summer camps for tubercularly inclined children, special sanatorium facilities for tuberculous children in all stages of the disease, after-care institutions for discharged sanatorium patients, and possibly special relief so far as it is a part of the treatment of consumptives in their homes. With the gradual development of ample institutional provisions for the hopeful cases, an arrangement may possibly be entered into with the county authorities for the transfer of their hospitals for advanced cases to the Municipal Sanitarium, thus insuring a unified institutional control of all cases in the city. These are some of the possibilities that thus early shape themselves in the minds of the board.

For the present, matters of more immediate importance, such as the readjustment and extension of the dispensary work, purchase of a site, and construction of a sanitarium will be carried forward to an early consummation. Already events have shown that the experience of other localities in securing a site may be repeated here. Thus far the road has not been strewn with roses. After a search of several months, eighty-five acres of land near the north city limits have been found. The tract is admirably adapted for the purpose, the southern third being a gravelly ridge well suited for buildings, the middle third of rich dark soil suited for garden land, and the north third a beautiful forest of large elms and maples offering a splendid opportunity for park and recreational features, as well as affording an admirable break against the harsh winter gales from the North. If nature had made a special effort to provide an ideal spot without changing the entire face of Chicago's topography, she could not have done better. The drainage is good. The place can be reached by a five-cent car fare. It is away from city smoke and dust, and the surrounding property is not yet built up.

At the same time, certain large holders of adjacent property have conceived a violent objection to the settling of this neighbor, and are using all their influence to persuade the finance committee of the City Council that its purchase would be a "neighborhood calamity," on the ground that it will cause property values in the vicinity to deteriorate—an argument common through all the history of sanatorium location. The sanitarium directors and other defenders of the purchase affirm that the same objection would be encountered elsewhere, and that to yield to this demand would prac-

EDWARD SANATORIUM.
The new medical building.

tically restrain the directors from locating at all. They maintain that in the long run the damage is fancied rather than real, and that if surrounding property does permanently depreciate it will be due to the antagonism of these same owners, and its resulting publicity. A detailed answer to all possible arguments against the location of the sanitarium on the selected site is being prepared. This will be submitted by the sanitarium board to the finance committee of the City Council.

Fortunately the finance committee is not disposed to give much weight to the objections, and unless some unforeseen obstacle is placed in the way, it is practically assured that the committee will give its unanimous assent to the purchase when the matter comes up for final action about November 1. In fairness to all, a delay of one month has been granted to give the opponents an opportunity to find an equally desirable site elsewhere, which will not meet with the same objections from the owners of surrounding land. Inasmuch as their search promises little, it seems probable that nothing will restrain the sanitarium board from acquiring this land and building on it. While the number of patients to be accommodated has not yet been determined, 250 seems to be the prevailing estimate.

WELL-EQUIPPED DISPENSARIES

The dispensary system, as taken over and as now operated, consists of eight free tuberculosis dispensaries, a staff of twelve visiting tuberculosis nurses including a superintendent of nurses, and twenty-five attending physicians who have given their services and their experience, many of them, for the entire three years since the dispensary work of the Tuberculosis Institute was organized. These physicians have been asked to continue in the dispensary work without pay until a sound and satisfactory basis of compensation can be agreed upon. The work is already well co-ordinated, with a central office for the superintendent of nurses, a well worked out follow-up system in the handling of cases, and a central filing system of duplicate records serving as a clearing house for all dispensary cases. Thus far the dispensary department has confined itself strictly to the medical and nursing side of the problem, referring all cases for general or special relief to the United Charities, the Jewish Aid Society, the county, or other relief agency. It has also handled only the ambulatory cases, working under an agreement with the Visiting Nurse Association to transfer all bed cases to that organization. With the larger financial means at its disposal, it is probable that the nursing care of all cases will event-

ually be undertaken, and that some method of special relief where the line can be definitely drawn as a necessary part of the treatment of the patient, will be inaugurated, thus relieving the charity organizations of much of their present burden, which in the case of the United Charities has amounted to fully $20,000 during the past year.

Something of the volume of work done by the existing dispensary department may be seen from the following brief analysis of work for the past year: (September 1, 1909 to August 31, 1910).

Total number of new patients examined	4,062
Total visits by patients to dispensaries	20,139
Total visits by nurses into the homes.	18,580

COOK COUNTY HOSPITAL

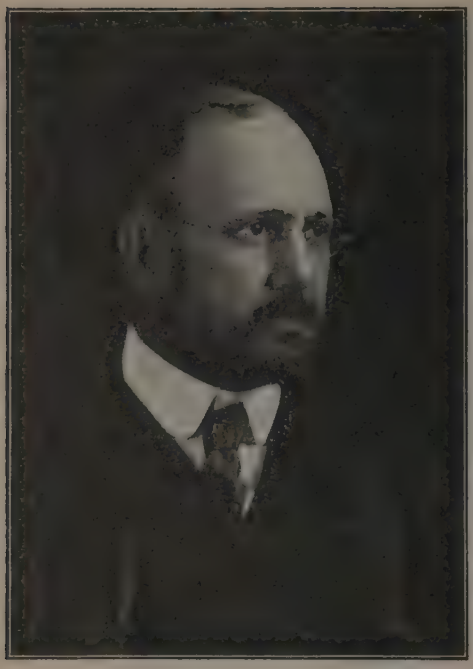
In the meantime, to turn to other public hospital facilities, Cook county has considerably increased its provision for advanced cases. A year ago the new Cook County Consumptives' Hospital was opened on the county hospital grounds, with accommodations for 325 patients. This was quickly filled by the transfer of 200 of the 350 patients in the consumptives' department of the Dunning Institution, and by the admission of other new patients from the city. It has been operating at its full capacity ever since.

The building is in the form of the letter E, with the front or main portion corresponding to the main part of the letter, five stories high and the wings four stories. It is equipped with open-air reclining gardens and enclosed sun parlors on the roof, devoted entirely to purposes of rest and recreation, with "quiet rooms" for terminal cases on each floor, with examining room, kitchen and disinfecting room in the basement, chapel on the first floor, and a dining room on each floor large enough to provide for fifty per cent of the patients. Patients who are too ill to go to the dining room are served in the wards. The wards are light and airy, with large windows and transoms over them. There are a laboratory, nurses' and doctors' rooms and every other modern improvement. Each ward of twenty-four beds has two subdivisions of twelve beds each separated by a bathroom with movable tub, toilet room and linen closet. Paper napkins and large paper bag receptacles are used instead of the traditional sputum box, and the common drinking cup has been superseded by a drinking glass for each patient. Food is sufficient in quantity, two quarts of milk a day, with plenty of bread, butter, eggs, meat and potatoes being allowed each patient. The building is of paving brick with mosaic and plasticine floors and terra-cotta trimmings. The contract price was $224,300.

COOK COUNTY INFIRMARY

With the opening of the new Cook County Infirmary at Oak Forest, further

THE CHICAGO-WINFIELD SANATORIUM.
This is under the management of the Associated Jewish Charities.



WILLIAM A. EVANS, M. D.,
Commissioner of health; one of the directors of the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium.

facilities for the special care of the consumptive population of this branch of the county poor service will be provided in the form of a separate tuberculosis hospital. It will be a two-story building accommodating 175 patients; provided with sun parlors and roof garden, and two open air sleeping shacks, each for ten patients in early stages of the disease. This division is based on the proportion of early to advanced cases now in the Dunning Institution, all of whom will be transferred to Oak Forest on the opening of the new buildings early next summer.

THE EDWARD SANATORIUM

The private institutions are numerous and cover a wide range in the kinds of patients admitted. During the past year and a half there has been a marked increase in the bed capacity of the Edward Sanatorium, a department of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute located at Naperville, about thirty miles west of Chicago, of which Dr. Theodore B. Sachs is the medical director. This institution accommodates sixty curable patients and its facilities are to be extended in the near future. The capacity was recently enlarged through the gift of a new medical building by Mrs. Keith Spalding, the original donor of the sanatorium; by the gift of a model six-patient cottage shack by the Sears-Roebuck Company, and by the construction of two day shacks. The farm equipment has been increased by the addition of a poultry house and other improvements. The medical building, which cost $24,000, is fully equipped with all modern facilities for a strictly medical institution, including examining room, drug room, laboratory, nose and throat room and isolation rooms. It also contains an infirmary with connecting porches for twelve bed patients.

Last June a resident physician, who is also a trained laboratory worker, was added to the staff, which includes a superintendent and two other resident nurses, and two visiting laryngologists besides a medical director. The Edward Sanatorium is first and last for the treatment of the wage-earning class who can not only be apparently cured, but whose working capacity can be restored. It is intended as a model for other institutions in this climate, and the success with which it has demonstrated the efficacy of treatment in the home climate, affords ample assurance to the Board of Directors of the Municipal Sanitarium that it is fully justified in looking for gratifying results for the large public enterprise which has been entrusted to it. The medical statistics of this institution were freely quoted in the recent campaign to secure the Municipal Sanitarium.

THE WINFIELD SANATORIUM

The success of the Edward Sanatorium prompted the establishment of the Chicago-Winfield Sanatorium at Winfield, about eight miles from Naperville, which opened its doors to the public in the spring of 1909. This institution, as started by the Baron Hirsch Woman's Club, the Jewish Consumptives' Relief Society, and the Willing Workers on a farm bought and donated for the purpose by Charles A. Stonehill, con-

sisted of an administration building and three shacks, one of them for children. Recently a new shack was added to the equipment, the gift of Mrs. Emanuel Mandel. The sanatorium is now under the management of the Associated Jewish Charities of Chicago. Its capacity is sixty-five patients with an average attendance of about fifty-eight. No report has thus far been published, but the results are as favorable as in other sanatoriums in home climates.

CHICAGO FRESH AIR HOSPITAL

While the above institutions admit only patients in curable stages, Chicago has for a long time felt the need of a place where pay patients may be treated irrespective of the stage of the disease, especially during the past five or six years since St. Ann's and other hospitals have closed their doors absolutely to all but surgical cases of tuberculosis. Consequently the opening of the Chicago Fresh Air Hospital last July on the extreme north end of the city, for patients in any stage was hailed with a large measure of relief. This institution consists of an administration building with office, dining room, nurses' quarters, a large ward and screened porches for advanced cases, and two large open-air shacks of modern type each accommodating nine patients. It filled rapidly after its opening and is running at nearly its full capacity of thirty patents. The policy as announced by its medical director, Dr. Ethan A. Gray, is to make this institution a strong educational factor in the control of the disease. Patients who cannot afford a prolonged residence in the hospital are encouraged to enter for a term of one to three months, after which they may go back to their homes and continue under careful medical direction the mode of life learned at "Fresh Air." While this may not be ideal and is discouraged for those who can afford a longer treatment in the hospital, the management feels that it is doing a lasting service to the community by affording an opportunity to get a start to many who otherwise would never have one.

HARLOW N. HIGINBOTHAM.
Well known as president of the World's Fair of 1903; president of the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium.

THEODORE B. SACHS, M. D.
Head of the sanatorium department of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute. Secretary of the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitorium.

THE HOME FOR INCURABLES

PATIENTS' SLEEPING SHACK
at the Edward Sanatorium.

The Chicago Home for Incurables has for many years claimed the distinction of being the only place in Chicago outside the County Hospital where consumptives in the hopeless stage of the disease could be cared for. It has a consumptives' department accommodating sixty patients, and is just what its name implies, a "home" for those who by reason of their affliction are unable longer to cope with life's burdens. So far as its capacity will allow, consumptives are received here without any consideration as to their ability to pay, the preference, if any, being given to those who cannot pay. Its beautiful buildings and grounds and its heavy endowment are an everlasting tribute to the generosity of their donors, and to Harlow N. Higinbotham who for the past thirty years has personally investigated and admitted every patient who has entered the institution. Two years ago a tablet was erected at the entrance, which more fitly than I can describe depicts the spirit which pervades its walls. It reads:

This tablet is placed in loving memory of those good and faithful women and men who gave unselfishly of themselves and generously of their means, for the establishment of this Home. Their names are not recorded here—beyond in the infinite, they are written on pages more glorious and far more enduring.

This tablet is the gift and tribute of one who knew them well and loved them fondly.

May patience, and peace and plenty, ever abide within its walls. May those who suffer and those who serve, those who sing, and those who pray, as well as those who, unable to do more than stand by and cheer, be equally blessed.

May this great city, and all the agencies here employed to heal the sick, alleviate suffering, and advance the interest of the community, be prosperous always.

A STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF INSTITUTIONAL FACILITIES FOR THE CARE OF CONSUMPTIVES IN CHICAGO, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO STAGE.

Institution	Stage	Beds	Total	No. of patients cared for in past year
Cook County Consumptives' Hospital	Advanced	325		2,091
Dunning—Consumptives' Department	Mod. Advanced	150		1,382
Home for Incurables	Advanced	60		Approx. 150
Edward Sanatorium	Curable	60		130
Winfield Sanatorium	Curable	65		194
Chicago Fresh Air Hospital	All stages	30		3½ mos. 38
Total existing bed capacity			690	3,985
PROPOSED ADDITIONAL FACILITIES				
Cook County Infirmary (Oak Forest)	Advanced	175		
	Early	20		
Municipal Sanitarium	Curable	250		
Total proposed bed capacity			445	
Total			1,135	
Beds discontinued at Dunning, on Transfer to Oak Forest			150	
Total existing and proposed			985	

A NEW AID TO JUSTICE[1]

THE COMMITTEE ON CRIMINAL COURTS

LAWRENCE VEILLER

ALFRED R. PAGE.

A distinguished group of New Yorkers interested in social problems has recently come together with the definite purpose of aiding the administration of justice in the lower criminal courts—those branches of government which stand to the large mass of our immigrant population, not merely as the outward manifestation of justice in America, but in very truth as American institutions themselves.

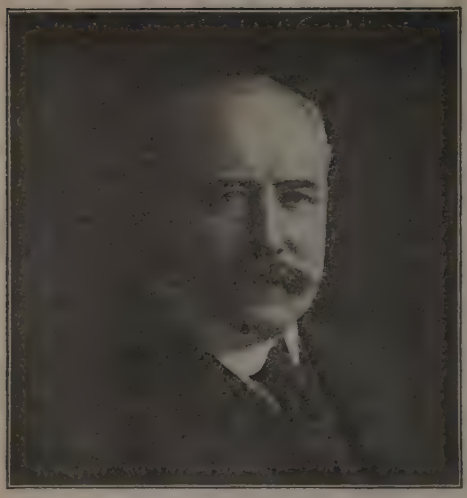
Three years ago the writer, acting on behalf of the Charity Organization Society, caused to be introduced in the Legislature a bill calling for the appointment of a legislative commission to make a thorough inquiry into the administration of justice in these courts in the cities of New York and Buffalo. The Page Commission was thus created. Through two years that body made the most thorough study of the criminal courts that has ever been made in America, and during the present year secured the passage of a new inferior court act calculated to work a veritable revolution in the conduct of these tribunals.

To the Charity Organization Society it seemed that the opportunity for helpful service had not ceased with the passage of this legislation, but that great opportunities for useful aid presented themselves in securing continuity of effort and in bringing the force of public sentiment to bear in support of these and similar measures.

Accordingly, last July, by the action of its president, Robert W. deForest, and on the invitation of Otto T. Bannard, its vice-president, the Committee on Criminal Courts came into being. Three members of the Page Commission are among its members. Bronson Winthrop, the member of that commission appointed by Governor Hughes is the chairman of the new committee. Senator Alfred R. Page, the chairman of the legislative commission bearing his name, and now a Supreme Court judge, is another member, and Julius M. Mayer, counsel to the Page Commission, former attorney general of the state and a former judge of the Court of Special Sessions is a third. Two former judges of the state's highest courts, leaders of the bar, Alton B. Parker, former judge of the Court of Appeals, and Morgan J. O'Brien, formerly

JULIUS M. MAYER.

[1] Photographs of the chairman, the secretary and Mr. Schurman could not be obtained up to the time of going to press.



ALTON B. PARKER.

Supreme Court justice, add great strength to the committee. Two former assistant district attorneys on Mr. Jerome's staff, Nathan A. Smyth and George W. Schurman, bring intimate practical knowledge of the workings of these courts to the committee's service. The bar as well as the bench is strongly represented. Of the seventeen members of the committee, fourteen are lawyers. In addition to those mentioned are men like Philip J. McCook, who has given devoted service for years to the cause of the poor, both with the Legal Aid Society and the Charity Organization Society; Ralph K. Jacobs of Brooklyn, who has specialized on domestic relations problems; Ezra P. Prentice, deputy attorney general of the state and for many years a leader in the state Assembly; Frederick Trevor Hill, a close student of legal problems, and Frank L. Polk, former civil service commissioner.

The social workers of the committee are Robert W. deForest, the Charity Organization Society's president; Otto T. Bannard, its vice-president; John M. Glenn, director of the Russell Sage Foundation; Homer Folks, president of the State Probation Commission, and the writer who as secretary of the committee will have the direction of its work. Bailey B. Burritt, who has done such effective work in the study of the inebriety problem, has been appointed executive secretary and Joseph T. Williams, assistant secretary.

It will be seen that the committee to an unusual degree brings to its tasks a wide knowledge and grasp of public affairs. Of its seventeen members, fourteen either now or in the past have held public office. Made up, as it is, of democrats and republicans, of Catholic, Protestant and Jew, it is peculiarly well constituted for the tasks that confront it and it will command public confidence to a high degree.

The keynote of the committee's work is sympathetic co-operation with the magistrates, with the public, with social workers, with court clerks and city officials and with the Legislature. Its opportunities will lie in the defense of the law, protesting against amendments that weaken it, strengthening it where it shows defects, securing for its enforcement the support of the city administration, and aiding in securing sufficient appropriations. It will bring to the aid of the magistrates the force of public sentiment in behalf of the reforms contemplated, and should make possible effective aid in the further study of the many difficult questions involved.

The direction and scope of the committee's work may be realized when it is known that the committee has already organized the following ten sub-committees: on general administration, domestic relations courts, night courts, pro-

MORGAN J. O'BRIEN.

FRANK L. POLK.

PHILIP J. McCOOK.

FREDERICK TREVOR HILL.

HOMER FOLKS.

ROBERT W. DEFOREST.

bation, law and legislation, buildings, children's courts, Court of Special Sessions, record system and court records, magistrates' courts and institutions.

The committee has already placed its services at the disposal of the new chief magistrates, Judges William McAdoo, Otto Kempner and Chief Justice Isaac F. Russell of the Court of Special Sessions, who view with gratification the creation of this committee and its aid in their work.

One of the things which the committee hopes to do is to aid in seeing that a fair trial is had of the provision of the new

OTTO T. BANNARD.

law which calls for the medical examination and treatment of convicted prostitutes (the famous section 79 of the inferior courts act which has been so much discussed in THE SURVEY. Before so important a statute is changed, its workings must be carefully studied, and the results obtained under it set before the public. This the committee will seek to do. It hopes to bring into close co-operation those various groups of earnest people who are now so much disturbed by this phase of the question. The committee has already made a special study of a record system for use in the magistrates'

JOHN M. GLENN.

courts, which is now being put into operation by Chief Magistrate McAdoo and Chief Clerk Philip Bloch. In place of the old hit or miss method by which the magistrate had to trust to his memory for the previous criminal history of an offender, because there was no system of identification or indexed records, there will soon be a centralized system of card records from which at a glance the complete criminal history of every offender will be evident.

So many of the evils of the criminal courts are inherent in the physical condition of the court buildings that a great opportunity awaits the committee in helping to develop a new type of model court house, and aiding in securing the erection of such buildings from time to time in

different parts of the city, replacing the present sadly defective structures.

As the committee's work develops it will seek to make the great mass of our foreign population aware of the new order of things, to make plain to them that special privilege, intimidation and insult in these tribunals are no more, but in their place justice and fair dealing.

NATHAN A. SMYTH.

EZRA P. PRENTICE.

BAILEY B. BURRITT.

RALPH K. JACOBS.

JOTTINGS

School Tuberculosis Exhibits.—Massachusetts is the first state officially to undertake a special exhibition campaign against tuberculosis in its public schools. Under a law passed last winter with an appropriation of $1,000, the State Commission on Hospitals for Consumptives has prepared a series of light exhibits which will be placed in the schools of every large city and town of the state.

The exhibits, prepared under the direction of Dr. John B. Hawes, Jr., secretary of the commission, are models of compactness, economy, and efficiency in demonstrating tuberculosis. They are composed of two large panels each five feet two inches long and four feet four inches broad strongly hinged together. Each contains twenty-four frames eight inches by ten with photographs and mottoes. The exhibit costs about thirty dollars, and it can be handled easily by two men. Owing to the limited appropriation it is planned to sell these exhibits where possible to boards of education or private bodies, and where this cannot be done to loan them for six months or more. A pamphlet suggesting how to demonstrate the exhibit has been prepared. It will be sent to every teacher in the state.

In 1908, the Legislature of Massachusetts passed a law requiring "that tuberculosis and its prevention shall be taught in all grades of the public schools of this state in which instruction is given in the subject of physiology and hygiene." Except in Salem, Fall River and a few other places, no attention has been paid to this law. It has become evident to those interested in this kind of instruction that unless something is done to help the teacher, already overworked and underpaid, little will be accomplished. It is hoped, therefore, that by means of the exhibits special interest will be given to the study of tuberculosis.

National Municipal League.—The program of the National Municipal League, which is to meet at Buffalo November 14-17, will cover the address of the secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, on The New Municipal Idea; discussion of the franchise question led by Robert Treat Paine; School Extension, by Edward J. Ward; City Finances, by Harvey S. Chase; Corruption in Municipalities, by William C. Osborn; the liquor question, by Prof. A. R. Hatton, the police, taxation and many other city problems. It is a broad and interesting program.

The league has recently announced that the William H. Baldwin prize for 1910-11 will be on The Administration of the Police Department in Some City in the United States with a Population of Over 200,000. The contest, which is limited to undergraduate college students, closes March 15. Full information may be obtained of the secretary of the league, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Building, Philadelphia, or of the chairman of the committee in charge, Prof. William B. Munro of Harvard.

A Preventorium in the West.—The first camp or sanatorium for pre-tuberculous and anaemic children west of the Mississippi river, and one of the few in the country, has been opened at White Bear lake, about thirteen miles from St. Paul, Minn., under the management of the St. Paul Anti-Tuberculosis Committee. It was erected by Paulina Shapiro of St. Paul in memory of her daughter, and is called the Eva Shapiro Memorial Camp.

The object is to take out of their ordinary environment children whose resistance to disease has been weakened by insufficient nourishment, overwork, disease, or other causes. It might more properly be called a "preventorium," like its predecessor near Lakewood, N. J. Similar experiments have been tried in Brookline, Mass., Norfolk, New York, and other places with marked results. Usually a few months in such an institution will prevent a fatal attack of tuberculosis or some other disease.

The St. Paul institution consists of a two-story frame house, well equipped with playrooms, wards, etc., and accommodates ten boys and ten girls who are admitted through the dispensary of St. Paul.

Conference of Probation Officers.—The Third Anual State Conference of Probation Officers, under the auspices of the New York State Probation Commission, will be held in Rochester on November 15-16, just preceding the State Conference of Charities and Correction which convenes on November 15. The principal subjects will be Preliminary Investigation of Cases, Improvement of Home Conditions, Employment of Adult Probationers, and Treatment of Violations of Probationary Conditions. Homer Folks, president of the State Probation Commission, will preside, and discussion will be led by Probation Officers Frederick W. Pfeiffer of Buffalo, Richard A. Wallace of Auburn, William A. Killip of Rochester, Edwin J. Cooley of Erie, Minnie S. Fisher of Syracuse, Anne V. Roome of New York. No papers will be read, but the time will be devoted to informal discussion, divided equally between juvenile and adult probation work.

Children's Conference at Cleveland.—The first Western Reserve Conference on the Care of Neglected and Dependent Children, will be held in the Engineers' Building, Cleveland, November 17-19. Representatives from every institution in Cleveland are expected, as well as many speakers of national reputation in the field of work for children, among them Hastings H. Hart, Edwin D. Solenberger, Brother Barnabas, Martha B. Falconer and James A. Leonard. An exhibit will be given throughout the conference and the meetings for the three days will be devoted to institutions, boarding-out, adoption, and cooperation between child-caring agencies. The committee in charge hopes that a permanent children's bureau will be the outgrowth of the conference.

THE COMMON WELFARE

NEW YORK BUDGET INCREASED $11,000,000

The Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York has passed the budget for 1911 and the annual campaign is practically over. The aldermen, subject to the veto of the mayor, can reduce the budget but they cannot increase appropriations and probably no change will be made.

The effort to keep the expenditures down to the total for last year was not successful. It was bound to fail unless the administration disregarded the growing needs of the departments. The increases in fixed charges for the debt service and for mandatory raises of salaries, together with the necessity of providing a larger appropriation for the deficiency of taxes, made it impossible to keep within the figures for last year. The increase is about $11,000,000 whereas the budget last year exceeded that for 1909 by but $6,585,000. The total for 1911 is a little over $174,000,000.

This increase is almost entirely accounted for by two items. The debt service—interest on the city debt, instalments to reduce it, and amounts payable for 1911 exceeds $50,000,000, which is over $4,000,000 more than last year. For the deficiency of taxes $10,000,000 is set aside as against $4,000,000 for 1910, largely because of the cancellation of franchise taxes by the courts. Aside from these, the net increases total much less than a million dollars. While the budget campaign was on two pertinent issues were raised. At a meeting held at the Labor Temple to urge liberal sums for the Departments of Health, Charities, Parks and Education, the necessary corollary, that is the need for new sources of revenue, was recognized and discussed by Frederic C. Howe of Cleveland. He suggested that the city appropriate through its taxing power the annual increase in land values. Though something in this direction may be properly attempted, as has been partially done in England, other methods for raising money to meet the advancing cost of municipal administration must be found.

Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the Congestion Committee, also pointed out that the real budget consists not only of the amount determined by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in October, but also of the special revenue bonds issued during the year. The use of special revenue bonds is a question that needs more attention. Last October the administration reduced the appropriation requested by the Department of Public Charities. This year $240,000 has already been issued for the department in special revenue bonds. Every year the city sells bonds for this department. The issue of special revenue bonds cannot be entirely avoided, but such repetitions as this are hardly excusable. Unforeseen needs will always arise, but it was shown that purely nominal sums are voted in the budget for snow removal. The cost for this service may vary over $1,000,000 from year to year. It is possible, however, to fix a figure below which it is unlikely the cost would fall and special revenue bonds would have to be issued only to meet the excess over this sum. New York also loses much by collecting its taxes nearly a year after it has spent the money so that the city must borrow to meet current bills. To correct this would take ten or twelve years but it would be a decidedly wise policy.

Although the various departments collectively have received about what they were granted last year, a number have had their budgets reduced. In this class are included the borough presidents, the Departments of Finance, Docks, Street Cleaning, Bridges, Board of City Record, Board of Elections, Charitable Institutions and a number of other branches of the city service. Some of these departments have been notoriously mismanaged, so that economies were to be expected.

FEW INCREASES FOR CITY SOCIAL SERVICE

The Department of Health, which asked for an increase of $1,300,000, received but $75,000. This permits scarcely any additional development of the work. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment, although there has been but little public criticism and much appreciation of the efforts of Dr. Lederle and Dr. Bensel, has voted to make an investigation of the methods employed in the department. Only minor increases were allowed, which means the postponement of plans for increased service in the Bureau of Child Hygiene, and the divisions of contagious diseases, of hospitals, and of milk inspection.

The Department of Education received but $175,000 net more than last year though the gross increase exceeds $800,000, instead of a requested increase of $7,309,000. The evening schools, vacation schools, recreation centers, baths and playgrounds are again to be kept down to the sum spent in 1909. As in the case of the Departments of Health and Charities, the work of the Board of Education is to be investigated. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment for some years has felt that school affairs could perhaps be better administered. The Department of Public Charities was at first allowed an increase of but $155,000. This was much smaller than was needed as all who knew the wants of the department, including two ex-commissioners, agreed. Friends of the department made an earnest appeal at the public hearings for more funds so that the hospital helper service might be improved by increasing the absurdly low salaries now paid. In the final budget, in spite of the previous criticisms, a further increase of $260,000 was allowed, which is still less than is needed, but is a great gain over the first allowance.

The Park Department for Manhattan and Richmond asked for $78,425 for playgrounds. The tentative budget allowed only $35,000. The Parks and Playgrounds' Association made a vigorous but unsuccessful campaign to have this increased to at least $55,000.

The Tenement House Department has received $12,690 less than last year. For years the realty owners have fought the appropriations for this department, so that the commissioner has never had sufficient funds. Sometimes in previous years, when every other department has received an increase, the Tenement House Department has been singled out for cuts. The commissioner has therefore never been able to make the monthly inspections of tenement houses required by the law and this department could less afford a cut than almost any other.

The final budget made an increase of $20,550 over the tentative one for the magistrates' courts in Manhattan, which will enable Chief Justice McAdoo to install a much needed alphabetical file of those arraigned.

Altogether, though the social service departments, excepting the Tenement House Department, were perhaps fortunate not to suffer cuts, the needs of the city in the way of health, recreation, and education have not been adequately met. The departments will be able to carry on their present work but almost all improvements and additional services must be postponed.

USE SCHOOLS AS POLLING PLACES

The New York budget for 1911 provides $1,056,750 for the Board of Elections. That is, it will cost over a million dollars for the citizens to enjoy the privilege of expressing their choice between candidates for certain offices. Question has been raised as to whether this right can be exercised more economically. New York expects to pay about $125,000 in rent for polling places. Is all of it necessary?

Polling places are required for election day, four registration days, and for one or two primaries, according to the year. The present method is to rent quarters in each election district for the six or seven days required. The places used cost from five to thirty dollars a day. The amounts paid are smallest for the registration days and highest for accommodations in Manhattan on election day.

The city has buildings of its own scattered throughout the city. There are nearly six hundred schools, about fifty libraries, besides municipal structures in small parks, police station houses, district courts, armories, and the local offices of various municipal departments. There is perhaps considerable objection to using police station houses for polling places. But the suggestion of Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement, which already has the approval of some of the school and city officials, that the municipality use its own buildings, so far as possible, for election purposes, deserves consideration. The present administration with its expressed ambition to effect economies will probably weigh the plan most carefully.

The use of the public buildings on election day, which is a holiday, would cause little inconvenience. On no one of the other days, some of which come on Saturdays, are there so many of the electorate using the polling places. In most cases it would not be difficult to make the necessary arrangements. There are not 2,000 municipal buildings, which will be the number of election districts next year, and undoubtedly some places must be rented, though not as many as a comparison between the number of public buildings and election districts would seem to indicate. The law allows two polling places in certain instances in the same building. It has been suggested also that churches be requested to give the use of their vestry rooms and probably some of the settlements would furnish quarters.

The scheme will require much work on the details and it is impossible to tell just how much saving can be effected. An advantage as important is that it would provide more dignified places for the exercise of the ballot and furnish in this respect a valuable example to other communities.

LYNN TRIES THE COMMISSION PLAN

Lynn, Mass, an industrial city of almost 90,000 population, with a background of strong New England traditions, has adopted one of the most extreme forms of commission government. At a special election on October 11, three alternatives were offered the voters: to continue the present charter with a mayor and two legislative chambers, to adopt a new charter with a mayor and a single chamber; and to change completely to a new charter by which all authority is centered in a commission of five members elected by popular vote and subject to recall on petition of 500 voters.

The last form was adopted by a decisive vote. The new charter will abolish all ward lines for election purposes, provide for the initiative and referendum and for a public meeting at which all official records and city contracts shall be open to inspection, and fasten direct responsibility on the five commissioners for the five departments of city government.

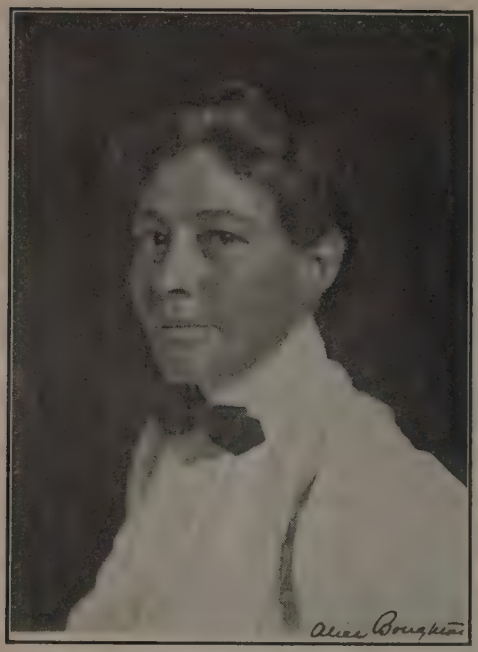
The change in Lynn did not come as a revolt from corruption in municipal affairs, but from a widespread belief that a more efficient system could be found. Discussion during the campaign was clean and instructive and popular interest was keen. The Men's Federation, which initiated the movement, quickly gained the support of influential merchants and manufacturers and of the trade unions.

Lynn, it may be hoped, will continue its interest in the new government, and will so express it as to hold up the hands of the commissioners when they come into control. The commission form of government, like all other devices for running a city, demands unflagging watchfulness and co-operation on the part of the electorate.

NEW YORK STATE TO PROTECT ALIENS

On October 1 the law establishing a Bureau of Industries and Immigration in the New York Department of Labor went into effect, Frances A. Kellor being appointed chief investigator. The bureau is the result of the recommendations of Governor Hughes's Immigration Commission, which handed in its report in April, 1909, and will continue much of the work carried on after the disbandment of the commission by the North American Civic League for Immigrants, of which Miss Kellor was secretary.

The Bureau of Industries and Immi-



FRANCES A KELLOR.
Chief Inspector New York Bureau of Industries and Immigration.

gration is founded on the conviction of the immigration commission that from the standpoint of humanity we have hitherto shown a complete indifference to the welfare of the immigrant, and from the standpoint of the state "there has been no consistent effort to utilize the tremendous accumulation of energy possessed by the army of industrious workers who bring with them an aggregate of moral, intellectual and artistic forces which, if properly directed, would advance our national ideals."

To remedy this neglect the bureau proposes to inquire into the condition of all aliens arriving in New York, to search out the demand for labor in all parts of the United States, to investigate all applications for laborers, to exercise a supervision over all employment agencies, and ultimately, by acquiring a thorough knowledge of labor conditions, to take a step toward preventing congestion and obviating unemployment. For the protection of the immigrant worker the bureau has power to inspect all contract labor camps within the state—a work already begun by Miss Kellor.[1] It will also act as an investigating agency of all philanthropic institutions now brought to bear on the immigrant and as a clearing-house for those whose activities are found to be legitimate. It will protect the immigrant at the place of landing, and will exercise control over the banker, the ticket agent, the *padrone*, and all those agencies of fraud, vice and extortion which have hitherto pitilessly exploited the alien, and, finally, it will co-operate with the education authorities in enforcing the compulsory education law and in providing instruction in English and citizenship for adult aliens.

Miss Kellor is exceptionally well equipped for this work. Besides her position in the North American Civic League for Immigrants and as secretary of Governor Hughes's Immigration Commission she served on Governor Higgins's Probation Commission, and as secretary of the Research Committee of the Committee of Fourteen on the Social Evil she supervised the investigation and prepared the report on Law Enforcement in New York. As fellow of the College Settlements Association in 1905 she made a study of employment agencies[2] in New York, Philadelphia, Boston and Chicago, which revealed a system of extortion and a connection between employment agencies and prostitution which led to the present law regulating such agencies in cities of the first class in New York state. Miss Kellor was a student in the New York School of Philanthropy, a graduate of the Cornell Law School and a graduate student in the University of Chicago. She organized the Intermunicipal Research Committee and the National League for the Protection of Colored Women.

ONE SECTION OF THE INFERIOR COURTS LAW

MAUDE E. MINER
Secretary New York Probation Association

The inferior courts law has not been in operation a sufficient length of time for us to judge whether specific sections

[1] See THE SURVEY for January 29, 1910.

[2] Out of Work. By Frances A. Kellor. 1904. New York. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1'p. 292. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.37.

are entirely good or entirely bad, or whether they have an element of good in them, even though we believe that the law as a whole will result in improvement in the court system. The section of the law most in question is clause 79, about which so much discussion has arisen. It is for us to observe with unprejudiced minds how it is administered, how it operates, and what better provision can be made. We must believe that magistrates and all other public officials who are charged with the execution of this law, are anxious to execute it in the wisest, best and most humane way.

THE TRIAL AND THE EXAMINATION

The prisoner, when arraigned, stands before the magistrate, not separated, as formerly, by the high bridge. She is advised of her legal rights and may have the case adjourned or have an immediate hearing. If the hearing is postponed, the defendant may be admitted to bail; if convicted, she is remanded for sentence. Were the adjourning of these cases to become a regular practice, a real danger might arise from the reappearing of the professional bondsman; but if girls realize that an adjournment means merely a delay in sentence, which is true if there is adequate evidence, they will be unwilling to ask for it.

Women remanded for sentence are examined by a woman physician of the Department of Health and remain twenty-four or forty-eight hours, during which time microscopic tests are made to determine the presence or absence of disease. The result of this examination is presented to the magistrate at the time of sentence.

From September 1 to October 15, ninety-three women convicted at the Night Court for Women of offenses relating to prostitution were examined by the physician. The disposition of their cases was as follows:

Committed to workhouse hospital	37
Committed to Bellevue Hospital	1
Committed to the workhouse	37
Fined	15
Committed to New York Magdalen Benevolent Society	1
Placed on probation	1
Discharged	1

THE PLACE OF COMMITMENT

Section 79 provides that if after examination by a physician "it thereby appears that the prisoner is afflicted with any venereal disease which is contagious, infectious or communicable, the magistrate shall commit her to a public hospital having a ward or wards for the treatment of the disease with which she is afflicted . . ."

Since the first commitment to Bellevue Hospital, women found to be suffering from venereal disease have been committed by the magistrates to the workhouse hospital on Blackwell's Island. No commitments have been made to the City Hospital or the Metropolitan Hospital, which have wards for the treatment for venereal disease. There are two hospital wards in the workhouse, one medical and the other surgical, having eighteen beds each, for the treatment of those women who become ill during their period of sentence. The women committed under section 79 are not in the hospital wards, but in cells near them. There are four and five in a single cell, and in one cell I counted six women. The women are locked in their cells during the day, except when they go for their meals, to help with the scrubbing of floors and cells, or for consultation with the physician. With five or six women in a cell, lying on cots without mattresses, or standing about talking, having little or no useful occupation, it is impossible for any one of them to be benefited. When I visited the workhouse October 24, girls and women with whom I spoke complained, among other things, of the lack of sanitary arrangements in the cells and said that they received little medical care.

The two physicians assigned to the workhouse are internes who come for a period of two or at the most three months. This means that those treating the women will be a constantly changing group.

The commissioner of correction has himself said that the workhouse has not adequate facilities for caring for these

women, as it has no ward for the treatment of venereal disease. We would further say that the workhouse is not a suitable place for these girls and women, because there is absolutely no reformative influence there; and that it seems to the layman's mind illegal to commit women to the workhouse under section 79, because it is not a public hospital having a ward or wards for the treatment of venereal disease.

THE TERM OF COMMITMENT

The law states that a magistrate shall commit women "for a minimum period fixed by him in the commitment and for a maximum period of not more than one year." Further provisions are that if the prisoner is cured after the minimum period and before the maximum period, she shall be discharged upon the order of the officer in charge of the institution, when the physician of the institution or the Department of Health certifies that she is cured. If cured before the minimum period expires, she shall be transferred to the workhouse and discharged at the close of that period.

Contrary to what seemed to be both the spirit and the letter of the law, sentences are being imposed for a maximum period of less than one year, as well as a minimum period, and read: "Not less than two months, not more than three months." "Not less than four months, not more than six months," "Not less then six weeks, nor more than two two months."

This means that a girl committed for a minimum period of two months and a maximum of three months may leave the institution at the close of the three-month period, whether or not she is cured of the disease. We know that women will not be morally cured in a period of three months in the workhouse and we cannot expect physical cure in that time, except in rare instances. Consequently, the woman who is not morally helped and who is not physically cured may return in her diseased condition to a life of prostitution.

BEDFORD REFORMATORY

The last sentence of section 79 reads: "Nothing herein contained shall be construed to limit the authority of a city magistrate to commit any prisoner for an indeterminate period to any institution now having authority by law to receive inmates for detention for a period of more than one year."

Another section of the law provides that a woman "between the ages of sixteen and thirty convicted of habitual drunkenness, of being a common prostitute, of soliciting on public streets or places for purposes of prostitution, of frequenting disorderly houses or houses of prostitution, or of vagrancy" under a special section, may be committed to the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford. The maximum period of commitment is three years and parole within a shorter time is conditioned by good behavior.

Those who have visited Bedford know what an excellent institution it is, situated in the open country, with the cottage system, industrial work to prepare women to earn their living, classes of various kinds, a wholesome moral and social atmosphere and a hospital to provide proper treatment for those in need of medical care. Since we are aiming not to punish those who have erred but to help them, not to cure their bodies alone but to influence and affect their characters and lives, why not commit women to Bedford where there will be chance for moral as well as physical cure?

The law is very clear with regard to the power of a magistrate to commit to this institution, and it is only necessary to have the proper evidence to convict, so that decision will not be reversed if appeal is taken to the higher courts.

CONCLUSIONS

In making a fair trial of section 79, let the following conclusions be considered:

1st. The workhouse has no ward for the treatment of venereal disease; therefore, commitments should not be made to the workhouse hospital.

2nd. The period in which venereal disease can be cured cannot be definitely determined; therefore, a maximum term of sentence should not be named by the magistrate.

3rd. The state provides for the moral teaching, industrial training and medical treatment of women delinquents; therefore, commitment should be made to the New York State Reformatory at Bedford.

SOCIAL SERVICE IN THE EPISCOPAL CHURCH

JOHN M. GLENN

At the General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church recently held in Cincinnati its Joint Commission on the Relations of Capital and Labor submitted a report which accepts social service as an essential need in the life of the church. The formation of thirteen diocesan social service commissions is significant of the growing appreciation of the importance of an active practical interest in social conditions. The reports of these commissions show that they have been thoughtfully studying questions of public health, of housing, of amusements, of the social evil, of hours and methods of labor, especially the labor of women and children, as well as other vital matters. They have also been putting themselves into touch with other agencies and have done effective work in helping to procure legislation and in forming public opinion. The showing is not as great as it might be, but it marks encouraging and intelligent progress.

The report of the commission endorses the recommendations of the Federal Council of Churches as to reductions of hours of work, release from employment one day in seven and a living wage. It says:

> We are convinced that the church must throw her chief emphasis upon the value of human life. This is but reiterating what we have already quoted from the Lambeth Encyclical. The property right is merely one conferred upon the individual by the community. Morally it exists only in return for social service. It must in every case yield to the needs of humanity. No business interests, no profit however great, can warrant the deliberate deterioration of human life. Such a principle has clear implications. To illustrate from facts recently brought in a startling way before the public: No Christian employer can find valid ground for conducting an industry which requires or even permits the regular employment of men for twelve hours a day, seven days in the week, at a wage which necessitates the work of women and children that the family may live.
>
> Christian society ought not to permit the existence of any industry which cannot succeed without the labor of women or children under unnatural conditions. "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren," is the final test of our Christianity. The first care of the Christian employer should be not his profits but his men. He should think not so much of getting work out of them as of helping to form those habits of industry which contribute to health and character.
>
> The same principle governs the church's message to the laborer. It is her business to help him to understand his own struggle and its meaning. He must learn that it is development of the whole man which gives his struggle dignity. The better physical conditions and the opportunity for recreation and education and family life which he seeks, are not ends but means to the end of better men and women. His unions are justified through seeking such an end. When, therefore, he seems to stand for mediocrity, for the diminution of opportunity for individuals, for a purely class interest and spirit or for violence, the church must equally reprove. When in ignorance that his whole present advance springs from the Life which the church preserves for the world, he attacks her or neglects her, she must reach out in tenderness to win him back. Only in sympathetic touch can the church find the way to that hold upon the life of the laborer which she has so largely lost.
>
> The final solution of all the problems which these remarks suggest lies, we believe, only in the steady increase of the power of Christianity in the community. The power of the Christian ideal of life and the supreme value of every human life, let the church show forth the one and proclaim the other, and her work will be well done.

On its recommendation the convention unanimously adopted the following resolution:

> Resolved, that a Joint Commission on Social Service be appointed, consisting of five bishops, five presbyters and five laymen. It shall be the duty of this commission to study and report upon social and industrial conditions, to co-ordinate the activities of the various organizations existing in the church in the interests of social service, to co-operate with similar bodies in other communions, to encourage sympathetic relations between capital and labor, and to deal according to their discretion with these and kindred matters.

Later power to add to its numbers was given the new commission. Among the members of the commission are the Rev.

George Hodges, D. D., the Rev. E. L. Parsons, the Rev. W. T. Sumner, the Rev. J. Howard Melish, the Rev. F. H. Nelson, and Messrs. Gifford Pinchot, Jacob Riis, George Mather, R. S. Morris and W. F. Morgan. The House of Bishops on motion of Bishop Greer of New York unanimously adopted the following:

Whereas, the employment of children in factories, mines and shops reduces wages to the child's standard, disintegrates the family, deprives the child of his natural rights to a period of training and time for play, and depreciates the human stock; and

Whereas, we recognize the responsibility of the church for our industrial as well as our spiritual standard; therefore, we call upon employers and parents to use all influence toward better legislation and better enforcement of the laws for the protection of children, to the end that exploitation of the labor of children shall become impossible in this Christian country; and

Whereas, we believe a special injustice against the child exists in the night work of boys under eighteen, in the transmission of messages, and especially in the distribution of our daily morning papers, between the hours of 10 P. M. and 6 A. M.; therefore, we call upon all Christian legislators to make laws forbidding this work of children under eighteen, between the hours of 10 P. M. and 6 A. M., in the various communities of our nation.

On October 20 a conference of diocesan social service commissions held three well attended meetings. At the opening meeting Bishop Lawrence of Massachusetts declared that church unity and missions are inextricably tied to social service. The Rev. Alexander G. Cummins of Poughkeepsie said that wages have travelled in a prairie schooner, profits in a Pennsylvania Limited. Clinton Rogers Woodruff urged coordination of the social work and agencies within the church and with outside agencies. He showed the necessity for the establishment of a permanent office for the new commission with a general secretary in charge to guide and stimulate general and local organization and work, a suggestion which was unanimously adopted and recommended by the conference.

At the afternoon session the Rev. Charles N. Lathrop of California said that a church should bring to its membership a wide and accurate knowledge of conditions in its community, and develop in them a new civic and business conscience. Dean Sumner of Chicago urged close co-operation between churches and better equipped public and private social agencies, such as school boards, health boards, jails, associated charities, child labor committees and consumers' leagues. Clergy and laity should be better acquainted with problems of city administration and expenditure as well as with labor problems.

The Rev. Theodore I. Reese of Columbus, O., in a well balanced paper on Capital and Labor put squarely upon the church the responsibility to understand clearly the conditions under which men and women labor and to work for their improvement in a definite and practical way. The church has a great power as an impartial leader to strengthen what is right and wise and to lessen wrong and foolish methods.

Among others who took part in the discussion were Dean Hodges of Cambridge and H. D. W. English of Pittsburgh. The latter told of the valuable share that members of Calvary Church, known as "the Calvary crowd," had taken in cleaning Pittsburgh politics.

At night a public meeting was held. Bishop Williams of Michigan opened the meeting with the following words:

Popular Protestantism is too much concerned with individual salvation. Environments exist in which it is as impossible to grow and develop a Christian character as to grow a rose in an ash barrel. We cannot preach chastity without considering the tenement house problem, or temperance without realizing that poverty leads to drunkenness, as well as drunkenness to poverty.

The church has its social responsibility. But it has more than to minister to the wounded. It is more than a train of Red Cross nurses. It has got to go below the surface and reveal the causes of the strife and witness for social justice as well as minister. We need a new version of the Good Samaritan. It is high time the church saw the Jericho road cleared of thieves and robbers.

Bishop Anderson of Chicago said:

We must individualize our responsibilities before we can socialize our Christianity. The first great need of the present is to fix the responsibilities—to point out the man in the city, the state or the corporation who outlines the policy.

We must have a social gospel to meet the times. It is the old gospel applied to the

present. Though we see thousands of pure women suffering with dread diseases and boys and girls led astray, I am surprised sometimes at the silence of the church just because the subject happens to be an unpleasant one.

Three things stand out in this convention far above suffragan bishops and the other business, three great streams of thought. First is Christian education, second is Christian unity, and third social righteousness. All stand together. We have got to give Christian children to the world or the church will go out of business. We must have church unity or the church will lose its power. How can it bring out the gospel of social service when so much weakened by division? The church must take the social doctrine or the Christian church will be found ineffective in our midst.

Dean Hodges of Cambridge, and John B. Lennon of Washington, treasurer of the American Federation of Labor, also made addresses.

The spirit of the meeting was one of earnest desire for fuller information, intelligent personal contact with difficult social situations and a bold stand on questions of principle. It is the first conference of the kind held in connection with a general convention of this church. It is likely that when the next convention meets in 1913 in New York there will be commissions in every diocese and that the general conference will be much larger and more important than this one. A pleasant feature of the meetings was the frequent reference to THE SURVEY as an essential part of the equipment of church workers, and the recognition of the value of the work of organizations doing social work outside the church.

THE CHURCH FOR INDUSTRIAL BROTHERHOOD

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Perhaps the most significant and farthest reaching event of the month in the industrial life of the American people is the unanimous action by a rising vote taken by the National Council of Congregational Churches in Tremont Temple, Boston, October 14, by which a declaration of industrial faith was made and a policy of action adopted.

Twelve years ago the International Council of the same body received, with marked division of sentiment and several antagonistic speeches by some of the most prominent men of the denomination from both sides of the sea, essentially the same plea to take the same attitude toward the same moral and social issues. Then, however, no definite practical action was proposed. Perhaps the specific proposition that the Congregational brotherhoods should assume the function of executive agencies for the churches may in part account for the changed front of the delegates. But the unanimity and enthusiasm with which both the National Council and the Brotherhood Convention took this advanced stand and struck out their progressive action indicate a great change in the point of view, and the attendance of a larger proportion of delegates from the oncoming generation. Many men of the elder generation, however, were on their feet in this rising vote. A few of them were indeed the old "war horses," who like Washington Gladden had led the charge all along the line, but most of them, laymen as well as ministers, had changed their minds or "made up" their minds, perhaps all imperceptibly to themselves. At any rate the imposing fact was registered that the ranks were unbroken by a single negative vote or by a single dissenting vote in this most representative body of the sons of the Pilgrim Fathers.

The report of the committee on industry which led up to this action confronted the churches at the outset with the ethical demands of the industrial conditions and relationships which so largely constitute and determine human lives. It showed how largely the sins, the strifes, the diseases, the vices, the legislation, the leadership and the brotherhoods of the age are industrial. It described the responses which the churches, abroad and in this country, are making to this challenge of the new times. It claimed that with such initiative and accomplishment as the Congregational churches have achieved throughout their history in the sphere of educational, civic, political, reformatory and constructive action, the time had now come for them to act in the industrial sphere.

The first of four recommendations toward a policy of action dealt with a

declaration of principles. Instead of formulating one of their own, the churches were wisely urged to adopt the declaration of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ made at Philadelphia December 2-8, 1908, which was summarized as follows:

DECLARATION OF PRINCIPLES.

We deem it the duty of all Christian people to concern themselves directly with certain practical industrial problems. To us it seems that the churches must stand:

For equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life.

For the right of all men to the opportunity for self-maintenance, a right ever to be strongly safeguarded against encroachments of every kind.

For the right of workers to some protection against the hardships often resulting from the swift crises of industrial change.

For the principle of conciliation and arbitration in industrial dissensions.

For the protection of the workers from dangerous machinery, occupational disease, injuries and mortality.

For the abolition of child labor.

For such regulations of the conditions of toil for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.

For the suppression of the "sweating system."

For the gradual and reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practicable point, and for that degree of leisure for all which is a condition of the highest human life.

For the release from employment one day in seven.

For a living wage as a minimum in every industry, and for the highest wage that each industry can afford.

For the most equitable division of the products of industry that can ultimately be devised.

For the suitable provision for the old age of the workers and for those incapacitated by injury.

For the abatement of poverty.

To the toilers of America and to those who by organized effort are seeking to lift the crushing burdens of the poor, and to reduce the hardships and uphold the dignity of labor, this council sends the greeting of human brotherhood and the pledge of sympathy and of help in a cause which belongs to all who follow Christ.

By happy and unprecedented coincidence, an almost identical recommendation came up to the council of the churches and to the convention of the brotherhood to the effect that neither should undertake anything that could be done better by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America acting in an interdenominational capacity. All the denominational agencies therefore were recommended to co-operate with this body representing all Protestant denominations, in all matters requiring interdenominational expression or action. This policy was urged "in order that the churches shall present a united front to organized employes and employers and to state legislatures in any situation requiring the declaration of Christian principles for co-operative effort." It is hoped that serious confusion may thus be averted which certainly would have followed denominational action independently presented to industrial bodies or to the public. One practical line of co-operation was authorized to enable the Federal Council's committee on literature to issue a press bulletin to daily and weekly trade, labor and other papers, for the purpose of presenting to their readers and the public the Christian ideals, standards and spirit applicable to industrial conditions and relations.

While the national and state ecclesiastical bodies were urged to appoint and promote the efficiency of "committees on industry," the Congregational Brotherhood was requested to assume the function of "executive agency for the churches, "in order to promote the study and knowledge of local industrial conditions and relations, to enlist the membership of the local chapters and the churches in practical efforts for the improvement for these living and working conditions, in accordance with the Christian principles, the declaration of which is made jointly with the United Churches of Christ in America."

The Brotherhood Convention assumed this function with enthusiasm, and at once proceeded to raise funds adequate to maintain the office of a secretary for labor and social service, for which the best available man is being sought. The committee to whose administrative care this industrial policy is entrusted is composed of men representing employers and employes, ministers and laymen, and both country and city districts in eastern, western and southern states.

THE NEW WORLD AND CRIME[1]

EVELYN RUGGLES BRISE

PRESIDENT-ELECT OF THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON COMMISSION

SIR EVELYN RUGGLES-BRISE, K.C.B.,
President of the English Prison Commission, who at Washington was elected president of the International Prison Commission to succeed Professor Henderson.

This coming of the Old World to the New to learn what lessons the New has to teach is an historic fact and may be an epoch in human thought and attitude towards the criminal. It has been a great education and profit to me to realize what a fund of humanity and benevolence is being applied in the United States at the present time to the rehabilitation of the offender. This is not, if I may quote from a well known passage in John Morley's life of Voltaire, "humanity in its pale shape of kindly sentiment and bland pity, but humanity strong, aggressive and alert stalking the land like ancient heroes to slay monsters." The monsters which we all are trying to destroy in our respective countries are bad prisons, bad laws and bad criminal procedure. With this humanity, goes the remarkable hopefulness of the American in the rehabilitation of the offender. This, I think, has an origin partly religious and partly political. It is the spirit of the Good Samaritan which holds out a helping hand, and the civic spirit which desires to recreate good citizenship and to convert prisoners into useful assets in the community. This hopefulness, strengthened by these two influences, is a tremendous force, of which the value will be in the method of its application.

If Europe has adhered too closely to what is known as the Classical School in its attitude toward the criminal, or if America has broken away too much from tradition, here, if ever, is the occasion where the balance may be adjusted, and once again in history, the one world may be used to redress the balance of the other.[1] What is that balance? It is a common recognition by all countries of the purpose and meaning of punishment. Is America prepared to accept the old-fashioned European formula that punishment shall be retributory, deterrent and reformatory in this order?

By retributory, of course, I do not mean the vulgar and exploded instinct of vengeance or personal revenge, but the determination of the human con-

[1]The substance of an address before a general meeting of the American Prison Association, October 2, 1910, to which delegates of the International Prison Congress were invited.

[1]"I called the New World into existence to redress the balance of the Old." Canning, referring in 1826 to England's acknowledgment of the independence of the South American republics in 1823, while he was prime minister.

sciousness that the system of rights shall be maintained, that he who offends against it shall be punished, and that the punishment shall be of such a nature as to deter him and others from anti-social acts.

By reformatory, I mean the accepted axiom of modern penology that a prisoner has reversionary rights of humanity, and that these must be respected consistently with the due execution of the law, and that no effort must be spared to restore that man to society as a better and a wiser man, and a good citizen. Among loose thinkers and loose writers the impression seems to be gaining ground, that this historic order of the factors of punishment should be inverted and that the object of punishment shall be altogether reformatory, as little as possible deterrent, and not at all retributory.[1] It is only by preserving this balance that we can hope to follow the wise advice given to us by the president of the United States, that we must try to steer a middle course between "maudlin sentiment on one side and a desire for vengeance (that is cruel, unnecessary and unprofitable punishment) on the other."

This question of preserving a common balance is my first reflection. My second is with regard to the indeterminate sentence and the parole law. Can we agree as to the rôle to be played in the future by the judicial and executive authority respectively? Can the wisdom and discretion of our judges be respected consistently with the intervention of non-judicial authority in the determination of penalty? Here is a great battle ground for the future, and it may be that Europe is not prepared to go as far as America in this respect. My third reflection is, will America be prepared to adopt the same tests as European countries, as to the success or failure of any new plan that may be proposed for the treatment of crime? In other words, will America be willing to have her institutions tested by full and accurate and annual statistical data of convictions and re-convictions, as they are tested in Europe and as public opinion insists that they shall be tested?

My fourth reflection is, whether in order that there may be a complete comparison of rival systems for dealing with crime, it is possible, or likely, that America will follow the lead of Europe and adopt the principle that the state as supreme authority shall be responsible for the treatment of crime in all its manifestations; that is, petty as well as serious crime. In England, our problem is more with petty than with serious offences; with the hundreds of thousands who flock to the local prisons over and over again for perhaps trivial breaches of the law and under short sentences. It is on this problem that today our secretary of state, Mr. Churchill, is bringing the vigor and humanity and ability with which he is so richly endowed to bear. The solution is to be found in classification and in differentiation; not in using the rusty instrument of imprisonment for short periods as the panacea for all and every kind of disorder or anti-social conduct; but to classify by groups, vagrants, drunkards, defectives, and to provide special institutions for special categories of offenders. Can America help us to solve this problem? Not, I think, until you recognize that the petty offender or the prisoner awaiting trial is as much a matter for state concern and control as the man under long, or indeterminate sentence, upon whom you are now expending so much thought and labor and expense in your state prisons and state reformatories.

And lastly, there is, I think, one common principle from which we can all start forward today in our campaign throughout the world; that is, the common belief in what is known—to borrow a French phrase—as "the individualization of punishment." By that I mean that each man convicted of crime is to be regarded as an individual, as a separate entity or morality, who by the ap-

[1] In his address, Sir Evelyn commended to the notice of his auditors the first number of the *Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology* in which the balance to be observed in the three factors of punishment is prescribed by Prof. T. H. Green of Oxford University. He regarded it as "a happy augury that the New World and the Old will be in agreement on this point" that the first number of this review should be prefaced by an extract from the writings of "one of the clearest and profoundest thinkers of the end of the last century."

plication of influences or discipline, labor, education, moral and religious, backed up on discharge by a well-organized system of patronage, is capable of reinstatement in civic life. In other words, there is no "criminal type."

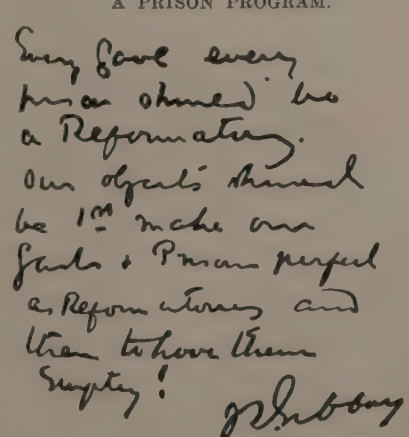
Nothing in the past has so much retarded progress as the conviction, deeply rooted and widespread, that the criminal is a class by himself, different from all other classes, with an innate tendency to crime, of which certain peculiarities in the configuration of his body are the outward and visible sign. This superstition, for such I think it must be called, was, as you know, strengthened and encouraged by the findings of the Italian school. It is not based upon disinterested and exact investigation; and not only has the progress of the science of criminal anthropology been retarded by this conception, but it accounts for the unfavorable and sceptical attitude which we still find in many places towards any attempt to reclaim the criminal. It is my own belief that the assumed co-relation between the mental and physical characteristics of a man is a superstition and a fallacy. I do not believe that a murderer can be revealed by his frontal curve, or a thief by his bulging forehead or the shape of his nose.

In England we have been at great pains, during the last two or three years, by scientific and exact investigation to disprove the popular conception of the criminal. We have personally examined three thousand of our worst convicts, men sentenced to penal servitude and guilt of every form of crime. With regard to each we have collected and tabulated no less than ninety-six statements, that is, measurements, family history, mental and bodily characteristics, etc. The tabulation is now proceeding at the Biometric Laboratory of University College, London, under the direction of Dr. Carl Pearson. The results will be published shortly, and we are only able to say at present that so far no evidence whatever has emerged from this investigation confirming the existence of criminal types, such as Lombroso and his disciples have asserted. And, in fact, both with regard to measurements and the presence of physical anomalies in criminals, these statistics present a startling conformity with similar statistics of the law abiding classes. The results of this investigation will be what perhaps most of us would have anticipated, but as scientific data they will serve to break down the vulgar superstition or tradition that criminals are a special type, and as such in many cases beyond the reach of reform.

This will encourage us in our work toward the individualization of punishment. It strengthens the common principle on which we are all working; it gives us faith and hope; and of all the prison systems of the world, that will be the best where the arrangements admit of the greatest individual attention being given to each individual case.

These, gentlemen, are my reflections. I do not criticise and am not presumptuous enough to advise. In the great march forward of the International Congress, let us find, if we can, a common ground to work on. Let us understand each other, separated as we are by language, tradition and distance, for it is only by such mutual understanding that the results of this great humanitarian movement can be real and lasting.

A PRISON PROGRAM.



[Every gaol, every prison should be a reformatory. Our object should be, 1st, make our gaols and prisons perfect as reformatories and then to have them empty!

J. S. GIBBONS,
Chairman Prison Board of Ireland.]

ENDING THE REIGN OF TERROR

INFLUENCE OF THE STUDY OF THE RESULTS OF PRISON PUNISHMENTS ON CRIMINAL LAW AND JUDICIAL DECISIONS

GEORGE W. KIRCHWEY

DEAN OF THE FACULUY OF LAW, COBUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The statement of my theme involves two fundamental assumptions, both calling for examination: the first, that the system of penal imprisonment involves results requiring and capable of investigation; the second, that the study of those results may be expected to bear fruit in the modification or amendment of the law by which that system is created and supported. And as our criminal law is the expression either of the public will or of the will of certain ascertainable elements in the community, there is a further implication that that will is modifiable and capable of being influenced by the facts that may be brought to light by the study proposed.

These assumptions are, indeed, the axioms of our science and it is because we accept them unreservedly that we are assembled here on this occasion. But, if I rightly apprehend the aims and purposes of this congress, we are not here primarily as propagandists, but as men of science, and as such we may not accept even the axioms of our high calling without examination of their scope and the method and limits of their application to the problems which we have set ourselves to solve.

What I have proposed to myself as the object of this paper is an analytical study of the conditions affecting the progressive reform of our criminal law and procedure with special reference to the agencies through which such reform must be effected and the motives which affect those agencies. The obvious recourse in such an inquiry is history, especially the history of the criminal law and its administration. But, while the study of our Anglo-American legal history throws a flood of light on the relations between public opinion and criminal law, it has, I venture to think, a disappointment in store for those who look to it for a confirmation of the thesis at the head of this paper. There is, in fact, little to support the view that our criminal law and procedure have been largely determined by experiments with punitive measures. We have a record of a thousand years in which the tide of brutality ebbs and flows, but there is no sign of any reaction of the known conditions of prison punishment on the agencies making for the amendment of the criminal law, either on grounds of humanity or of expediency, up to the beginning of the last century. It was not until the humanitarian sentiment, which has attended the growth of our western civilization, had risen to a flood that it began to percolate into that last bulwark of barbarism. In that long period of waiting for the dawn of the new day, the attitude of the law toward the criminal, which can only be described as one of ferocity, fairly reflected the sentiments of horror and hatred with which he was regarded by the law making elements of the community.

Here we may profitably turn to a few moments' consideration of the agencies by which the character of the criminal law is determined. We are in the habit of speaking of law, especially under a popular form of government, as the expression of public opinion, but a study of our criminal jurisprudence shows that public opinion, in the sense in which that phrase is commonly employed, as a general sentiment pervading the community, has upon the whole had little to do with either the content or the administration of that system. Professor Dicey has recently reminded us[1] that the opinion which directs the development of the law may not be the opinion of the community at large but of a ruling class or of interests powerful enough under existing political conditions to make their influ-

[1] A. V. Dicey. The Relation Between Law and Public Opinion in England, 1905, p. 9.

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ence controlling. It is submitted that the criminal law of England and the United States, as it now exists, is in the main representative, not of the will of the community as a whole, but rather of class sentiment and particularly of the sentiment of those—criminal judges and prosecuting attorneys—to whom the administration of the criminal law is committed. The attitude of the public has been negative, one of callous indifference to the fate of the wrongdoer, while the professional opinion, by which that fate was mostly determined, has been but too firmly convinced of the wisdom and justice of the Draconian code which it administered.

There are indeed, facts which seem to point to public opinion rather than to the more obdurate professional opinion as the agency of amelioration, but this, I believe, is a mistake. The slowness with which public opinion is formed, its sluggishness and discontinuity will probably continue to give the interested and professional classes a controlling influence on the course of the criminal law and its administration, and it would seem to be the part of wisdom for those interested in criminal law and prison reform under ordinary circumstances to address themselves to the task of educating and forming the professional and expert opinion upon whose attitude so much depends.[1]

But before we undertake this task, or the much more difficult one of informing and rousing public opinion, it is incumbent on us to pause and inquire what the best method of approach may be; and it is here that our real difficulties begin. For the opinion, public or professional, which sustains our present penal system is based on certain set beliefs or convictions as to the true and proper end of punishment for crime and these beliefs are many and widely divergent.

The policy of punishment by imprisonment, for example, may be supported on one or more of the following grounds:

(a) As a vindication of the outraged peace and dignity of the state and (a^1) as an expression of its reprobation of the offense committed.

(b) As an example of evildoers and thus a restraining influence on others tempted to commit crime.

(c) As a salutary lesson to the offender, to bring home to him the truth that the way of the transgressor is hard.

(d) As a forcible means of restraining the offender, thus preventing him during the period of his confinement, from further indulgence of his criminal propensities.

(e) As a means of moral amendment, that the soul may be purged through suffering.

(f) As creating a break in the habits and associations which have led to crime.

(g) As furnishing an opportunity to bring new and more wholesome influences to bear on the wrongdoer in the hope of converting him into a useful member of society.

It is no part of the purpose of this paper to attempt a valuation of the several ends to which prison punishment may be directed; all of the ends enumerated above are valid and we can all agree that as many of them as possible should be aimed at in a properly devised penal system. My aim is the more modest one of indicating briefly what the study of conditions past and present may be expected to teach us with respect to them and how that study may be most advantageously directed.

First, as to the vindictive or retributive theory, it is obvious that it does still, to a considerable degree color our criminal jurisprudence and that the principles upon which it is founded do in fact enter to a considerable extent into the sentiments of those elements in the community by which our criminal law is actually shaped and administered. That there is a place for these principles in a sound system of penal law has already been asserted. That society shall in some commanding form give expression to the moral principles on which it is based may, however, be admitted without yielding assent to the doctrine of moral responsibility involved in the vindictive principle

[1] Much may be hoped in this respect from the new American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, which has many judges and lawyers among its members, and from scientific gatherings such as this, where eminent jurists, criminologists and prison reformers meet and discuss with calmness and high intelligence the problems in which they are all equally interested.

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of punishment or to the consequences deduced therefrom.

I venture to suggest that there are two well-defined fields of study which may lead to fruitful results. The one, the investigation of the social and personal history of the individual wrongdoer, including his heredity and pathology, physical and mental. A demonstration of the fact, which we may well consider indubitable, that criminal conduct is usually, if not always, the result of conditions more or less beyond the control of the delinquent, cannot fail to shake the theory of moral responsibility upon which the vindictive idea of punishment is based as well as to allay and in time overcome the feeling of resentment which such conduct now excites. And, on the other hand, a study of the psychology of the mob and of the reaction of the existing penal system on the moral sense of the community will show how far it is safe to go in mitigating the rigors of the criminal law in a given jurisdiction. The prevalence of lynch law in certain communities in which the administration of the ordinary criminal law is loose and ineffective, would seem to point to the existence of a demand for vigorous dealing with crimes of certain sorts, for such time as may be required to bring the community to a better appreciation of the nature of crime and the conditions that determine it.

Second, as to the exemplary or deterrent theory, the doctrine that punishment is inflicted on the offender as a warning to others has come to be the orthodox view of the object of punishment. It is the view advocated by such eminent authorities as DuCane[1] and Cox.[2] It received its most pointed expression in the observation addressed by the Heath judge to a criminal on whom he was passing sentence: "You are sentenced to be hanged, not because you stole a horse but in order to prevent others from stealing horses."[3] There is something touching in the unquestioning faith of the legal profession, on the one hand, and of the man in the street, on the other, in the efficacy of this vicarious suffering for crimes not yet committed. Yet it remains a matter of faith, as yet unsupported by evidence. The proof furnished by experience is wholly negative—that the deterrent effect of punishment, if any there be, does not depend on the degree or kind of penalty inflicted, or rather, that excessive punishment defeats its own end by inducing a kind of reckless disregard of consequences as well as by stimulating a hatred for the law because of its injustice and oppressiveness.

I must confess that I can see no fruitful field for investigation of this question. That the certainty or even the probability of swift detection and punishment would in many instances deter from wrongdoing is a fact that needs no demonstration, and on the other hand it may be assumed that the rare prospect of punishment, following a still rarer discovery and conviction, exerts about the deterrent influence that it might be expected to. Until our police and detective methods and our criminal administration reach a point approaching scientific precision, we may wisely defer the scientific study of the most difficult and elusive of the problems of penal science.

Third, as to the deterrent effect of punishment on the offender (a secondary object of punishment according to Du Cane, Cox and other authorities), we already have data of considerable value in the statistics of recidivism. The fact that a very large proportion—in some countries more than fifty per cent—of criminals under confinement have previously undergone prison punishment seems to indicate that as a deterrent punishment by imprisonment leaves something to be desired. The inquiry into recidivism with respect, on the one hand, to the kind of offenses repeatedly committed, and, and the other hand, to the nature of the imprisonment—whether separate or communal, whether in idleness or at hard labor, etc., etc.—might profitably be continued. This may lead to certain inferences as to the extent to which prison conditions have been responsible for the vicious life which converted the first offender into a

[1] Sir Edmund F. DuCane, The Punishment and Prevention of Crime.
[2] Edward W. Cox, The Principles of Punishment.
[3] DuCane, 2.

recidivist, and may to some extent modify the unfavorable conclusion as to the deterrent effect of punishment, pure and simple, upon the individual subjected thereto.

Fourth, the principle of preventing further violations of the law by the confinement of the lawbreaker has played a considerable rôle in our criminal jurisprudence and has furnished a justification for sentences of long imprisonment in the case of hardened or desperate criminals. Of course the remedy is efficacious while it lasts, the principal objections to its application being that it has not in the past been based on any adequate study of the criminal and of the conditions determining his criminal career, and that it has not been attended by corrective and reformatory influences. This reproach to the system has now to a large extent been removed by the new sciences of criminology and sociology and by the rise and development of the reformatory treatment of criminals, and these conditions have rendered possible the extremest application of the principle of preventive restraint—the indeterminate sentence. Here in the prison and subsequent history of the criminal is a new and inviting field of study which may be expected to produce rich results.

Fifth, the principle that punishment for crime may, quite apart from the fear inspired and without the addition of reformatory influences, be a means of moral amendment finds expression in many judicial utterances. It is obviously a well-meant but mistaken attempt to bring the sanctions of the moral law and of the ecclesiastical dispensation to the aid of the criminal law. As the soul is purged by suffering, as the contrite heart is purified by penance, so may the criminal find means of grace in the pains and penalties imposed by the law he has violated. Of course this doctrine imputes to the law a sanctity which the criminal who finds himself in its toils would be the last to concede to it, and so, quite apart from the vile and degrading conditions under which this work of grace was to be effected, it is not to be wondered at that we find no traces of its efficacy. It is, perhaps, within the bounds of possibility that under a penal system in which self-respect and manhood are restored there may come to some of those who undergo that discipline, a sentiment of gratitude which will transmute the punishment into a means of moral regeneration.

Sixth, the theory that confinement in prison for a longer or shorter time is an efficient means of weaning the criminal from the habits and associations which have brought him to a life of crime has had little to commend it during that long period—unhappily not yet past—when the prison supplied associations and inculcated habits as vile and demoralizing as any that existed outside its walls. Under the new dispensation, which we are here to hasten, the theory acquires a new meaning which makes it susceptible of wide application. Even where the influences of prison life are purely negative and the prisoner is merely protected against moral contamination (if such a condition can exist), the principle is a valid one. Where, in addition, reformatory influences are brought to bear, we find ourselves under the benign conditions which will be next described. A study of the domestic and social environment of the individual criminal, especially in the case of a first offender, will throw light upon the question of the length of confinement necessary in a given case to permit the dispersion of the group of bad companions who may be responsible for his downfall or to permit charitable or other social agencies to create more favorable conditions to receive him on his release.

Seventh, the principle of the reformation of criminals during imprisonment claims to attain all the proposed ends of prison punishment in so far as those ends are attainable and desirable, and to provide conditions which make some of them feasible and salutary when without its aid they would fail of their object or prove pernicious in operation. It does not assume that all criminals are susceptible of reformation or even of improvement, nor that those who are can all be brought up to the same level of good citizenship. It does assume, however, that most men and women and all children will respond to the steady pres-

sure of a wholesome, uplifting environment, and that the vast majority of those who come under its influence are capable of becoming useful members of society, and it has already, in the brief term of its experiment, proven its faith by its works. It has opened up a vast field of investigation and study—the field of human nature, in its normal and its abnormal manifestations. It must have cognizance of the life-history of every individual committed to prison, with his heredity and environment. It studies him in prison—his needs, his capacities, his aspirations, his mental and moral equipment, his health and his reaction to the various experiences of prison life; it follows him after his discharge and studies further the effect upon character and circumstances of his experience of life as a free man. It levies on all the sciences that deal with man—law, medicine, criminology, sociology—and seeks through these to interpret and generalize the extensive data so gathered.

We are now prepared to answer the question of the influence of the study of prison punishment upon the criminal law of England and the United States. As has been said above, no change in the law of any importance can be traced to the study or to the general knowledge of prison conditions prior to the last century. It was due to such study, however, that prison conditions in themselves underwent important changes beginning in the last quarter of the eighteenth century and continuing without interruption down to our own time. It was the breakdown of the Australian convict system that marked the first feeble beginnings of legal (as distinguished from prison) reform in England about the middle of the last century and the same feeble and tentative gropings toward better things appeared in this country in the barren period from 1825 to 1869 when the act establishing the Elmira Reformatory was passed by the New York Legislature. It is from this latter date that we must reckon the period of criminal law reform based on a consideration of the effects of prison punishment on the criminal and on the community at large. It was the shocking conditions of prison life and the moral contamination in which they resulted that have given to the world the Elmira system, the indeterminate sentence and the probation system. It is to the same degrading conditions that our children owe the elaborate provision of reform schools, detention homes, juvenile courts and, finally and best of all, a new body of law for the juvenile delinquent, based on the theory that he is the child of the state, to be saved, instead of a little demon, to be damned.

And, of the elaborate array of motives for punishment which I have placed before you, it appears that those only which connect themselves with the reformatory movement of the last forty years have any important or considerable field for investigation, any ascertainable and commanding facts to bring to light and consequently any future. The next few years will give us new data of great importance relating to the obduracy of the incorrigible, to the capacity of fallen manhood and womanhood to renew themselves, to the saving of children from lives of crime and shame. But there will be no facts for him who regards the criminal law as an instrument for venting hate and wrath on a fallen—and convicted—brother, none for him who would keep his fellow man in subjection to his iron law by terror, none for him who would work redemption through another's suffering. All these, coming with empty hands, shall abide as they are until the judgment. But the bringers of good tidings shall enter in and be prospered. Let no one doubt that the new spirit which has found its way into the law will soon penetrate into every fiber of its structure. The new moral atmosphere which has made every man his brother's keeper will be felt in the law courts as well as in the home and street. The new attitude of the state toward the child of tender years will soon mark her attitude toward her erring children of larger growth. There will be no more criminals to be hated and punished, but weak and fallen brothers and sisters to be cherished and saved—saved that they may live, that the state may live. It has been a long journey from the era of hatred and contempt, but the end of the Reign of Terror is in sight.

November 5, 1910.

PAN-AMERICAN BUILDING.
Where the congress met.

THE INTERNATIONAL PRISON CONGRESS AT WASHINGTON

As a Layman Interprets It

PAUL U. KELLOGG

They came past the Goddess of Liberty and found—cages. That, for Americans, is the very gist of the International Prison Congress which met in October in Washington and brought prison administrators, jurists and prison reformers representing forty governments to the national capital of the United States.

They came as to a promised land, and found us still in the wilderness. They came to a country which had instituted the world organization to which they were delegates; whose leaders had for two generations preached new and stirring principles in dealing with offenders; whose progressive administrators had put these principles to the test, in great reformatories, and among great groups of outlawed men. It was not then that we had not had strong leaders,nor institutions that won their enthusiasms; but that we had shattered the tablets of the newer law against the barred cells of ten thousand local jails, and the stone walls of a hundred medieval prisons; that we had bowed down to a golden calf, whose high priesthood constitutes the county political machines of forty states; that we had left the handling of the great company of minor offenders, who are on the border line between crime and citizenship, to a breed of petty judges who may have discarded the wigs of the old world bench, but whose brains are powdered with the dustier theories of a criminal law long since disproved and abandoned by the great prison men of the world.

The International Prison Congress meets quinquennially. In 1915, it will come together again in London, where forty years ago, on the initiative of an American, Dr. E. C. Wines, the first meeting was held. As a culmination to those four decades, the congress this year passed the most revolutionary piece of legislation in its history. For the first time, a majority of the delegates endorsed the indeterminate sentence. It was a great triumph, this international commitment to humanitarian causes of which Americans have been among the strongest advocates, and which had been rejected in principle as recently as the Brussels congress of 1900.

It was accompanied by outspoken appreciation on the part of the foreign delegates of much that they saw in America, in which these principles were being put into practice, notably the work of our probation systems and reformatories. Elmira, Mansfield, Pontiac, Jeffersonville are no longer merely names to European penologists. The influence of their visit here, the delegates said, would be felt in the legislatures, the prisons, the courts and the juvenile institutions of all Europe.

But the triumph was tempered by the realization that in less than half our American states is there any real reformatory work done among prisoners; and the further realization, on the part of American and foreign delegates alike, of the bitter inconsistency of our treatment of the rank and file of offenders; for, by our very methods of dealing with them, we are breeding and confirming them as criminals. When young men awaiting trial for trivial lapses from good order are herded with old-time convicts and drunken repeaters, we are sure of that result and of no other. It is inevitable wherever in our jails and workhouse blocks, two, three, four, five prisoners and sometimes more are kept in the same compartment. In the iron barred cells themselves—menageries, the Europeans called them, used as they are to the doored-cells of England and the continent—they found the physical antithesis of the reformatory ideals for which America has stood. We create with the left hand what we try to reform with the right. "A man can't live above the cage," said the head of the Irish Prison System. "The only thing to do with the Tombs," said the secretary of the Howard Association of England, "is to tear it down";—and for Tombs read practically every county jail in America. To the visitors' minds there was only one thing worse than these institutions; and that was the stupid, useless round of committing offenders to them for short terms. "Once more," said Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise, in bidding Americans to the London congress, "let me ask that from your great fund of heart and self-sacrifice you give consideration to the thousands of petty offenders now passing through your city and county jails in such appalling numbers."

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The International Prison Congress may be regarded as an anticipatory branch of coming world parliaments. Twenty-two governments make up its adhering members. Several of the South American republics united with it in advance of the Washington meeting which, by a happy coincidence, was held in the new Pan-American Building given by Andrew Carnegie to the Bureau of American Republics. Spain, the Transvaal and Egypt made known their desire to join. Moreover, Professor Henderson was able to announce that negotiations had been opened which seemed to promise the adhesion of the great governments of Japan and China—the largest extension of the congress in population and area. Prominent Japanese officials have taken part, unofficially, in the congresses since that of Paris in 1900, but the delegation of Chinese jurists which came on to Washington was a new element.

The congress is essentially a diplomatic body; its delegates make official reports to their governments. Its sessions have been held successively in London, Stockholm, Rome, St. Petersburg, Paris, Brussels, Budapest and Washington. It was not until 1896 that the United States formally adhered to the congress, President Cleveland appointing the late Samuel June Barrows as American member of the International Commission. At the Budapest congress of 1905 an invitation from President Roosevelt in behalf of the United States was transmitted by Dr. Barrows, who was then elected president of the International Commission. On his death in 1909, he was succeeded by Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago, and Dr. Henderson's first words in opening the Washington congress were a gracious tribute to the unflagging spirit and humanitarian statesmanship of his friend and predecessor.

President Taft had welcomed the delegates to Washington, and at this opening meeting, October 2, Attorney General Wickersham spoke for the United States government, whose guests the foreign

delegates had been on their tour of American institutions in September.[1] Mr. Wickersham noted the change which has occurred in the attitude of civilized countries since before the days of the great reforms of John Howard, when 160 transgressions were punishable by death on the English circuits and when, while a man

COURT YARD OF THE PAN-AMERICAN BUILDING.

The various sections of the congress met in the halls opening off this picturesque quadrangle.

of Blackstone's penetrating mind regarded such sanguinary laws as a "kind of quackery in government arguing a want of solid skill," the bench as a whole fondly believed that nothing less could "deter savage minds from outrages and mischiefs." It may be well to pause to note that this period of renaissant humanitarism is all but identical with the national existence of the United States. While the American Revolution shut us off from the English prison reform movement at the end of the eighteenth century—our very war for independence leaving us, oddly enough, to the tyranny of our own jails—it was natural that a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to a faith in the rank and file of men, should have made original and upsetting contributions to internal as distinct from international statesmanship,—that is, to the social control of the human elements making up the democracy. As already indicated, for two generations this creative spirit has found its expression in action by a few commonwealths in establishing state reformatory institutions and systems of probation and parole. These, against unexampled opposition and inertia, have shown their soundness in theory and practice. At the same time the imprisonment of all per-

[1] In the interval before the opening of the international gathering, many attended the sessions of what is, in a sense, the parent body, the American Prison Association, which met under the presidency of Amos W. Butler of Indiana; and also the sessions of the newly organized American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. These conferences were reviewed in THE SURVEY for October 22.

THE INTERNATIONALS.

Party of American and foreign delegates to the Washington Prison Congress, photographed in the yard of the Indiana State Reformatory at Jeffersonville.

sons awaiting trial and those under sentence for minor offenses, has been left in the hands of counties and cities. The fees to be gained by their arrest, detention, feeding and incarceration during the period of sentence, have made the sheriff's office the center of county politics and in some localities, a more lucrative post than that of president of the United States. The movements to remedy this situation have been slow to gather head; have had great obstacles to overcome; and they present today a broken line of battle which should be flung out statewide over every American common wealth.

That is, democracy has been both good and bad in its influence upon prison reform in this country. Its practical idealism has fostered a small but remarkable group of reformatory institutions in which different states have embodied the spirit of human brotherhood. But the disorganization and lack of system which accompanies local self-government has encouraged, or at least failed to wipe out, abuses which many of the centralized governments of Europe would not tolerate for a day. The democracy is therefore put to a new test by the men it imprisons; that we have not yet measured up to that test, in the eyes of the clear-seeing prison men of Europe, was the challenge which the Washington meeting cast at American will-power.

You have begun at the top, they said, can you work to the bottom? If an onlooker were to hazard an answer, it would be that in our treatment of children we are finding a new beginning, whereby the newer methods may win their way in popular favor, and with the people once back of them, work up irresistibly into the treatment of adults.

As steps in the right direction, the attorney general could report substantial progress since the last congress on the part of the national government. Laws with respect to crimes against the United States have been revised and a parole system for federal prisoners established. Of greater potential influence, however, has been the work of the recent commission on the penal system of the District of Columbia. Along with its compeers, the old district jail had become outgrown, insanitary, and out of keeping with modern conceptions of penology. Great tracts of rural land have been purchased for a reformatory and workhouse, a juvenile court has been instituted, a system of suspended sentence and probation established, etc. Thus, if plans do not go awry, the federal government itself, through its control of the national capital, may afford an example of progressive methods in treating minor and local offenders, applicable to self-governing communities everywhere throughout the United States. Thus, there was a special significance in the fact that the Prison Congress met in Washington.

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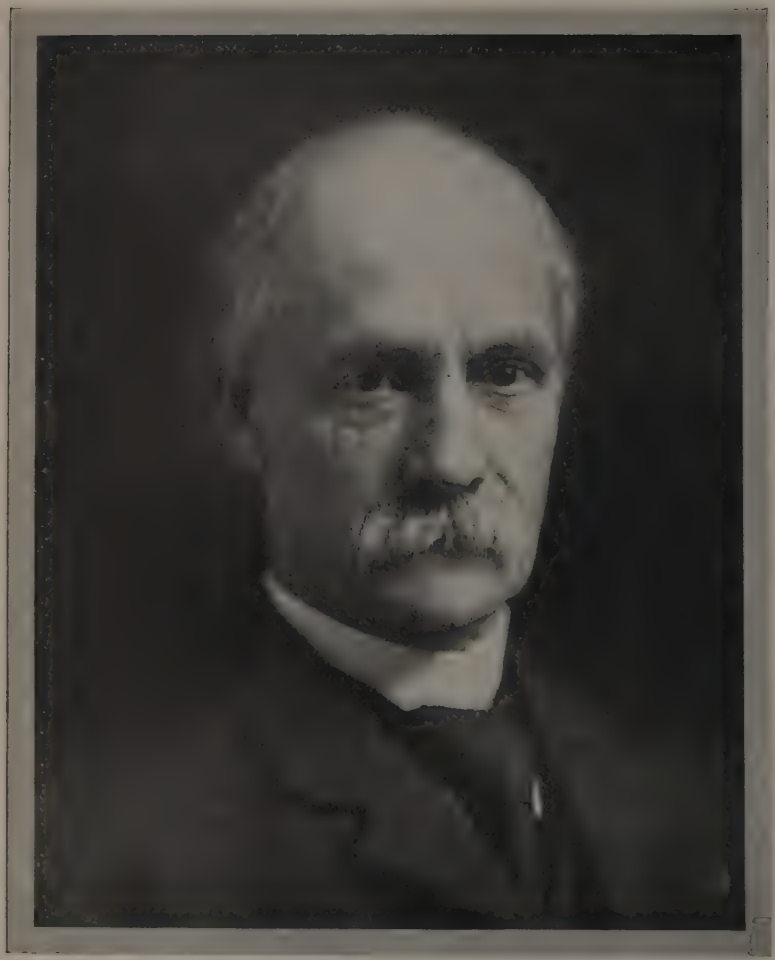
The common ground of agreement, not only among Americans, but among internationals, was set forth forcibly by Professor Henderson in his opening address as president. "Science and philanthropy" he held "are one in race and one in reason." That statesmanship is false which asserts that a government has no moral obligations to its foes, no duty to endeavor to reform them to the limit of its power. These were his two main themes, and of them, he said:

> One mighty and commanding purpose has called us together and will inspire all our counsels . . . We firmly resolve to make the way of the transgressor hard, but not desperate; we desire him to tremble before the majesty of outraged law, but not to despair if he is willing to accept the reasonable yoke of honest and useful labor for the common weal . . . We look to the evangel of re-education, of reformation, of raising the moral standard of the race where the battle with temptation is hottest and victory over evil the hardest.
>
> They serve best who discern the principles of conduct which are wise and safe and wholesome for all nations. . . . They also serve, though not so well, who give sharp outlines and articulate expression to erroneous demands; for where falsehood stands out bold, naked, undisguised, it looks the hideous monster it really is. . . .
>
> It has been said that state justice has but one task, to punish its enemies; that reformation, if this is possible, should be left to philanthropists, sentimentalists, dreamers. This state of mind ignores certain facts,—that the state alone has control of the forces which influence the character of the prisoner. The state alone can direct his conduct; the state is only another name for the *organ of public duty and will;* it is not moral as a machine



Photograph by Gessler.

SAMUEL JUNE BARROWS.

Late American commissioner of the International Prison Commission, who was elected president at the Budapest congress of 1905 and through whose efforts the international body was brought to Washington this year. In Mr. Barrows's death in 1909, Americans and foreign delegates alike mourned the loss not only of a rare leader but many of them a personal friend. For fifteen years he was the chief interpreter of American theory and practice to the penologists of Europe.

but it expresses the morality of the people who create and maintain its institutions and make its laws. The state is responsible for what happens to the prisoner while he is under entire control,—if it turns him out crippled in body, dwarfed in thought, without skill or industry, filled with revenge.

In this congress of eager, gesticulating Latins, there was something thrilling in the restraint of the American president, through the remarkable organ-tones of whose delivery ran yet a gamut of emotion and stirring appeal. "History ceases where our problems begin," he said, "Our spiritual ancestors have not only bequeathed us fortunes of truth, but also grave questions as an inheritance. We have not come to the end." In its final analysis,

the chief instrument and sanction of modern penal law is reduction to slavery. Capital punishment is rare; torture is forbidden; slow starvation is illegal. Only bondage, therefore, that is deprivation of free movement and choice of one's occupation and recreation, remains. But do we really know in a scientific sense what are the actual effects of this slavery in preventing repetition of the offense by fear? In deterring potential offenders? In building up character and fitting for freedom?

This, then, was the essence of the questions before the congress. It met to discuss how far such slavery as society holds better, relatively, than freedom abused, can be safely diminished, or can be rendered unnecessary; how far what remains may be made to effect something for the good of the individual and the public order. Those who are interested in analogies and contrasts could find them in this gathering of representatives of Europe, of "bearers of memories" of the mighty Asian empires, and of "pioneers

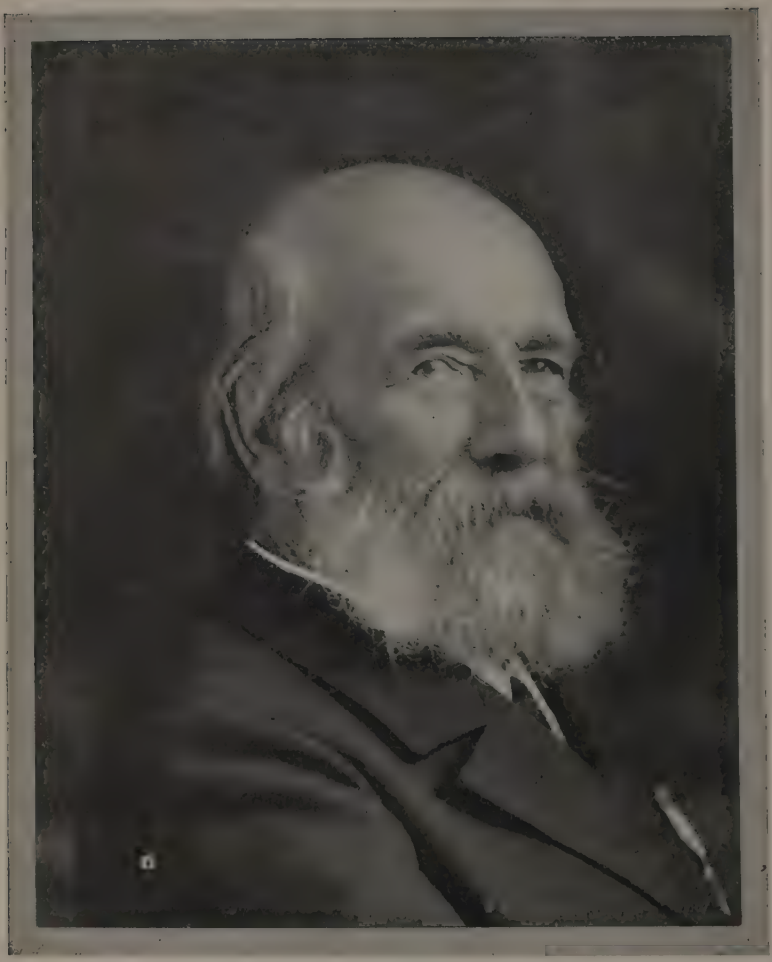
of modern progress'' in Africa, met to discuss the technique of penal slavery in the American capital which has stood for liberty, and which went through the throes of civil war to eliminate a slavery of another form. No wonder the discussions reached to the fundamentals of government. Yet the address of the American president, as of his English successor, published on an earlier page, indicated that the ultimate and final test of penal law is not to be its conformity to either constitutions or ancient usages. It will not be the triumph of one theoretical school over another. The test, they held, must reach deeper, down into the actual human results of law and practice in accomplishing or defeating the objects for which they are devised. The treatment of the criminal, like the treatment of the sick, must be the expression of massed and classified experience as to cause and effect. How great a stride this is in the history of civilization and of law was shown by Dean Kirchwey in his analysis of the different policies of imprisonment to which men have held. He showed that neither criminal law nor judicial decisions have historically been grounded on any basis which in any field of science would be considered sound.

CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON.

President of the Washington congress. On Mr. Barrows's death, Dr. Henderson succeeded him as American commissioner and head of the International Commission. He gave fire, dignity and spiritual earnestness to the gathering of forty nations over which he presided. As professor of sociology at the University of Chicago, student of foreign conditions and institutions familiar with the languages of Europe and active member of the American Prison Association, Dr. Henderson brought a remarkable equipment to his difficult task.

* * *

The work of the four sections of the congress is reviewed on following pages; it is only necessary, therefore, in this article to give their setting and bring out, not too connectedly, some of their most striking points. For prisons and courts and reformatories are intensely human institutions, and much that makes up the



Photograph by Campbell.

DR. GUILLAUME, SWITZERLAND.

Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Swiss Republic. Dr. Guillaume has acted as secretary of the International Prison Commission since the first London congress of 1872. In his eighty-third year, he made the trip to this country, a patriarch among the international leaders. As honary president of the commission he will continue his services to the causes it stands for.—A wonderful old man.

tragedy of existence lay close to the surface of even the driest of the discussions. Such stuff must not be put down in too logical an order.

As branches of a semi-official body, strong in its European traditions, the International Congress presented a marked contrast to the annual meeting of the American Prison Association, immediately preceding it. The latter, like most of our American conferences, is an organization largely for debate and discussion; and its committee on resolutions has become to a great extent a contrivance for quashing the same. Small time is wasted in splitting hairs over formulae; the sessions are given up to the exchange of experience and the discussion of principles and practice. An assembly of this sort gets close to realities, but does not bring things to a head; and continentals would perhaps get up from it, feeling that nothing had been accomplished. In contrast the International Prison Congress is a legislative assembly, or a better analogy would be to compare it to an American political convention in its work of drafting planks for its party platform. Its acts have no binding force on any of the nations adhering to the congress. One of the quaint bits of humor of the Washington meeting was the industry with which the Italian delegates whipped out little red copies of the penal code of Italy and cited it—quite ineffectually, but with the seriousness of texts from holy writ,—as reasons for barring some of the positions taken. But while the resolutions have no binding force, they have official standing as an expression of the opinion of a majority

of the delegates; and since each official delegate makes a report to his government, they influence legislation. Therefore, the sessions practically resolve themselves into debates over the wording of the common judgments of the members. To this end, the congress is divided into sections corresponding roughly to the subjects and interests represented. In the early congresses, there were three of these, covering penal legislation, prison administration, and the prevention of crime. In 1895, a fourth section was added, that on the treatment of children and minors. Its establishment was, of course, due to the increased importance placed on getting at causes of crime, rather than on treating results; and it has been in this fourth section that many of the newer ideas in penal reform have won their first recognition and amplest development.

Photograph by McFarlin.

Z. R. BROCKWAY.

When the Elmira Reformatory was opened in 1876—the first of the world's great reformatories—Mr. Brockway was called to the superintendency and for more than a quarter of a century gave method and meaning to the theories in penal reform for which America has stood. Now in his eighty-fourth year, he was an active member of the Washington congress.

In his opening address, Professor Henderson gave apt characterization to the different sections, in charging them with their several obligations.

Of the first, he said:

Those of us who, in the field of law, are merely laymen or amateurs, bow with sincere and profound respect before the genius and learning of jurists; we invoke their skill, erudition and scientific training; in the name of patriotism and humanity we request their aid in the phrasing and interpretation of statutes.

Of the second:

But this International Congress has always esteemed the counsels of men who have experience and knowledge of the offender himself; the prison official, the expert in criminal anthropology, the physician, the teacher. It is in the prison, not in the court, that the

Photograph by Campbell.

EUGENE BOREL, SWITZERLAND.

Editor-in-chief of the International Prison Congress; professor of international law, Geneva University. In these congresses in which two, three, and sometimes more languages are spoken, it is Dr. Borel of all men who can loosen the tangled threads of debate and bring order out of confusion.

convict reveals his real nature; it is there the hollow phrases of the law become scorpions and flames to sensitive nerves, and spiritual susceptibilities. We never really know what the penal sanction means until we apply it in its severity to human beings.

Of the third:

We also recognize in these assemblies the specialists in the study of the social conditions which produce the criminal disposition, and into which the discharged prisoner must return when the iron gate swings open to release him. Before the court and after the prison we must investigate the environment of the potential and actual offenders.

Of the fourth, and all together:

We recognize the specialists in the scientific study of tempted and perverted childhood, and of the institutions and measures for the guidance and correction of youth.

Still further, we see that each of these groups of specialists must co-operate with all the others, must compare opinions, must humbly learn, must modify traditional maxims in the light of broader experience . . . "New occasions teach new duties, time makes ancient good uncouth" . . . Courageous to defend our own conclusions, eager to learn new truths, courteous in the presence of opposition, we are at the gate of our high duty. Forward! The Eighth International Prison Congress is open.

It must not be supposed that the various sections go at their debates helter skelter. The work is highly organized during the five year intervals between the congresses. Funds are appropriated by the governments adhering. Each appoints a representative on the International Commission, which meets about every two years, and formulates the various questions which are to be discussed at the succeeding congress. These are announced at least a year in advance, and reports and monographs are invited on each question. The papers are not read

at the congress but are published as "separates" in French; and tables in the different rooms in the Pan-American Building were loaded with these thin pamphlets, with their unfamiliar red and blue tape bindings. French is the official lan- and to meet the exigencies of an American meeting, where native-born polyglots would be few, the American Prison Association commissioned Mrs. Barrows to digest and translate each paper. It was a capital stroke of enterprise, the work was remarkably well done, and these little leaflets not only put the American delegates in touch with the point of view of the foreigners with whom they were to join in discussion, but gave them, more definitely than the discussions themselves, glimpses of European thought and experience on each problem.

Photograph by Gessford.

ISABEL C. BARROWS.

On the death of Mr. Barrows in 1909, Mrs. Barrows was called to Paris to attend a meeting of International Prison Commission and lay before it the plans which her husband had initiated and advanced for the Washington meeting. For in this life work, as in all else, husband and wife were co-workers. Mrs. Barrows digested and translated into English the many papers contributed to the Washington congress; and acted as assistant editor of the *Bulletin*.

The working program was for the sections to meet separately in the mornings. Papers bearing upon the questions had been placed in the hands of sixteen special reviewers appointed in advance,—three of them American women,—who analyzed them and presented the results as the basis for discussion, each with a series of recommended resolutions. An interpreter, gifted not only in languages but with knowledge of the subjects before the congress, was present at each section, translating to and from French and English, so that if a delegate knew either tongue he could follow the course of the debate. This was true also of the general assembly which met in the afternoon, and to which each section reported whenever its members had reached a majority agreement on any resolution.

Here the text had to run a second cross-fire from delegates who had been in attendance at other sections; and a resolution was either adopted, amended or sent back for redrafting to the section from which it came.

* * *

The scene of sharpest conflict was the first section on criminal law; and the bone of contention the question of the indeterminate sentence, which had failed of endorsement at the previous congresses. For three days the debate was on, a Belgian, a Hollander and an Italian successively taking the chair in an effort to bring the discussion to a head. It recalled the second Peace Congress at the Hague, when it is said, as the result of three weeks labors, the delegates added the two words "and desirable" to a resolution declaring that "arbitration is a useful thing among nations." Imagine, if you will, a long narrow table, the length of five Thanksgiving dinners, with the chairman at one side in the center, from which point of disadvantage it would be difficult to hold both ends of the most phlegmatic assembly to order. More than once during the first two days, twenty delegates were on their feet and as many interpreters would have been needed to keep abreast of the discussion. At one end of the table was a group of Chinese and Japanese, alert but silent; that they did not understand and weigh every item of the small-fire of tongues you could not have guessed from the relaxation of an eyelash. At the other end of the table was an equally quiet group of Americans, two professors, a prison reformer, two or three wardens—a little bit bewildered, looking like a group of business men at a symphony concert, but with an air that the points at controversy had long been threshed out among them, and that they were willing to wait for the others to go through what was for the older countries a harder process of readjustment. To a visitor, the long table with its knots of taciturn men at each end provoked speculation as to whether this temperamental spectrum was likely to be repeated in any future congress of the nations. In the middle ground were all grades of animation. Directly opposite the chairman was a group of six or eight Latins. They spoke with their eyebrows, their hands, their elbows; they spoke with an intensity which an Anglo-Saxon would use only when angry; they joined in a chorus of tongue-tipped "n-n-n-no's" when they differed with the interpreter in his statement of the case; they relapsed, unruffled, when the chairman, with half of their fellow-delegates following suit, rapped them to order, after a private debate with a next door neighbor. As the time went on this group drew closer together, chairs overlapped, and they presented a compact, tense, explosive battery of theory and argument, opposed to any wide departure from established principles. The conservative view most largely held—and that in itself was something of a change—was for a specified or determinate criminal sentence by the court, followed (where deemed essential as a protection against the proved incorrigible or mentally defective character of the convict) by a further (supplementary) term, dependent for its duration on the amendment of the prisoner. The view which was carried, in contrast to this, favored a sentence of indeterminate duration dependent on the prisoner's reformation, although the length of such a sentence should be indeterminate only up to a certain maximum duration, fixed at the trial, leaving to the board of parole discretion to release the prisoner in the interval. The progressive wing of American penologists have gone further than this and have stood for an absolutely indeterminate sentence, properly safeguarded. They could, of course, have outvoted the foreigners, but refrained from arguing their position beyond making it known; indeed, Professor Sherman of Yale, who analyzed the papers on question 1, held to the conservative position stated above.

Recruits to the aggressive theory of social control developed in an unexpected quarter. The burden of battle was taken up by two young delegates from oldest Europe, Gleispach of Austria and Vambéry of Hungary, who matched the Latins in gesture and animation, and outdistanced the Americans in pressing the theory of the indeterminate sentence to

what they held to be its logical conclusion. It was in German, after all, rather than in French or English, that the position was carried. More, they succeeded in adding a clause to the effect that, in the course of time and with more extended experience, the maximum and minimum limits might be dispensed with altogether, and the length of a prisoner's confinement (like that of an insane patient, or a person with contagious disease) be left to the discretion of a parole board.

Great tangles of world old controversy lay back of this rather technical discussion, this tissue of words which the delegates pulled back and forth between them. More had to be reckoned with than overcoming the inertia of traditional ways. Here was a red skein reaching back to the *lettre de cachet,* indeterminate sentences, forsooth, passed on a man at the whim of monarch or cardinal or mistress and sealing him up, without trial, till the Bastile had whitened his hair. Small wonder that a people which had wrested personal liberty as a result of centuries of uprisings, should be chary as to their hardly-won safeguards. Here were threads leading off to elemental religious teachings of sin, punishment and repentance; off to old juridical notions of vengeance and fear as the state's best buffer against the foes of its social order. Here were strands that led out to isolated powers of government, legislative, executive and judicial, jealous of encroachment the one upon the other. In the end, as against these tangled purposes, it was perhaps the spirit of democracy which triumphed, which can trust its delegated servants with powers greater than those which Old World subjects would leave in the hands of their authorities; the spirit of science, which tests all things and has found the old systems of criminal courts and prisons to be ineffectual; the spirit of invention, which in the probation officers and parole boards has devised new agencies of government, with more flexible uses; and the spirit of humanity which sees that it is criminals, not crimes, with which society must deal; men, not offenses; men surprisingly like the rest of us, who can be held and helped and re-established in life. "There is no criminal type," was the ringing message of the British delegation, fresh from Pearson's statistics of a hundred prisons.

* * *

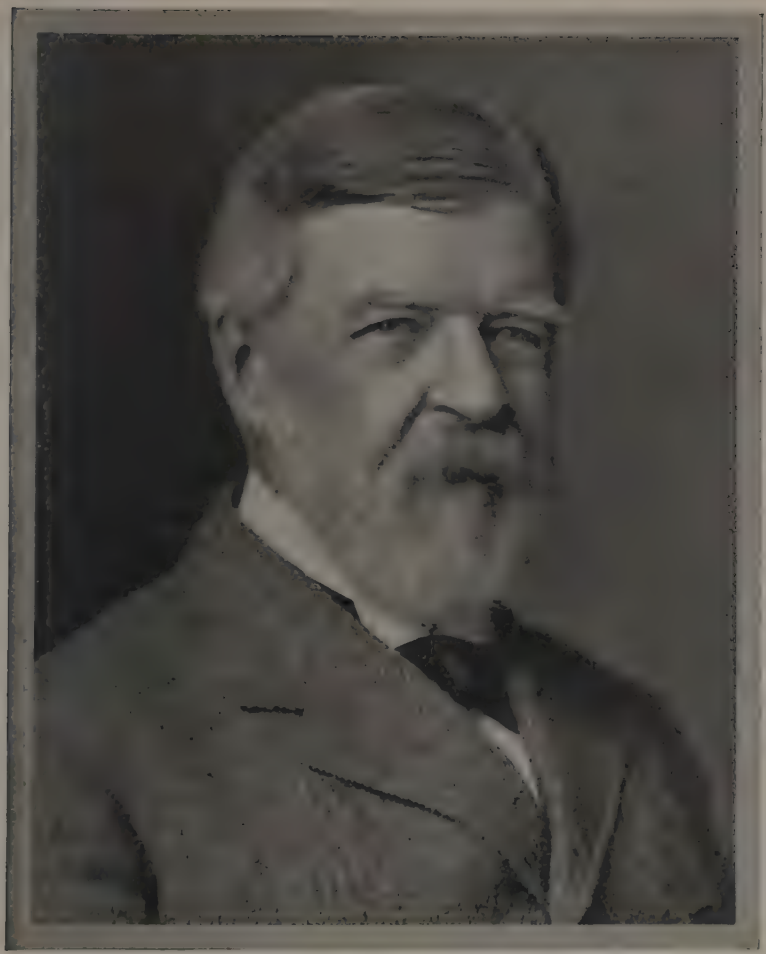
Baldly stated, under the old system, a man is tried for a specific offense; of that a jury must find him guilty or innocent; the judge, if guilt is established, passes sentence of imprisonment; of its length he is the sole dictator, but there his powers end; the enforcement of the sentence is in the hands of the prison administration, an arm of the executive branch of the government, which cannot modify the penalty by an eye or a tooth or a day's breadth. So long as the purpose of imprisonment was punishment, the judge was perhaps in the best position to make a guess at what the man merited according to the twisted ethics of the old criminal codes. With reformation as the motive and justification for imposing sentence, the whole situation changes. Reformation of the man cannot be measured off in advance any more than education of the mind and convalescence of the body, both of which it embraces. People are not sent to a hospital for two months but until they are over the smallpox. Therefore in the most progressive American practice, and it must be remembered that this is not yet true in all states, once the jury has brought in its verdict, the judge can act with new and flexible powers. If he thinks imprisonment is unnecessary to prepare the man for right behavior thereafter, he may suspend sentence and put him on probation, that is, under the supervision of an officer of the court, until he proves that he no longer needs oversight. By so much then is a great mass of needless penal slavery done away with. But once the judge decides that forcible segregation of the offender from the community is the only way out, he sets a maximum term for the same, in accordance with limits which the Legislature has itself prescribed. But as to when, within that term, the man shall be released neither Legislature nor judge has anything to say. The decision as to release rests with the parole board, also with flexible powers, which is identified with

the prison administration rather than with the court, and which bases its decisions not on the offense committed, but on the new fitness of the man for society as evidenced by what he does with himself in prison. His term may be short and followed by supervision by parole officers, thus cutting away another great mass of legal slavery; or it may be long, as in the case of a young fellow who needs building-up by a rounded educational process; or, as in the case of the recidivist who should be permanently quarantined from free society, and whose commitment for even heavy determinate sentences for specific offenses is a ridiculous protection to those he preys upon. Ways are open, then, by which a free people may readjust that residual penal slavery which by their suffrages they declare to be better than liberty abused, and may endeavor to make it serve the ends for which so perilous an infringement upon human liberty is resorted to. "Half the people in prison should never have been sent there," said Chairman Gibbons of the Irish Prison Board. "A large proportion of the remainder ought never to be let out." Thus, we come down to the primary issues of law and liberty which underlay the Prison Congress.

* * *

But, as it turned out, it was not so much the clashing of ideas as the common ground, which the Washington meeting emphasized. In that, Professor Henderson's opening address was prophetic. The sessions cleared up the misconceptions of many Europeans, who had viewed the indeterminate sentence as wholly antagonistic to their political and juristic systems. For Americans, the debates brought sharply forward the necessity for developing the standards and methods of their probation and parole boards. As arms of government, they should not compare unfavorably with existing agencies of authority. On the other hand, foreign jurists and administrators gained a juster apprehension of the work of these boards; that they need not be arbitrary, nor sacrifice the older safeguards. Old leaders among the penologists of Europe, like Dr. Guillaume, and young men like Gleispach and Vambery, have upheld the principle of the indeterminate sentence in their writings. It now developed, more clearly than ever before, that in actual practice the thing itself, as distinct from its name, has been winning its way among European prison administrators. So soon as continental prisons adopted the "ticket of leave" plan and let a man out on good conduct, then the old idea was broken down; the judge's dictum no longer stood, come what may. Similarly, the supplementary penalties which have been developed in the Low Countries are of the nature of the indeterminate sentence. While Americans disbelieve in giving the police the supervisory powers entrusted to them in Germany and certain other countries—holding that a distinct arm of the government, part of the prison administration, should be commissioned to do this work—the idea is similar. The Borstal system for treating young offenders, established in England, Ireland and Scotland, is kindred to our reformatories; so are the institutions for juvenile delinquents in many of the countries of Europe, while one of the Scandinavian systems would seem to do away with the need of courts in dealing with children.

So it was that while the lawyers and theorists wrangled about names and theories up and down the long, narrow table, the section on prison administration passed resolutions of similar tenor dealing with the thing in practice. And they did it in half the time, thanks to the president of the American Prison Association, Mr. Butler, who in the enforced absence of the reviewer upon the question, sat up all night, and digested the contributed papers. In voting, the American delegates made it clear that in several of our states law and practice are in advance of the resolutions as adopted; they were not, they held, committing themselves to a backward step, but by putting the congress on record were to this extent assisting other countries in making the advance. The section on prevention, where the treatment of crime was brought up flush with other social problems, broke still further away from the old forms and traditions. Inebriety, labor colonies, the support of prisoners'



FREDERICK HOWARD WINES.

Of the delegates at the Washington Prison Congress, two had been present at the Cincinnati meeting in 1870 out of which grew in turn the American Prison Association and the International Prison Congress. These were Mr. Brockway and Dr. Wines. Few sons have had it in their power so to advance the causes for which their fathers have stood, as Dr. Wines. In prison reform, in the administration of public charities, in the Federal Census and in other fields of sociological and literary interest, his work has been national in scope, and versatile in character. He presented a special report to the Washington congress on the death penalty, and in a very special sense, represented the American position during the debates in the section on criminal law, which resulted in the commitment of the International body to the principle of the indeterminate sentence.

families were discussed in their practical hearings. So, too, did the section on children where the administrators of institutions for young offenders were equalled in numbers by juvenile court judges and probation officers, and where physicians and educators served further to wean the discussions from any formal legal aspects. And it was natural for the common judgments of these sections to deal even more intimately with the technique of the new régime, which is perhaps best embodied today in our more progressive children's courts. Without any concert whatever, three of the sections discussed the need for physical examination of prisoners by competent medical authority. The trend is to regard the prison problems as bound up with those of health and education and economic conditions as well as with those of morals. The discussions and their participants gave evidence of the rise of a new profession. Its needs found expression in Professor Henderson's closing plea for scientific training and social outlook among practical administrators, and Professor Vambéry's public lecture on the Professional Training of Prison Officers. The latter agreed with Havelock Ellis that the average "prison officer of today is about as well fitted for the treatment of criminality as the hospital nurse of a century ago was fitted for the treatment of disease." He said:

KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS.

Superintendent, State Reformatory for Women, Bedford, N. Y.; chairman of the section on treatment of children and minors, of the Washington congress. Dr. Davis's appointment was a recognition of the part which American women have played in prison reform. The discussion in both French and English make such a chairmanship an exacting office, and the excellence of her work as presiding officer provoked not a little comment. She was also one of the reviewers of the second section.

In India a "security bond" of from 150 to 500 rupees is exacted from any prison officer as a guarantee for the faithful performance of his duties. What I demand is a moral guarantee of his knowledge and fitness, without which it is impossible for him satisfactorily to fulfill his professional duties.

* * *

To Professor Vambéry's mind, most so-called prison systems have not been systems at all, but the products of strong personalities endowed with much knowledge of human nature and a talent for organization.

In point he cited the instance when, in the forties of the last century, Obermeyer was appointed governor of the old penitentiary at Munich. He found there from six to seven hundred chained prisoners who, although there were 120 wardens, lived in the greatest insubordination. By his energetic action, Obermeyer gained the confidence of the prisoners, took off their chains, dismissed half of the jailors, and appointed convicts as wardens of the workrooms, with the result that only about seven per cent of the convicts relapsed after discharge. Obermeyer's work and that of Colonel Montesinos in Spain, which took place at about the same time, have been considered by various writers as the beginnings of reformatory treatment.

In his public lecture on the history of prison reform in Holland, Professor van der Aa found still earlier traces. There, he stated, in the last part of the sixteenth century, imprisonment was first instituted as a form of punishment. For imprisonment was itself a great stride forward, as against capital punishment, corporal punishment, more or less painful degradation, banishment and fine, which had made up the traditional series of penalties. Burying alive and boiling in a caldron were practiced; burning or roasting were frequent when the sword or rope were thought to give too easy and speedy a death; crushing or cutting off limbs, splitting the nose, piercing the tongue, nailing a man's ear to a pillory—the list carried the congress from its new fields of experimentation back into the shadows of the dark ages, when sincere men thought they were doing righteous things in inflicting torture. The fact is one which should make thinking men pause today in claiming too much light or justification for methods in vogue, whatever dignities and sanctions we may throw about them.

The general state of affairs in the course of those centuries reveals the fruitlessness of such treatment of crime. In Amsterdam, the application of punishments in great numbers brought a reaction. In 1589, the Board of Aldermen

objected to sentencing to death a youth guilty of theft and urged the burgomasters and council to:

> find an appropriate way that such juveniles might be constrained to steady labor in order that they thereby should be brought to give up their evil habits and that an amendment of their lives might be expected.

To this end one of the old spacious cloisters which had been evacuated since the Reformation was opened for use in 1596. Here was a "new institution and a new penalty," which "doing away with the principle of destruction maintained the principle of deterrence, for the labor was hard and the discipline severe, but added another principle, that of amendment." The duration of incarceration was not fixed beforehand, and here, curiously enough, Professor van der Aa pointed out, we find a first trace of that burning issue of the present congress,—the indeterminate sentence. Labor constituted the chief element of treatment; the men were put to rasping dye-wood and weaving various stuffs. More, pecuniary rewards were allowed the prisoners for the work done. Thus, another of the vital questions engaging American prison reformers today—that of payment to prisoners, especially the men who have been bread-winners—was raised by this early Dutch experience before even the founding of a new Netherlands. It was from the "Rasphouses" and "Spinhouses" in the Lowlands and the Hanse towns, which grew up from these beginnings in Amsterdam, that John Howard drew many of the constructive principles for which his writings won a hearing in Europe, and later in America.

* * *

The beginnings of prison reform in this country were recalled at the joint meetings in which the National Prison Association and the International Congress participated. President Butler brought out that since the establishment of the Elmira Reformatory by New York in 1877, twenty-one states have adopted some phase of the indeterminate sentence, and none has taken a backward step; fourteen reformatories for adult male offenders have been established. This record presents a contrast to the arraignment by Signor Scalia, who in 1870 at Cincinnati reviewed fifteen congresses held in Europe between 1835 and 1869 in which crime had been considered. But what has actually been done, he asked, to control its predisposing causes? answering his own query in the negative.

The Washington congress was made an occasion for the publication of four souvenir volumes on Correction and Prevention, edited by Professor Henderson as chairman of a sub-committee of the American Prison Association. They were written by the leaders of prison re-

AMOS W. BUTLER.

President of the Washington meeting of the American Prison Association. His address linked the treatment of convicts to the conservation movement.

form in this country and published by the Russell Sage Foundation. They set forth at length theory and experience as they have developed in the United States, and are invaluable to any American who, in his own state, would trace the issues raised by the Washington congress, and see how far his commonwealth is abreast of the standards of national and international advance. It is unnecessary, therefore, to quote at length from the addresses at Washington of the American leaders. There were few actual prison managers among the foreign delegates, who were mostly jurists, professors and central administrators. The American wardens at Washington were a representative group of men, and in vigor and intelligence they left their impress upon the Europeans. Major R. W. McClaughry of the Federal Prison at Leavenworth, dean of the American wardens in active service, gave a statement of the elements entering into the treatment of the criminal, which, if compared with the three factors named by the British prison commissioner, shows the shifting of emphasis characteristic of New World experience. "We have learned that prisons should be considered the last resort," said he, " and that while there abide, and probably ever must abide, penalty, reformation, prevention, the greatest of these is prevention."

There was profound attention when the venerable ex-warden of Elmira gave his "impressions of the prison reform movement after half a century of active participation succeeded by a decade of reminiscent dissociated consideration." A considerable portion of what Mr. Brockway said was devoted to showing that during the century or so of the penitentiary system, there has been more progress in ideas than in practice as to both criminal jurisprudence and penitentiary administration, and that the advancement actually made in both respects is not known among the people generally. On these points he said:

> The actual difference between the old and the newer penitentiary theory and practice is not yet common enough, nor positive enough to make a profound impression. . . . Even in the best of our modern reformatory penitentiaries, where enough of wisdom exists to know what should be done; enough of skill, potential or slumbering, exists properly to execute it; the virtue of doing it and doing it now is apparently absent or deficient.
>
> The demand of the hour—that to which prison managers should devote themselves—is a more thorough and scientific reformatory administration of the prisons, for when that is achieved, public confidence will be gained and the true foundation will be laid; namely, the absolute indeterminate in place of the present bastardly indeterminate sentence.
>
> It is, perhaps, well that, pending perfecting of prison administration, some limitations of sentences, harmful though these are, should remain. Whenever the laws and reformatory penitentiaries shall be so administered that prisoners are only committed because they are dangerous if left at large; once committed shall never, barring unavoidable accidents, again appear as criminals at large; and always be conditionally or absolutely discharged when they are really safe,—then, and not until then, will the penitentiary system prove really repressive of crimes and be worth its monetary cost and the painstaking effort involved.

Mr. Brockway and Dr. Guillaume were the patriarchs of the congress. Both were young in hope. To Mr. Brockway's mind, the principles and conditions which must ultimately prevail, are:

> a reduced ratio to the general population of prisoners in custody and a reduced average quality of those imprisoned; to be effected by invention and activity of preventive measures, particularly the technical and civic training of public school pupils; a new preventive police function; extension of the probation plan; and care of discharged prisoners. The court practice will be confined to the discharge, probation, or committal of offenders, leaving their classification and treatment to another properly constituted authority. Incorrigible convicts may be employed for profit to the state but not those undergoing the scientific reformatory treatment. For these trade training, regardless of profit, is advised and it is healthy for the public sentiment about crimes that the cost of it all shall be borne by the public and preferably by each civic division according to its record of crimes. The reformatory of the future will be a "moral orthopedic institute" where deformed and wayward feet are straightened out and put in proper paths; and it will be a laboratory for study of socially dangerous human defectiveness,—a research station for discovering the anti-social bacilli and at the same time for searching for nature's counteracting serum.

Mr. Brockway's address was thus distinctly a statement of the scientific ap-

proach to reformatory work. To him it is essentially "a human work not shiftable upon the superhuman or the subconscious mind." "The reformatory prison science reaches to biology and the constructive foundations of society"; "the translation of the moral terms which the race has worked for, into unconscious habits of action," is, to quote President Hyde, "the crowning step in the conquest of character." Mr. Brockway was followed by Frederick Howard Wines, another of the half dozen Americans still living who were present at the Cincinati congress. While not deprecating the scientific spirit, Mr. Wines voiced the deeply religious convictions which had led his illustrious father and some of his colleagues to undertake their optimistic movements in behalf of the criminal. There was something fine in this good tempered but assertive clash, as to the underlying motives which had led these two men to engage each a lifetime in this common work for humanity. Dr. Wines has had forty years of active labor and every one of them, he maintained, has deepened his conviction:

> that it is vain to cleanse the outside of the cup and platter unless we reach the heart, the conscience and the soul of those for whom we are working. Reformation may not begin at the center. It may be necessary to work upon the body before you reach the mind. It may be necessary to inform the mind before you reach the soul, but reformation is never accomplished until the heart has been reached and regenerated by the grace of Almighty God. . . . Human nature is not a single thing. We are not mere animals, but living spirits and have within us a spark which emanates from the Divine. Science cannot formulate the laws of this double human life. We talk of the scientific care of the unfortunate and criminal, which is well enough, if we refer only to that with which science has to do; but science will never touch the soul of man. Nothing but religion can do that. . . . The redemption of man can only be effected through the power of love. . . . Love and law must be married to each other. Love without law is degradation, but law without love is brutalizing. I offer one sentiment for your acceptance and adoption. I pray that it may influence your thinking and your action, after all of us have passed away who are here to-night. It is the wish for a sacramental union between love and law, in this country and throughout all the world, which may enable us to say of them—"Whom God hath joined together, let no man put asunder."

* * *

So, by one of the strange juxtapositions of life, it was old men of the New World and young men of the Old, who spoke on the same themes at the Washington congress. It has taken a generation and more, but the Americans have won. But it was no part of the preachment of these pioneer leaders that we have reached a point in this country where we can rest on our laurels. They have ever been fighters and will stay so to the end. Mr. Brockway likened the present situation to the darkness before the dawn.

It remains, therefore, in keeping with this spirit to set forth succinctly a few of the constructive criticisms made by the foreign delegates of American institutions and methods—not in their addresses, but under prompting in personal conversations. Dr. van der Aa's impressions are set forth on another page, and here I shall limit my quotations to a few matters, such as the county jails, the cells, the size of prisons, prison labor and the death penalty.

To quote Thomas Holmes, secretary of the Howard Association of London:

> The great conviction which thrust itself upon the mind of every one of the foreign delegates with whom I have spoken was the extraordinary quality of your reformatories and the extraordinary defects of your town and county jails. Every jail I saw ought to be wiped off the face of the earth. So far as I can learn, having spoken to the delegates representative of the continent, nowhere in Europe do such conditions exist. I need not describe them. They are all alike. In the jail at Louisville we found a number of prisoners in back to back cells, lighted very poorly. The cell doors were open. The prisoners came out and walked about in barred enclosures inside a big cage. They were in semi-darkness, a little light coming from the windows outside. One man who had been there nine months told me that they were kept there in idleness, no recreation, no outer air. My inquiries led me to believe that there were other jails of about the same structure, and that this course of procedure was quite common. If America wishes to accomplish one great humanitarian triumph, it may do so by a great reform in this direction.

The nature of this criticism lies deeper than either jail structure or administration. It lies in the system. In Great Britain when a man is arrested he can

be kept in a local lock-up only a short period; then he is drafted to the nearest prison, and treated as a trial prisoner under detention. He does not associate with convicted men; nor are convicts made to serve their sentences in the local jails. Said J. S. Gibbons, chairman of the Prison Board of Ireland:

I tell you what I think you lose sight of in this country—that all these splendid reformatories deal with merely a drop in the ocean compared with the county and city jails to which your thousands of prisoners go and where many are manufactured. We were exactly in the same condition up to 1877 when we brought county and city jails out from under local authorities in the United Kingdom. We found the antecedent to all reform was state centralization. In 1877 every prison and jail was put under central administrative authority and the expenses paid out of the imperial funds. Three acts were passed simultaneously for the three kingdoms. We then began at the bottom, closing all the superfluous ones, and in that way we were able to close about half. I have to give every person, whether tried or untried and especially the untried, a separate room to sleep in, and I would lose my job if I put two prisoners in a cell. We are obliged by law to keep tried and untried separate. They never see each other. I am obliged by law to give every prisoner two hours' exercise in the open air every day. And I am obliged by law to make every convicted prisoner work even if he is sentenced only for two days, and to offer every untried prisoner work. A man might be in the Tombs for months and never get out doors. I am full of admiration for what the New York prison authorities have done for improving the Tombs, putting in windows and tinkering here and there. But they ought to pull the thing down. In these days of rapid communication there is no need of prisons in the center of a city. They may be moved out to the suburbs. And once a man is regularly committed by a magistrate, the local officials ought to turn him over to the prison authorities.

The same reforms were urged from the point of view of prison construction by Major H. S. Rogers, chief surveyor of the English Prison System. In the first place, he advocates smaller blocks of cells, not over thirty cell spaces in size and not over three tiers high. Some he saw in this country were five high, the galleries shutting off the air, and making oversight difficult. But it was the general system of barred interior cells prevalent not only in the county jails but in prisons and reformatories, that he criticised most rigorously. In the first place he believes concrete is better than iron to build cells with. He said:

Inside cells are something which I never saw before coming to this country. Cells in England and continental Europe are built in from the outer wall. Here many are built in the center with iron bars in front of them. In most prisons the cells have no access to the outer air.

Our plan makes it easier to supervise because you have one corridor down between two rows of cells, instead of aisles all around the sides. You can spot the man who makes a row.

We have a door and not a cage and never more than one man in a cell. I saw seven or eight women in a cell at Blackwell's Island. Repeatedly we saw two men in a cell and the cells, at that, are exceedingly small. I would rather put three men in than two. One of them may be an old offender, a dirty beast. What is the result?

The prison at Michigan City was spoken of favorably by one of the foreign delegates, but the cells in most of the old fashioned prisons throughout the country were declared to be sufficient in neither light nor air. This was said to be equally true of some of the newly constructed buildings. New York state is today planning to build its new great state's prison involving an expense of millions on this utterly wrong principle.

The cells at the Elmira Reformatory were found altogether unfit by Mr. Holmes. He said of them:

You elevate men as you do there in mind and principle and then submit them to cells with no covering for the sanitary conveniences and with iron lattice doors through which every one of their movements may be seen. That seems to me demoralizing. Having done so much, you might to great advantage abolish the cells, take away the ever present sense of being caged, and give more refined conditions for the solitary time of the men. The cages tend more to make men try to escape than either small bedrooms or even dormitories. You people don't like the name of prison. You like euphemism. But your reformatories are prisons to all intents and purposes so long as you keep the men in cells and cages. It is borne in upon them. The same remark applies to a good many other reformatories beside Elmira. Every condition seems to me good except the prevalence and multiplication of bars.

Another point of criticism of the state congregate institutions was the tendency here in America to build very large pris-

ons running up to a thousand, 1,200 and 1,400 cells. The progressive tendency in prison administration is toward classification of inmates. Large cell buildings save initial cost, but make it difficult to separate the classes effectively. More than that, however constructed, a big prison under one head was held to be objectionable. Major Rogers put the maximum at 500 or 600 persons for a local prison; 700 or 800 for a convict prison where men work in large parties.

* * *

This point was developed from the angle of reformatory administration by Dr. Vanbéry of Hungary. To quote:

> My conviction is that reformatories should give the utmost possible individual treatment. That was the idea that Wines, Sanborn, and others had at the congress at '70. But individualization is not possible with a prison population of six or seven hundred prisoners. We have been in three reformatories, Elmira, Mansfield and Jeffersonville. I asked if the men were divided into groups and what was the principle of the division. They said they were not divided. For example, they are together at meal time and recreation. Criminals in reformatories are very different in character; not bad to the same degree.
>
> Further, the result of reformatory treatment depends on parole. The board of parole itself cannot form judgments by its own experience, it must rely on the opinion given by the superintendent. It is impossible for one superintendent, however wise and careful he may be, to judge the character of 700 prisoners.
>
> My suggestion would be to form smaller groups, as in the industrial school near Rochester—Industry—which is the most remarkable institution I ever saw in my life. There is nothing to compare with it in Europe. These boys live in small families. Every family has two supervisors, a man and a woman. The life which these families live is real family life. For the money spent on the magnificent Mansfield Reformatory two simpler institutions could have been laid out along these more effective lines.

* * *

Dr. Vambéry is an ardent advocate of the indeterminate sentence. He is in accord with the spirit of reformatory treatment. But like Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise, he calls for a scientific demonstration of the output of the American institutions, for statistics not only to convince the world as to the soundness of the theory back of them, but to test and prove the various factors entering into the treatment of the men. On this point he said:

> In Europe the general opinion is that reformatory treatment in the United States has had most remarkable results. I am sorry to say it was impossible for us to judge these results. You have no statistics whatever.

Similarly, Mr. Holmes made a plea for a clear definition of the powers of parole and probation officers, and for their supervision by responsible boards or commissions. To quote him:

> On returning to England I will advocate the appointment of paid probation officers, the training of such officers before their appointment, and a board to appoint them; certainly not leave their appointment to a judge who appoints all his own officers. The position should be dignified and fairly remunerative; the same should be true of that of parole officers.
>
> I want to give one note of warning. I shall advocate these things and have advocated them in England, but I see their dangers. In all reforms you must beware of two things. You must not coddle and patronize prisoners and you must be careful not to give probation and parole officers such powers as may be prejudicial to the rightful members of the communities. You have the police with their powers and probation and parole officers with theirs, and there is great danger that unless duties are absolutely defined and powers described they may trench very largely on the rights of the home. We must be free or die.
>
> I shall urge a reformatory for adults and the indeterminate sentence with safeguards.

* * *

An issue raised at the Washington congress which ranks in importance with that of our county jail disorders, was the question of prison labor. This was approached from several sides. The second section passed resolutions upon it from the standpoint of prison administration. The matter was brought forward in its broader and more controversial aspects by a proposal, submitted by the National Committee on Prison Labor (American) to the International Commission calling for a comprehensive investigation of the whole subject. This report, drafted by J. Lebovitz of Washington, pointed out that our prison population averages 100,000 able-bodied men and women—a working force which few industrial cities can boast. On the one hand, the eight- or ten-hour day which

the prisoner spends in some occupation or none, must be the chief instrument of his reformation or retrogression; on the other hand, the manipulation of so tremendous a working force "must automatically produce the most profound and far-reaching reactions." On the one hand, the criminal is the costliest unit in society. Schoolhouses, playgrounds, and "a thousand wants of vital interest," to quote Professor Henderson, "are not satisfied because the financial resources of the state are exhausted in the conflict with crime." On the other, the chief burden of imprisonment falls not upon the guilty criminal, whom the state secures against hunger and cold, but upon the prisoner's wife and children "for whom no state as yet makes adequate provision, nor is the prisoner himself allowed any opportunity to provide for them." On the one hand, commercial prison work is such, with its free housing, freedom from taxes, and cheap labor, that when a given industry must compete with it, "complete demoralization seems to be inevitable" for outside manufacturers and free labor; on the other hand, the discharged convict is usually turned loose without any earnings as the result of his years of work and, save a few of the reformatory institutions, without training in a trade which would make him self-supporting. On the one hand, men in some prisons are speeded up; on the other hand, in most county jails they loaf in utter idleness. The situation is more than a series of contrasts. It is raw with gaping mal-adjustments; such as the peonage of some southern states and the atrocities in the prison mines of the Southwest exposed by Kate Barnard of Oklahoma;—such as the survival of the contract system in some states in the North, open as it is to all forms of exploitation, graft and the subversion of prison discipline to a combination of politics and business;—such as the "dumping" of goods made in the prisons of other states into New York, where under the state-use system goods from the New York prisons cannot be sold in the open market, but where there is no protection against importations from prisons in Rhode Island, Maryland, and elsewhere;—such as the fact that the New York fiscal agent who handles hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of goods, engages in outside business to supplement a salary too small for him to think he can give his full time to the state;—such as the fact that among the leading prison industries, shirt and overall-making bring the convict (in prison or after prison) into competition with women workers, broom making into competition with the blind, while binder twine and hollow ware are entirely monopolized by the prisons, and the most proficient ex-convict cannot find employment in such work after his release. "Jeffersonville!—that is a factory," said Dr. Vambéry:

> I saw, for example, 120 men in one trade shop, sewing by machinery. That is not industrial training; not craft teaching. One man should be taught all parts of a piece of work, to make it educational. In Hungary in our reformatories, we teach carpentry, carriage building, leather and textile work. We have no opposition from trade unions. Of course, Hungary is not as yet as developed industrially as the United States. We are building up our industries. We formerly had opposition from the trade unions, but not now, because we asked them to place these men and they are proud of the work thus entrusted to them.

Mr. Gibbons thought some of our industries excellent, though it is wrong to keep a man at a single occupation:

> If prison officials would have a frank understanding with unions to handle their goods so as not to inflict injuries upon a trade outside, then they ought to be able to get co-operation. A great help to me was the late Michael Davitt, the Irish revolutionary leader. He was strong with the labor unions; yet he had served no small part of his life in prison, and knew what it means to be idle there. He always came to the rescue when prison work was being attacked and held that men had a right to work in prison. When prison authorities start with the idea that the first object is education and reformation and the second is financial profit, they can work out the situation.
>
> We are, of course, an agricultural people. The prisoners go back to the villages in the country districts. Tailoring and shoe-making are then our chief industries. We sell the goods in the open market. If any trade union says we are hurting its work in any line, I change my industries.
>
> But we teach the trade of the tailor, or weaving and carpentering, not how to run a button machine.

Mr. Holmes had more outspoken criticism. He said:

> At Jeffersonville and Mansfield I was struck with the highly developed work and subdivision of work in the industrial departments of the reformatories. In the former the prisoners make castiron ware in one department. They are worked very hard and considerable skill is required. They told me this department was subjected to considerable attention, for the 400 men in it get a considerable profit for the contractor and the institution and earn a considerable sum for themselves, while others earn little or nothing. This seemed an injustice. I found on inquiry, however, that although the men might learn to make one piece with which they were familiar, there was no possible chance outside the prison walls of ever again obtaining work of that character. That again seemed wrong.
>
> I found at some of your institutions looms for weaving and twine-spinning, at which the men were human automatons only. I very much doubt whether subjecting men many hours a day to that kind of work is of any benefit. A man could tramp miles from state to state, before he could utilize what he learned in such a shop. An industry in prison, whether or not it pays the state, should be such that the prisoners can follow it after their release. This is as true of state work as of contract work. Our English prisons do not satisfy me in these respects, and I am not going to quote them against yours. Physical well-being, technical skill, proficiency in some useful work and a well trained man—such should be the goal.

Here, after all, is the crux of the situation. No system of prison idleness has any elements of reformation in it. It scotches and rots the human beings to which it is subjected. So hateful is prison idleness, and (with the decay of the old handicrafts) so difficult is the development of schemes of industrial training serviceable to adult men, that prison administrators and reformers have tolerated various makeshift or hybrid schemes of labor as better than none. These at least could be amended. In so far as they lack educational values they reflect and are a criticism of the routine factory operations of a modern industrial nation. But the situation is one which demands opening up to the bottom. To continue things as they are is to leave prison administrators and such business interests as are involved under an intolerable cloud; it is to leave the way open for abuses which add a deadening and exhausting industrial slavery to legal slavery. Yet, so far as the National Committee on Prison Labor has been able to learn, "no adequate studies have yet been made, nor are any being made today, of even one of the many serious consequences" attendant upon the situation.

The distinction was made earlier in this article between the European congress, which passes resolutions, and the American conference, which buries them. The advantages of the latter were pointed out, and it is possible that the London Prison Congress of 1915 may be modified along American lines. Here a disadvantage of the native system appears. For example, it remained for outside bodies to take up aggressively the subject of industrial accidents, while the National Conference of Charities and Correction mulled over methods of caring for the resulting dependence, without coming to any head on the fighting issues involved. In much the same way the question of prison labor has been shelved by the American Prison Association. It has remained for the National Committee on Prison Labor[1] to make it a live issue. Mr. Lebovitz's proposal to the International Congress was a well-balanced syllabus for a series of comprehensive investigations opening up all phases of the matter. Such a fearless, impartial inquiry is needed, and after it, action that will make the findings good.

* * *

The nature and legal status of the prison industries of the different states were reviewed by Amos W. Butler in his address at Washington as president of the American Prison Association. In private life, Mr. Butler is a naturalist; in public life he is secretary of the Indiana State Board of Charities, which has supervision of the various penal and charitable institutions of the state. Therefore, he was singularly equipped to take up the problem of prison labor in a way to relate it to the most idealist—

[1] This committee of which the Rev. Thomas R. Slicer is chairman, was brought about by Helen Varick Boswell, chairman of the Industrial committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, who was brought in touch with the problem in connection with certain women's trades, and E. Stagg Whitin of the New York Department of Labor, who was confronted with it in the course of investigations made under Commissioner Williams.

national issue before the American people today. His theme was Convicts and Conservation.[1] In conclusion, he said:

The proper conservation of our natural resources and the proper employment of convicts are two great problems that must be solved by our people and they should be solved right. . . . Why cannot these two problems be related? No present plan of employing convict labor is wholly satisfactory. Some methods used bring shame to our land, others breed scandal, most of them are a reproach to us. . .

We are coming to learn that the improvement of our natural resources [as well as to save them from wastage], is conservation. This includes reclaiming and improving land, draining swamps, damming streams, digging canals and preparing road material of stone, brick and tile. Establishing and maintaining ideal farms, typical wood lots and model forest reserves are valuable efforts in conservation. In the thinly settled portions and the mountain districts of much of the United States there is an unlimited amount of such work that can be done by selected convicts living in open colonies. Do we in a faint way estimate the possibilities of the employment of certain prisoners in many lines of conservation of the water, the land and the forests? How great the results may be, in improving our land, increasing our crops, preserving or replacing our forests, or our benefits by good roads, we cannot comprehend. In some states sentiment would not approve the public exhibition of convicts, but in those they could be employed upon large farms, reclaiming the land, making road material and establishing typical forest reserves, model farms and standard roads in their neighborhood.

In this we should not have to work in the dark. In one state or another, practical experience has been gained. . . . There is scarcely a prison in this country that has not reclaimed or improved land, and some of it has been made a marvel of richness and beauty. At Michigan City, Indiana, the prisoners reclaimed a tract of swamp among the sand dunes. The black prairies at St. Cloud and the fertile, irrigated fields at Salt Lake City speak just as eloquently of the use of prison labor out of doors as do the gardens of the women at Sherborn and Bedford, or the farms at Hoboken and Mansfield. The orchards at Leavenworth testify as truly of the efficiency of open-air work as do the cotton fields of Mississippi or the cane fields of Louisiana. . . .

Why, since prisoners make again habitable the abandoned farms of Massachusetts and remove the bowlders from the rich soil of Rhode Island, can they not reclaim the tide flats of New Jersey and the everglades of Florida? Think of the reclaimable land along the coasts of the United States! If prisoners build dikes in Europe and levees in Louisiana, why not elsewhere? If convicts in Illinois crush rock for public roads, why not in other states? Why should not the finer material, the powdered limestone, be used to fertilize impoverished soils? In Europe the courses of streams have been changed, mountains tunneled and canals built by prisoners. Why not adopt Mr. Pettigrove's suggestion and build the Cape Cod canal with prison labor? Since prisoners have been used in reforesting the heaths of Denmark and in practical forestry in Prussia and Switzerland, may they not be so used here? Here where there is need of forestry, there is opportunity for such work. In the great mountain districts, the lands of disapppearing timber and along our sandy shores there are possibilities almost without limit.

In many states, perhaps most of them, some one or more of these things could be worked out. With selected prisoners under the right kind of supervision, what could not be done? The suggestions provide for the very least competition with free labor, for doing something good for the state at the state's expense. Such outdoor labor is the kind most helpful to prisoners, is of value to the state, and seeks to provide a continual exhibit of better things in the object lesson afforded in forestry,[1] agriculture, improved roads and more healthful regions.

* * *

There remains but one point which can be covered—the punishments which still cling to our system of dealing with offenders. While the congress was in session at Washington, a cripple was flogged at the whipping post of a Delaware county jail! A dark cell or dungeon would not be tolerated in England, according to Major Rogers. Some of those seen in this country were almost completely dark.[2] Said Mr. Holmes:

At Auburn we were taken to the death chamber and an officer explained the operations of the electric appliances. On returning, we went along a passage and a few yards back from a wooden structure there was an iron barred enclosure, which we were told

[1] Mr. Butler's paper may be obtained by addressing Joseph P. Byers, general secretary American Prison Association, 13 Central avenue, Newark. N. J.

[1] 20,000,000 forest trees have been planted since 1900 by the prisoners of New Zealand. They are timbering the waste lands and reclaiming the men.

[2] Among the pamphlets circulated in Washington was one entitled American Bastiles by Clarissa Olds Keeler, published by the Carnahans Press, Washington. This was a budget of excerpts from the reports of state investigation commissions, magazine articles and fugitive newspaper reports as to the use of dark cells, "bucking machines," the "water cure," and other brutal forms of punishment alleged as practiced in various prisons, convict mines, etc. The pamphlet opens with an apt reference to John Howard's experience in Paris in the days before the French Revolution, when he was refused admission to the Bastile. He secured, however, a pamphlet written by an inmate depicting its horrors. This author states that the great key to the door of the Bastile, from which Howard was turned away, is now one of the relics in the Washington Museum at Mt. Vernon, presented by Lafayette. It should have been exhibited at the international meetings

closed off the condemned cells. Gripping the bars and looking straight at us was a condemned man, and we were informed that there were others also awaiting execution. If such was the case, it was a deplorable thing that men doomed to die should be incarcerated in such a manner; that they should be gazed at, should look out from a cage like a gorilla.

Not merely the manner of doing it, but the survival of the thing itself in New York and several other American states, as well as in his own country, was the subject of criticism of another delegate. It was a Russian, Count Sollohub, who first suggested to the late Dr. Wines that America should call an international prison congress which no European country, owing to political complications, could do. At the Washington congress, Russia was represented in two ways—the government, by M. de Khrouleff, chief of the administration of prisons, who fell among thorns when his statements as to Russian prison conditions were picked to pieces by George Kennan, the Friends of Russian Freedom, and others. It developed that not only by its architecture, but by its humanity and the fair play of its trials, is a nation's treatment of its prisoners to be judged. While the congress was in session, were not the czar's men transporting white-haired *Babushka* to a remote Siberian settlement? To Americans, she is one of the heroic women of the century. Then there was A. S. Goldenweiser, a lawyer of Kieff. He had no governmental, no official standing. He came, breathing the spirit of Leo Tolstoi and of his world-ringing letter, "I cannot keep still." In that letter Tolstoi could no longer keep still at the scores of executions going forward in Russia. He could not keep still when everyone of those executions convicted him, Tolstoi, and with him the whole Russian nation, of permitting conditions which brought crime into being. He could not keep still when men were being killed to protect him, Tolstoi, and with him all his fellow countrymen, because they had been too stupid and brutal to work out a better way of protection. He could not keep still when the methods to suppress crime reacted and scourged his people with a moral sickness worse than the offenses themselves. To Tolstoi, "crime is a punishment and punishment, a crime." That is the title of the essay Mr. Goldenweiser has written bringing out the message of what he considers Russia's great contribution to penology—Tolstoi's Resurrection. To his mind, this is a contribution more powerful than new systems or reformatories. To his mind, in teaching humanity to love the man in stripes Tolstoi will have as much influence in abating penal slavery, as Harriet Beecher Stowe had in doing away with Negro slavery. Of his visit to New Yorks death chamber, Mr. Goldenweiser said:

> The overwhelming impression gathered at Auburn was centered around the fateful electric chair and the wondering eyes of the two condemned criminals whose faces have haunted me ever since. There are a thousand sufficient reasons for the abolition of capital punishment, and Americans must know them all, and yet they persist in this cruel practice. Why is it that generous Americans are still working under the dreadful aberration that there are circumstances that justify one man in saying to another: "Go and kill this criminal?"
>
> We visited the George Junior Republic on the previous day and found there in this novel and remarkable colony a reproduction of the greater world with its industries, its laws, its social relations, and even with its chains and bars and prisoners. Should this institution grow in size and vigor, as we hope it might, and should its citizens wish to make the similarity with the outside world complete and demand an electric chair for their own offenders, could their request be granted? And does not this thought in itself emphasize the anomaly and the inhumanity of the death penalty as an institution in a civilized community?

This man's practical philosophy reached deep. He is not merely a dreamer but a man of experience and affairs, the sort whose constructive interest Tolstoi sought to enlist by his destructive criticisms of existing institutions. What he said demanded a re-reading of The Resurrection—not as a critique of the Russian autocracy, but as a mirror held up by the great poet-analyst of the North, to all civilized peoples that in it they might see revealed before them the "unreasonableness" and "immorality" of sitting in judgment and inflicting punish-

[1]Copies of this pamphlet may be obtained, so long as the private edition lasts, from E. S. Goldenweiser, 400 Seward Square, S. E., Washington, D. C.

ment upon their fellows. Tolstoi's negative attitude toward the criminal trial is often met by the query, "What shall be put in the place of it?" To this Mr. Goldenweiser answers:

> From Tolstoi's viewpoint this reply merits no consideration. If, some one discovered that quinine, for instance, not only did not counteract a specific disease of the organism, but made it worse, could there be found a man who would insist on the continuation of the use of quinine against fever until a new remedy be discovered? And, finally, we must keep in mind that Tolstoi is not examining so much into the conditions which may lead a man to kill his neighbor, as into the unnaturalness of the state of affairs which forces one man to say to another about his neighbor, "Here, put him away, destroy him!" and yet, figuratively speaking, every criminal sentence does just that, and a death sentence does it literally.

To a man of Mr. Goldenweiser's mind, the most significant thing at the Washington congress was that the resolutions, as first passed by section IV[1] not only held that juvenile criminals should not be subjected to the penal procedure now applicable to adults, but that the procedure for adults also should change along the same lines; children, as in prophecy, leading the way. For example, in striking juxtaposition to the death chamber at Auburn, Mr. Goldenweiser put the cottages for boys and girls at Industry. This institution for juvenile delinquents left a profound impression. Englishmen and Hungarians also spoke of it. Said this Russian:

> A complete moral satisfaction was felt by us in such institutions as Industry where the work of rehabilitating the young is carried on in a manner that makes a man feel envious who has spent half his life as a trustee of a similar institution but without the means, the space, and the personnel of Industry. My especial admiration was excited by the men and women who voluntarily become fathers and mothers to the boys entrusted to their care. The "homes," gardens, and exhibits, and most of all the kind and cheerful expressions on the faces of the children will remain a sacred memory to all of us.

* * *

It is not necessary to take exception to particular points made by these criticisms. None of the delegates quoted held up any phase of the prison work of his own country in a spirit of superiority; they merely drew on their own experience, on standards which are winning a world-wide recognition, and on the impressions of a rapid survey of American institutions. The trend of their constructive suggestions is the important thing, and that was in line with the advocacies of progressive Americans.

Nor is it necessary to repeat the words of admiration spoken of American institutions and methods. Our probation systems won many advocates. "Elmira," said the venerable Dr. Guillaume, "is the Mecca for penologists the world over." Its discipline, drill and trade shops were especially complimented and the distinctive accomplishments of a dozen other American institutions were not overlooked.

In a sentence, the gist of the Washington congress from the international standpoint, was that the ideas for which America has stood in the reformation of the criminal have won the sanction of the world; that the theories which have been combated, have conquered; and that they have conquered on American soil where Europeans could see them in practice in our courts and institutions.

This in itself is high tribute to the men and women who in our leading states have borne the brunt of progress and have substituted the *treatment of the criminal* for the *punishment of crime* as the basis for the American program of social control. But it is not a counsel of finished labors or of proved theory.

If the American delegates to the London congress of 1915 can report the results of aggressive, widespread, effective movements to clear out the abuses in our city and county lockups, to secure state control of all convicts, and to break up our big prisons into smaller specialized units;—if they can report the working out of a scheme of prison occupations and industrial training free of the last vestige of the contract system and more comprehensive and flexible than any we now possess;—if they can tell of the universal institution of a system of prison education which will not have to depend at any point on convict teachers;—if they can give evidence of the development of professional standards among prison offi-

[1] Drafted by Prof. Maurice Parmelee of the University of Missouri.

cials and probation officers which will lift their callings to rank with those of internes and engineers (for the materials they work with are as delicate and exacting);—if they have secured the enfranchisement of all prisons from political exploitation;—if they can point to the rooting out of insanitary atrocities, and to the scientific organization of hygienic methods for making the prisoner well as a first step toward making him fit for society;—and if they can gather and present such complete statistical and other data as to reformatory and probation systems as will check up their results and demonstrate their effectiveness as against other methods of treating offenders,—then by our works, as well as by our espousal of theories and our prize institutions, will the democracy be known. If not, then it may well be that one of the older countries—mark what Japan is doing—shall wrest from us the leadership in giving a national application to the principles for which we have stood.

We are brought back, then, to the gist of this international congress, for Americans. With this I started. For beyond all else, its message was an indeterminate, a hard labor sentence to the people of the United States first of all to clear away our cage-like interior cells and our unhealthy and crime-breeding county jails. These are the antithesis of all that America has stood for among the nations. The city lock-up at Elmira, within five miles of the great reformatory, has for its sanitary equipment nothing better than a rank drain. It is well to remember the figures prepared by Dr. Ransom of Clinton Prison, Dannemora, N. Y., for the Budapest congress. They showed that from forty to sixty per cent of the deaths in our prison population are due to tuberculosis; while the average among people outside of prison is only fourteen per cent. In the words of one of the great American leaders, "So long as we tolerate these conditions, we sentence men to disease and death as well as to imprisonment." And this penal population, is a tidal one,—a hundred thousand men and women go in and out each year—the diseased prisoners return to the social body. The cage, thus, wreaks its revenge on the community. There is in this a tragic analogy with which to challenge our treatment of the criminal at every point, to the end that penal slavery be diminished, that we may be sure that such part of it as remains actually accomplishes its purpose. And that, during the next half century, as in the last, the institutions of the American democracy shall serve the cause of progress among all peoples.

I. THE SECTION ON CRIMINAL LAW

C. W. A. VEDITZ[1]
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The first section of the International Prison Congress dealt with problems of penal law and was most largely attended by members of the bench and bar of the countries represented, and by university teachers of criminal law and criminology. Neither criminal law nor criminology has yet acquired the same academic dignity or importance in this country that they possess in Europe; and partly for this reason the section was dominated by the foreign delegates. Nearly all of the discussions were carried on in French, with but little use of either the German or English tongue. Judges, prison officials and professors of criminal law were in a large majority, and the debates were led by Professor Prins of Brussels, Professor Gleispach of the University of Prague, Professor Vambéry of the University of Budapest, Professor Lublinsky of the University of St. Petersburg, Professor Sherman of Yale University. Professor Wigmore of Northwestern University, Professor Ugo Conti of the University

[1]Dr. Veditz acted as interpreter for section I. The first two days the debate ran so high that translation was impossible. Near the close of the second session and the third session, he succeeded in making the interpretation a stated part of the program, and this helped to arrive at order and a good understanding, in which the Americans could join. His ready translation of difficult points in law and social theory was a matter of remark.

of Rome, M. A. Schrameck, director of French prisons, M. de Khrouleff, of St. Petersburg, chief of the Administration of Prisons of St. Petersburg; M. Spuch of the French Prison Society, Demetrios Castorkis, chief of the Greek Prison Administration; Dr. Dresselhuys, director of the Dutch prisons; Chief Justice Engelen of Holland, Superintendent J. A. Leonard of the Ohio State Reformatory, Warden R. W. McClaughry of the United States Penitentiary, at Leavenworth, and Dr. Frederick Howard Wines of Illinois.

The prevailing point of view appeared to be that of the criminal jurist, marked by cautiousness in phrasing proposals for a change in the present penal system, and hesitation in recommending changes of a too specific or too radical character. Inasmuch, however, as changes in the criminal laws of a country are more apt to be brought about through the influence of lawyers and judges and teachers of law than through ill-defined public opinion of a lay character, it is not unlikely that the resolutions finally formulated by this group will be more rapidly translated into actual legislation than those adopted by the other sections.

Three forenoons were devoted to the discussion of the first and most important question on the section's program, worded as follows:

> Assuming that a rational relation exists between the principle of the indeterminate sentence and the fundamental principles of criminal jurisprudence—
>
> (a) What class of delinquents should be submitted to and what class excluded from its application?
>
> (b) How may a sentence of this kind without minimum or maximum limits be applied without danger to individual liberty?
>
> If it is not admitted that there is a rational relation between the principle of the indeterminate sentence and the fundamental principles of criminal jurisprudence, is there ground for adding to the definite sentence with respect to a particular individual a restriction in the form of a supplemental penalty; and if so, in what cases, and how, is it to be applied?

Eighteen reports had been prepared on this subject and transmitted to the section—more than on any other topic on the program. Five were by American authors: Judge Simeon Baldwin, Amos W. Butler, Maynard W. Shipley, Eugene Smith, and F. H. Wines; the others were prepared by English, Swiss, French, Luxemburg, Italian, Spanish, Hungarian, German, and Transvaal authors.

A critical summary of these reports was presented by Prof. Gordon E. Sherman of the Yale University Law School. In his summary and in the discussion of the resolutions which he proposed, Professor Sherman maintained an entirely conservative point of view, calling attention particularly to the fact that the indeterminate sentence, especially the absolutely indeterminate sentence without maximum or minimum limit and applied to all classes of criminals, is by no means a prevailing "American institution"—inasmuch as few states have seriously contemplated going so far as this. Moreover, he did not regard the indeterminate sentence as consistent with the fundamental principles of criminal jurisprudence. He urged the retention of the principle of determinate punishment, but favored indetermination as a means of regenerative training in the case of youthful delinquents and as a measure of security applied to those who form a continuing menace to public order; furthermore, habitual or professional offenders should be subjected to "an ulterior judgment concerning the condition of the prisoner viewed as a menace to society" before he is turned loose again at the expiration of his determinate sentence.

The ensuing discussion made it clear immediately that the foreign delegates, notably those from the Latin countries, regarded the institution of the indeterminate sentence with scepticism. Justice Engelen of Holland thought it applicable only as a measure of safety in dealing with dangerous criminals. His compatriot, Director-general Dresselhuys, considered it unwise and inexpedient to replace the penal judge by a penitentiary judge; the former does his work in the full glare of publicity and usually uninfluenced by improper considerations, whereas the prison authorities are not subject to the same publicity and are more likely to be unduly influenced.

M. Silvela of Spain considered the principle inapplicable save in Anglo-

Saxon countries. It must not be forgotten, he said, that in Latin countries it has taken centuries to establish the principle of determination, and to substitute for the whim of the executive a clearly defined, definite penalty for offenses against the law. Indefiniteness as to the gravity of the crime, as to the rights of the accused, and as to the term and variety of punishment, were characteristic features of a tyrannical and unhappy epoch. To reintroduce indefiniteness would be running counter to popular notions of penal justice that are now a part of the public conscience in the Latin countries.

M. Castorkis of Greece accepted the principle of the indeterminate sentence, provided sufficient precautions are taken to make the board of conditional liberation competent and honest. Said the Greek delegate:

> The theory is that the criminal is a patient; he needs to be cured of his anti-social tendencies. But it is imperative to make sure that the physician is not a quack and that the patient will not be discharged until really cured. Upon this point the success or failure of the indeterminate sentence ultimately depends.

Most of the foreigners were laudatory and some of them enthusiastic, in their references to the American institutions in which the indeterminate sentence is applied,—such as the Elmira Reformatory. (Mr. Brockway attended the first and second meetings of the section). But they were apparently loath to accept the principle as a basic feature of penal law. Said one foreign delegate:

> In the minds of the people everywhere, the idea of imprisonment as a penalty, as a retaliatory movement on the part of the community against which the criminal has offended, is too natural and too deep-seated to be lightly brushed aside. There are, moreover, a number of offenders who are not really bad, who commit some minor offense as the result of exceptional circumstances which may never recur, (*criminels d'occasion* or *criminels passionnels*). For such offenders it would be absurd to apply a system of reformation; they have violated a rule of social conduct and should be made to pay a definitely prescribed penalty.

An ingenious attempt was made by Prof. Ugo Conti of the University of Rome to graft certain indeterminate features upon the system of determinate punishments. "Recognizing the merits of indeterminate punishments," he proposed, "section 1 should refuse to accept indetermination as a fundamental principle, but might accept it as a means of public security to be applied in the case of dangerous criminals and of habitual recidivists as a sort of supplementary penalty to be added, if necessary, to the fixed period of imprisonment."

At this stage of the discussion the section appeared to be evenly divided between two apparently conflicting views: (1) that of accepting the indeterminate sentence as a basic principle, but circumscribing it by a series of limitations and qualifications; and (2) that of refusing to accept it as a fundamental principle, but grafting it upon the present system as a modification applied to specific, rather exceptional groups of offenders.

Whereupon Professor Prins of Belgium, the president of the section, declared himself an advocate of the "scientific principle of the indeterminate sentence" and asked for a vote for or against its acceptance—as applied to certain classes. "Either," he declared "we will have nothing to do with it in any form, or we would accept it for certain classes of offenders and with certain modifications. If a majority rejects it entirely, there is no need of further discussion." Put to a vote, the "scientific principle of indetermination" was then accepted. A majority also voted in favor of its application "to mental and moral defectives."

But how much further should its application be carried? A long debate on this question resulted in the designation of two committees,—one, consisting of Professors Conti and Sherman, favoring a very slight further extension of the principle of indetermination (to dangerous and habitual offenders in the guise of a sort of additional penalty), and the other, headed by Professors Gleispach of Austria and Vambéry of Hungary, going considerably further. The latter—contrary to the expectations of many of those present—won the day, after some changes in its propositions. Professor Gleispach stated it to be his belief that public opinion is ripe in many countries for making a big breach in the pres-

ent system of penal law. The resolutions finally adopted were as follows:

The congress approves the scientific principle of the indeterminate sentence.

The indeterminate sentence should be applied to moral and mental defectives.

The indeterminate sentence should also be applied, as an important part of the reformatory system, to criminals (particularly juvenile offenders), who require reformation and whose offenses are due chiefly to circumstances of an individual character.

The introduction of this system should be conditioned upon the following suppositions:

1. That the prevailing conceptions of guilt and punishment are compatible with the principle of the indeterminate sentence.

2. That an individualized treatment of the offender be assured.

3. That the board of control or conditional release be so constituted as to exclude all outside influences, and consist of a commission made up of at least one representative of the magistracy, at least one representative of the prison administration, and at least one representative of medical science.

Although M. de Khrouleff and others urged that a maximum and minimum period of detention should always be stated in the sentence, it was concluded that to fix a maximum is inconsistent with the principle of indetermination. "The whole theory," said M. de Silvela "is that the offender shall be held until he is reformed, and no one can tell in advance how long that will take. In fact, there is good reason to believe that many of those who are released are not really reformed but only pretend to be." He quoted several authorities to the effect that the supposedly "best" inmates at Elmira, for example, are not the best but the "foxiest"—those who are most successful in deceiving the authorities. But once the principle is accepted, it is illogical to fix a maximum period of detention in the indeterminate sentence. A final clause was adopted by the section to this effect:

It is advisable to fix the maximum penalty only during such a period as it may be necessary because of the novelty of the institution and lack of experience with it.

The Gleisbach resolution, in the form in which it was finally adopted, was thus tantamount, as its principal author himself declared, to the acceptance of the indeterminate sentence as a part of the general criminal law applied practically to all classes of criminals.

The two remaining questions discussed by the first section were of less general interest. The resolutions on the second, presented by Professor Sherman, (coupled with propositions advanced by M. de Silvela) urged more complete international exchange of records of crimes and convictions, through treaties and an international office of criminal records; and recommended that previous convictions in other countries (except for political offenses) be recognized by courts before whom foreigners are brought for trial. The third question, upon which an extended report was presented by the writer, concerned complicity in crime.

The resolutions unanimously adopted by the section were as follows:

1. It does not appear to be in conformity with the spirit of penal law to make of every preliminary agreement to break the law a special crime.

2. Noting the increase of offenses for which several persons are responsible, and that these offenses are committed chiefly by habitual criminals, *i. e.*, those most dangerous to society, it is desirable to consider participation as an aggravating circumstance and to augment the power of the judge to increase the penalty for such offenses.

II, THE SECTION ON PRISON ADMINISTRATION

WALTER G. SCOTT
MASTER OF POLWORTH, CHAIRMAN OF THE PRISON COMMISSION FOR SCOTLAND

The first day in this section was occupied in discussing the question, "What is the best method of securing effective and permanent work for those confined in small prisons?" Dr. Katharine Bement Davis of Bedford Reformatory reporting upon the papers submitted. After discussion, the following resolutions were adopted:

1. All penal institutions including houses of detention and jails, should be under the control of a central authority.

2. All persons whether sentenced for long or short terms, and whether confined in large

or small prisons should be employed at useful labor.

3. So far as local conditions permit, all persons serving sentences should be concentrated in institutions large enough to permit of the effective organization of labor leaving local jails and houses of detention solely for prisoners awaiting trial.

4. Where such concentration is not possible, various kinds of labor should be introduced depending upon the economic conditions in a given locality.

5. It would be desirable that the large prisons with well organized industries and effective industrial equipments, should serve as training schools for the men who will later take charge of the smaller institutions.

6. The officials of small prisons should include if possible at least one man competent to direct industrial work.

It cannot be said that much fresh light was shed upon this difficult problem. The writer explained the nature of the work done in Scottish prisons, and pointed out that it is often an advantage to have some long term as well as short term prisoners in the same prison, as the former can carry out the more difficult processes of the industry while the short term men are occupied with the more elementary stages of the same work. Considerable discussion arose on the point whether prison officers should be trained in large prisons with a view to superintending afterwards industrial work in small prisons. Incidentally the question of work for prisoners awaiting trial was touched upon, and it was felt that the best course was to give them the opportunity, though they cannot be compelled to work.

Miss Davis explained the systems of labor as carried out in the United States as:

1. The lease system under which the whole labor of the prisoners is leased to a contractor who employs them in road-making or other form of contract work.

2. The contract system under which the whole labor is sold to a contractor who provides machinery, material and instructors, and pays the prison so much per day for the prisoners' work.

3. The piece price system under which a fixed price for articles manufactured is paid by the contractor who furnishes the material.

4. The state account system under which the state purchases the raw material, conducts the whole process of manufacture, and sells the product in the open market.

5. The state use system under which articles are manufactured only for the use of the state in its various departments and institutions.

Of these systems the last three were regarded as the best from the point of view of prison discipline and administration. Farm and market garden work was advocated for short term prisoners.

The second question submitted to the section was discussed on the introduction of Amos W. Butler of Indiana, viz., "What improvements may be made in the parole system or the system of conditional liberation already existing in certain countries?"

Among delegates who took part in the discussion were: Messrs. Rosenfeld of Germany; Scott of Scotland; Constantin of France; and Milligan of the United States; Canon Cooke of Canada, Messrs. Cameron of New Zealand; Almquist of Sweden; Woken of Norway; Kellerhals of Switzerland; Scott of New York (Elmira); and Sanagi of Japan; from which it will be seen that in the discussion the views of many nations were expressed. A committee of four, Van der Aa, Rosenfeld, Pope and Scott, was appointed to prepare and draft resolutions. These were submitted on the following day and as finally adopted were as follows:

Accepting the principle of conditional liberation on parole as an indispensable aid to the reformation of the prisoner, the congress approves the following resolutions:

1. Conditional release should be given not by favor but in accordance with definite rules. Prisoners of all classes, including workhouse prisoners, should be eligible for conditional release after serving for a definite minimum period.

2. Conditional liberation should be given on the recommendation of a properly constituted board, but reserving always the control of the government. This board should have the power of recalling the prisoner in case of unsatisfactory conduct.

3. The duty of caring for conditionally liberated prisoners should be undertaken by state agents, by specially approved associations or individuals who will undertake to befriend and help them and to report on their conduct for a sufficiently long period.

4. Where the ordinary rules for parole are not applicable to life prisoners, their cases should be dealt with by the supreme government as a matter of clemency.

In passing these resolutions, the section approved of the principle that prisoners

who have fulfilled certain conditions in prison shall be entitled to apply for conditional release before the expiration of their sentence, but that they may be replaced in prison if their conduct outside be unsatisfactory.

Having disposed of this subject, the section proceeded to discuss the first question on its program, "What are the essential principles upon which the modern reformatory prison should be based? and, Should there be special treatment for adolescent criminals?" In the absence of the appointed *rapporteur,* the writer reviewed the twelve papers prepared for the congress and gave a summary. The papers were contributed from England, Ireland, France (2), Switzerland, Italy (2), Spain, Russia, Belgium, Hungary, and Sweden. There was practical unanimity in favor of the principle that the treatment of all prisoners should be such as to give an opportunity for reformation and in particular that there should be special treatment for young prisoners aged from sixteen to say twenty-three. The discussion was continued on the next day when the following resolutions proposed by the writer were unanimously adopted:

A. The essential principles on which the modern reformatory method is based are:

1. That no prisoner, no matter what his age or past record, should be assumed to be incapable of improvement.

2. The conviction that it is in the public interest not merely to impose a sentence which shall be retributive and deterrent, but also to make an earnest effort for the reformation of the criminal.

3. That this reformation is most likely to be accomplished by religious and moral instruction, mental quickening, physical development and such employment as will place the prisoner on a good industrial basis.

4. That the reformatory system is incompatible with short sentences, and a relatively long period of reformatory treatment is more likely to be beneficial than repeated short terms of imprisonment under severer conditions.

5. That reformatory treatment should be continued with a system of liberation on parole under suitable guardianship and supervision on the advice of a suitable board.

B. It is strongly to be desired that a system of special treatment be adopted for adolescent criminals, whether recidivist or not.

C. Tribunals should be able to sentence to special treatment which (a) should be sufficiently long to permit of the full application of all possible means of reformation, (b) shall admit the right of conditional liberation as mentioned above.

The question of short sentence prisoners having been brought up on the consideration of resolution 4, Mr. Almquist of Sweden moved that the section express the opinion that prisoners awaiting trial and prisoners serving short sentences should be separately confined and as far as possible in separate cells. This resolution was also adopted by the section and transmitted to the congress as a whole; no doubt it gave expression to the feeling of surprise felt by many foreign delegates at finding in county jails in America both tried and untried prisoners associating freely in such a way that those who are afterward proved to be innocent, while awaiting trial for perhaps a considerable period, may have been subjected to contamination from the most depraved and hardened offenders. While this practice may prevail in a few European countries, it is very uncommon there, and its prevalence in America called forth much comment. In his closing words when accepting the office of president, Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise expressed the hope that some of the abundant philanthropic powers of America would be devoted to improving the condition of the short-time prisoners. As it was evident that the defects of the system are widely recognized, it may be hoped that ere long great improvements will be made.

The discussions in this section were under the able presidency of Professor van der Aa of the University of Groningen, Holland, who has been appointed the next secretary of the congress. His knowledge of many languages proved of great advantage as in this section all the discussions were carried on both in French and English. While it was to be regretted that no papers were contributed on the subjects before the congress from America, yet this was to a large extent atoned for by the remarks made by American officials and others during the meetings. Much of the discussion necessarily turned upon the best mode of expressing the feeling of the meeting, regarding which there was as

a rule little difference of opinion, but which it was not always easy to express accurately in resolutions in two languages.

All the resolutions adopted by the section were approved by the general assembly of the congress, and it is to be hoped that they may help advance the cause of prison reform in the various nations of the world.

III. THE SECTION ON PREVENTION

WARREN F. SPALDING
SECRETARY MASSACHUSETTS PRISON ASSOCIATION

The third section was under the presidency of Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise, of England. Of the four questions submitted to the section the first. in the order of consideration, was:

> In what manner would it be possible to alleviate to the utmost the difficult position suffered by a family because of the imprisonment of the head of the family by organizing and applying to better advantage the prison earnings of the latter?

There was entire unanimity in regard to the unfairness and unwisdom of the existing system, under which the innocent family suffers more, in many instances, than the guilty offender. There was a strong feeling that the state, which for its own purposes takes away the wage earner and supporter of the family, should in some way lighten the burden of those dependent upon him. The preservation of the family, as a family was held to be important. It is social suicide to permit its destruction. It was thought by many of the members that the distressed family has a claim upon the state to make up the deficiency caused by the removal of its supporter, while others considered that the assistance of the family was a matter of policy rather than an obligation.

As to the best methods of relief, there was no agreement. Some held that the prisoner should have for his family a portion of his earnings, after deducting the cost of his support, but it was urged that many do not have profitable employment in the prison and that many of the most trustworthy are used about the prison, on its work and earn nothing.

Judge DeLacy of the Washington Juvenile Court brought to the discussion the results of the plan pursued by his court in dealing with non-support cases. A man imprisoned for non-support is provided with remunerative employment on public works, outside the prison. The family receives fifty cents a day while he is in prison. Imprisonment is not used until all milder measures have failed. The prisoner is not held for the full term of his sentence, but released on probation when he seems likely to support his family, and is compelled to support it; turning over his earnings to the police to be used for his dependents.

Judge DeLacy said that the system had worked well, and large sums had reached the families in this way. When fines are imposed, in non-support cases, they go to the wife and children. The expenditure from the public treasury is a small one. The moral effect is excellent. Many families are reconciled. Total abstinence is secured and the entire operation of the law is salutary. He would be glad to see the system applied to all misdemeanants. Its purpose is to compel men to fulfil their obligations. Those who are dealt with in this way have no feeling against the court.

The discussion of the Washington plan showed that much of its success depended upon the employment of prisoners upon public works, and many of the members were of opinion that that would not be tolerated in their sections. Much doubt was expressed as to the wisdom of having reports made to the police, which Judge DeLacy defended on the ground that it affords a helpful supervision.

It was urged by many that the allowance for the dependent family should not depend upon the actual earnings of the prisoners—that the needs of the family constituted the basis of the assistance. The prisoner does not control the matter of employment, and the aid should not

depend upon his earnings. On the other hand, a fear was expressed that the desire to support one's family might become a motive leading to the commission of crime. Judge DeLacy said, in reply, that every man wants to "get out," even though his family gains by his imprisonment.

The consideration of the subject resulted in the adoption of these resolutions:

Resolved, 1. That prisoners should be paid according to their industry. The amount thus allowed should be administered for them, to support dependents and to provide a fund for rehabilitation after release.

2. For the present it does not seem practicable for the state to carry out the full program of relief. Until that ideal shall be practicable it is advisable that committees of patronage and prisoners' aid societies should be the chief distributors of relief for the state, and furnish the same when not otherwise supplied.

A third resolution recommended that further information be obtained for the next congress.

The form of this finding was not acceptable to the general assembly, which referred to it back to the section where it was amended to read as follows:

Resolved, That it is desirable that the state should allow payment to be made to prisoners, and that steps should be taken to provide that any sum of money credited to prisoners should be available for the assistance of their families if in need.

In this form it was adopted by the general assembly.

The fourth question was:

Have the experiments of the last ten years made in certain countries, providing special establishments for the detention of inebriate criminals, even recidivists, for long periods (two or three years) been successful or not?

It was explained that the term "inebriate criminals" meant inebriates who have been arrested. Interesting information was given as to the English law and its results. It was brought out that it has not been fully effective because it does not clearly state who shall provide the institutions—a defect soon to be remedied. But there have been many recoveries, and on the whole the law is considered a success. Ireland has a successful reformatory for these cases, maintained by the state.

The Massachusetts experiment of treating inebriates in a hospital, though applied to a comparatively small number, was reported to have yielded good results. The state has authorized the purchase of a new site, and buildings will be erected in which the inmates may be classified, with long detention for chronic cases, and outdoor work for all.

The new New York legislation in this direction was spoken of as another recognition of the same principle.

There was a general agreement that a prison is not the place for inebriates; that inebriety should be treated in many cases as a disease; that long terms of detention are required; that the institution in which inebriates are treated should afford opportunity for outdoor work; that the system of short sentences to penal institutions is a failure, and that an effort should be made to secure the treatment of inebriety in its early stages.

The close relation between inebriety and insanity received special attention.

That alcoholism in parents resulted in insanity and feeble-mindedness in the next generation was urged as a reason for greater care in the treatment of the inebriate, and for a differentiation of the insane and the inebriate.

The second clause of this question was:

Is it necessary to complete the penitentiary discipline of these establishments (for the treatment of inebriety) by special medical treatment?

The discussion was brief, the sentiment being that medication was not necessary; but that medical direction of the hygienic work of these institutions was essential.

The section adopted the following resolutions, with substantial unanimity:

1. That the experiments of the last ten years made in certain countries, providing special establishments for the detention of habitual criminal drunkards for long periods, two or three years, have been successful.

2. That it is not necessary to complete the discipline of these establishments by special medical treatment, but it is essential to the success of the method that the hygienic and medical treatment of the inmates of establishments of this class shall be directed by qualified medical practitioners.

3. After having passed these resolutions the congress expressed the opinion "that further extension of this kind of detention of the inebriate criminal under state control with a view especially to arresting the habit in its

early stages and to the avoidance of useless and repeated sentences to imprisonment is desirable."

There was a very thorough discussion of the question, "What measures should be taken for the suppression of mendicity and vagabondage, especially in view of modern criminal tendencies?" Notice was taken of the difference between European and American vagrancy and mendicity, and also of the many classes to be found roaming about or living by beggary. The possibility of the industrial readjustment of some was urged as a reason for their special treatment; the mental unsoundness of others suggested other lines of treatment. The resolutions adopted by the section embody so fully the discussions that a detailed report of the latter is unnecessary:

I. The section reaffirms the resolution of the congress of 1895 as to the classification of vagrants and mendicants, as follows:

1. Society has the right to take measures of social preservation, even compulsory, against mendicants and beggars. This right involves also the duty, on the other hand, of systematically organizing public and private charity societies in aid of prisoners.

2. There is need of different treatment of mendicants and vagrants, according as they are

(*a*) Incapacitated or infirm, needy persons.
(*b*) Accidental mendicants or vagrants.
(*c*) Professional mendicants or vagrants.

3. The first need assistance until they shall have recovered the necessary ability to support themselves. The second class should receive public or private assistance or should be received in refuges or relief stations where work will be compulsory. The third class should be subject to severe repressive measures of a nature to check recidivism.

II. As a necessary means for aiding in the suppression of wilful and professional vagrancy and mendicancy, workhouses (*maisons de travail*) for professional mendicants and vagrants should be established. Within these institutions comprehensive systems of classification of inmates should be made, separating the inmates requiring discipline from the other inmates, and providing a class or classes for the more industrious or better behaved, with such inducements as are proper and conducive to the reformation and progress of the inmates toward rehabilitation.

III. Such workhouses should make a prominent feature of agricultural and industrial training, and the period of detention should be sufficiently long to provide for a thorough training, and also to act as a deterrent to offenders.

IV. The physical and mental condition of the inmates should be carefully observed and studied.

V. Conditional liberation and a system of subsequent supervision and, if possible, cooperation between official and outside charitable authorities are indispensable parts of a proper system of treating mendicancy and vagrancy.

VI. The extension or establishment of a system of identification and classification of professional mendicants and vagrants is advocated.

The discussion of the probation system was based upon the following question:

What is the effect upon criminality of the legal measures taken in different states in the form of probation or suspension of sentence, etc., to avoid the necessity for imprisonment, especially at the time of first conviction, taking account of the age, character and antecedents of the person? And is it desirable that these and similar laws be extended?

Justification for an affirmative answer to the question was furnished by Judge DeCourcy of Massachusetts, Homer Folks of New York, and other speakers. The importance of great care in the selection of probation officers was urged, so much depending upon their personality. The success of the system depends also very largely upon the views of the judge, regarding probation. Emphasis was laid on the fact that probation affords opportunities for careful studies of individual offenders and of the causes of crime. Probation has also had good results in changing the attitude of the community towards the criminal. The opinion generally expressed was that probation had reduced crime.

State supervision was strongly urged, as a means of raising the standard of probation and securing the best work.

The views of the section were summarized in the following resolutions, which were adopted by the general assembly:

1. That the effects of probation are beneficial when applied with due regard to the protection of the community, and to persons who may reasonably be expected to reform without resorting to imprisonment; and when the probationers are placed for a reasonable time under the supervision of competent officers.

2. That the effects of suspended sentence, without probationary oversight, are difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain.

3. That it is desirable to introduce and extend laws providing for probation, and to provide in each state, or country, some central authority which will exercise general supervision over probation work.

IV. THE SECTION ON CHILDREN

KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS
STATE REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN, BEDFORD, N. Y.

It is significant that one-fourth of the time of the International Prison Congress was devoted to questions relating to children and minors, not only to juvenile delinquents but also to dependent and defective children, and that in point of membership this section was the largest in the congress.

Those registering here included eminent judges, lawyers, American probation officers and representatives of societies which work with children at home and abroad as well as individual social workers.

The countries participating in the deliberations of the section were, beside the United States, whose representation was naturally the largest, Canada, England, Scotland, Germany, Holland, France, Japan, Italy, Switzerland and Russia, while Sweden and Norway made important contributions to the discussion of the first question in the general assembly.

The first question, "Should young delinquents be subjected to the penal procedure applicable to adults? If not, what principles should guide the procedure applied to children and youthful offenders?" was the one on which the section put the greater part of its work.

The review of the sixteen reports prepared to answer it was by Prof. Maurice Parmelee of the University of Missouri. The discussion on the resolutions occupied the entire morning on Monday and more than half of the time of the three remaining sessions.

As the result of numerous amendments it became necessary to appoint a committee on revision. This committee consisted of the reviewer, Professor Parmelee, Dr. J. A. von Hamel, professor of penal law at the University of Amsterdam, and Juvenile Court Judge H. H. Baker of Boston. This committee recast the resolutions three times before they reached a form satisfactory to all. When submitted to the general assembly for ratification, so earnest a discussion arose from gentlemen from over seas who had been in attendance on other sections, that it was necessary to return them to the fourth section and appoint a special hour for the final discussion at which all could be present.

There was from the first a complete agreement on the proposition that young delinquents should not be subjected to the same procedure as adult criminals. The differences arose over the various points of procedure in the juvenile court. The section was fortunate in having in its membership so large a representation of legal men who could present accurately the present procedure and the possibilities for the future for their respective countries.

In some ways the United States occupied middle ground. It was satisfied to leave the cause of the youthful offender in the hands of juvenile court judges. The Scandinavians did not wish to have judges deal with juveniles at all, but special commissions appointed for the purpose.

The Americans wished to recommend the elimination, so far as possible in juvenile proceedings, of the prosecuting attorney and the counsel for the defense. The French were entirely unwilling to agree to this.

The Italians felt that the same judge or body which dealt with delinquents should also have cognizance of certain cases of abandoned or dependent children. This was opposed by Anglo-Saxons, but a resolution offered by Count Conti of Rome was finally adopted in a modified form.

M. Danjoy, chief of bureau of Prison Administration, France, was earnest in his advocacy of women on the bench, or in commissions appointed to handle cases of young women or of juveniles under twelve years.

The most interesting feature of the entire discussion was the earnestness of the debaters and the importance attached by all to the adoption of resolutions which should represent not only what

was best in present practice, but what should be an ideal toward which to work.

Considerable time was spent on phraseology in order to make each resolution represent the exact idea intended—the continentals think us slovenly in this particular—but it was necessary occasionally to remind the section that after all the resolutions were an expression of an opinion and had no legislative force.

In their final form the resolutions adopted were as follows:

I. Young delinquents should not be subjected to the penal procedure now applied to adults.

II. The principles that should guide the procedure applied to young delinquents are as follows:

1. Those who are entrusted with the cognizance of the cases of young delinquents should be primarily chosen for their ability to understand and sympathise with children and should have some special knowledge of the social and psychological sciences.

2. They should have the assistance of probation officers to make preliminary examination in each case and to watch over and help those put on probation.

3. There should be made in connection with the cases of young delinquents, such examinations as will contribute to the fund of information on juvenile delinquency and the results should be used whenever practicable to help in the disposition of the case. Medical examinations should be made only by physicians who have some special knowledge of the social and psychological sciences. The personal information obtained in these examinations shall not be made public.

4. Whenever possible in the case of young delinquents, arrest should be avoided in bringing them before the authorities and orders for arrest should be issued only in exceptional cases.

5. When necessary to detain young delinquents, the detention should not be in quarters used for adults.

6. In those countries where a court is entrusted with the cognizance of the cases of young delinquents:

(a) Such cases should never be heard at the same session with adults, and

(b) It should be the tendency in the trial of juveniles to proceed as far as practicable by way of conference for the good of the child instead of contest about and over the child.

III. Those who are entrusted with the cognizance of the cases of young delinquents should also have the cognizance of the measures needed in the interest of abandoned or maltreated children.

The reports on question II, "Should special establishments be maintained for abnormal, backward and feeble-minded children showing dangerous moral tendencies?" were reviewed by Dr. William J. Healey of Chicago, Ill.

On the main question of separating the feeble-minded of criminal tendencies from the general class of feeble-minded, there was radical difference of opinion. To the Americans the most interesting view was that presented by Dr. Goddard of Vineland, N. J., who was present and declared most emphatically that segregation of the feeble-minded with criminal tendencies was not only unnecessary, but positively unwise.

Inasmuch as the question seemed one to be decided by practical experience and expert judgment, there was little discussion, and the following resolution was unanimously adopted:

Resolved: That it is the sense of this section in discussing the question of the establishment of separate institutions for mentally defective children with dangerous moral tendencies, that too little practical investigation of the subject has hitherto been undertaken for us competently to render a verdict. We, however, earnestly recommend that investigation be rapidly undertaken by well-qualified persons under private initiative or state authority—using the mental tests and classification which prominent students of the psychology of abnormal children have agreed upon, and working with clear definition of the ends in view—such investigation to be primarily directed towards ascertainment of:

I. How many children numerically and proportionately there are:
   (a) with dangerous moral tendencies in institutions for abnormal children,
   (b) with mental defect in institutions of the reformatory type, or who come before juvenile courts.

II. How the directors of such institutions:
   (a) regard the desirability of such cases as inmates of their institutions.
   (b) find it advisable to treat them;
   (c) estimate the success of their efforts.

Isabel C. Barrows of New York reviewed the eleven reports submitted in answer to question III, "What measures should be taken to correct idleness and vagabondage of children in large cities?"

In the reports, as in the discussion which followed, those taking part laid the emphasis upon this or that special means of prevention, but there was no difficulty in arriving at a consensus of opinion. Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of public schools of Chicago, and Mrs. Emmons Blaine led the discussion

on resolution II. There was an inclination among those specially interested in education to go into detail as to methods, but lack of time and the recognition that technicalities had better be left to specialists soon brought about an agreement, and the resolution was adopted with some amendments.

The resolutions on question III as finally adopted were:

It is resolved that to prevent habits of vagrancy and idleness among children in large cities there should be:

I. Laws making parents responsible for the wrongdoing of their children; compelling deserting fathers to return to their duty or to support their children; allowing children to be taken from unfit homes and be properly placed for training and care.

II. Greater co-operation between school authorities and the public; better adaptation of school curricula both in interest and in practical use to the individual needs of the children; and that there should be more kindergartens and greater recognition of training in handwork for the children.

III. Vast additions to playgrounds, wholesome recreation centers, gymnasiums and athletic fields as the surest preventives of juvenile mischief and crime, and as affording young people places where they may learn to bear defeat with courage and success with modesty.

IV. Lectures to parents on practical subjects that shall tend to make better and happier homes as the wisest way to keep children from the idle wandering life.

V. A stronger influence on the part of the press and pulpit to enforce the sentiment that the best bulwark against juvenile delinquency is to care for the children in such a way as to prevent them from becoming vagrants and idlers.

Only four reports had been submitted on question IV, "Are special measures necessary for the protection of children born out of wedlock and if so what measures?" These were reviewed by Jessie D. Hodder of Boston, who had drafted eight resolutions expressing what seemed to many radical and even revolutionary views. Delegates from the United States, France, Holland and England took part in the discussion.

Every speaker recognized the deplorable position of the illegitimate child in our modern society, and desired to alleviate it. The difficulty seemed to be in knowing how far it was safe to go in order not to seem to endorse illegitimacy or to strike a blow at marriage and the sacredness of the family. All agreed that the illegitimate child had an equal right to care and support. Considerable difference of opinion was expressed as to the right of inheritance, but the three words were all finally allowed to stand.

France was willing to vote for resolution V, that illegitimate children may legally acquire their father's name, provided an amendment was added that this should be only in cases where the father was unmarried. After rather sharp discussion the resolution was rejected as was also the eighth, which demanded social propaganda directed toward giving to illegitimate children "the place in the family group to which their blood relationship entitles them."

Six of the eight resolutions proposed were therefore adopted in the following form:

1. That in the opinion of this congress legislative measures and moral and social propaganda are necessary for the protection of illegitimate children.

2. That the object of legislative action should be so to modify existing laws as to make the care, support and inheritance of illegitimate and legitimate children as nearly as possible identical.

3. That after the nursing period is over the decision as to which parent shall have the future care of an illegitimate child should be based upon the child's best interests and its needs as a future citizen.

4. That whichever parent has not the care of the child should contribute toward its support and education.

5. That as illegitimacy is often the result of ignorance, it shall be the object of a moral propaganda;

a. to instruct young people in matters of sex and its relations to the life and welfare of the state.

b. to help build up a single moral standard applicable to men and women alike.

6. That as girl-mothers often attempt abortion, abandonment of their child, or drift into prostitution, it shall be the object of a social propaganda to have connected with hospitals and all institutions where such girl-mothers may go for advice and care, a trained staff of workers whose duties shall be

a. to instruct said girl-mothers in the care of herself in view of her child's needs before and after birth.

b. to secure from the child's father acknowledgment of paternity and the necessary financial provisions.

c. to act as friend to the mother, and guardian or trustee for the child.

THE PERSONAL SIDE OF THE CONGRESS

ISABEL C. BARROWS

It is asking a good deal to demand sketches of about ninety persons from thirty-four different countries. One cannot evolve the personal history of these penologists from his own brain, as the scientific German did the extinct animal, but happily certain facts have been furnished by the members of the Prison Congress for the basis of what can be said about them. Of their early life none of them has spoken. To read their brief notes one might believe they had sprung to life in full feather, like Minerva from the head of Jove. They mention only their university degrees, the offices they have held, the books they have written. How and where they spent their childhood, what were the influences that directed their lives, how they chanced into the paths of penology, are unknown facts, and unhappily the writer of this article may not venture into the realms of fancy to supply the missing information. Yet the data in hand afford some glimpses of what manner of men they were who crossed the seas to discuss penology.

JULES RICKL DE BELLYE, HUNGARY.
Councillor of the ministry; chief of the prison system; president of the International Congress at Budapest in 1905.

The countries represented were the Argentine Republic, Austria, Belgium, Great Britain, Canada, China, Colombia, Cuba, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Holland, Honduras, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Luxemburg, Mexico, New South Wales, Norway, Queensland, Russia, Salvador, Siam, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Tunis, Turkey and Venezuela. From this large number only a few could be chosen for biographical sketches.

From Austria came Count Gleispach, professor in the University of Prague, an earnest, eager speaker, who took an active part in the work of the section on criminal law. It might be said that Austria sent the Hungarians also, but they are rather the leaders, since Hungary is officially related to the congress, having one member on the commission, Rickl de Bellye, who was also the president of the last congress, in 1905. He and his brilliant wife, who speaks five languages, and kindly in each, were faithful attendants. Rickl de Bellye belongs to the Hungarian ministry of justice. He was born in 1851 in the broad plain of Debreczen, where untold miles of prairie-like level stretch out before the traveler, with great handsome oxen plodding over the fields, herds of geese guarded by little girls by the wayside, and innumerable locust trees, descendants from locusts imported from America. From the home of his father, a landed proprietor, he went to various

VENCESLAS GLEISPACH, AUSTRIA.

Doctor of law; professor University of Prague. It was Professor Gleispach's resolutions on the indeterminate sentence which were passed by the congress and marked the great advance of the decade.

colleges, taking his degree in Budapest and afterwards studying in Berlin, England and Belgium. Like other continental young men he had to perform a certain amount of military service and was lieutenant of the Hussars, teaching in the military school at the same time and finding, in those care-free days, leisure for translating a tragedy which was played in his native city. His military duties at an end he became an attaché of the minister of justice and was assigned to the penal section about the year 1876. At the sixth International Prison Congress in Brussels in 1900, he was the only delegate from Hungary. At the seventh congress in Budapest he was the president, exercising in addition a charming hospitality in his own home. For his services in that congress the Americans gave him gratitude, but the emperor of Austria, the tsar of Russia, the kings of Norway and Greece and the queen of Holland sent him decorations. Who shall say which way the balance tips when these are weighed against each other? He is at the head of the entire prison administration of Hungary, including juvenile reformatories, of which they have several wonderfully good examples in that far away land. He belongs to the Society of International Law, the League for Protecting Children and many other organizations. When Hungary celebrated her thousandth year he contributed a chapter on her criminals to the nine large volumes which told her story.

Hungary sent also Dr. Vambéry and Dr. Finkey of the University of Budapest, Dr. Waldhauser of the society of jurists, and Dr. Szilegyi of the Hungarian Charity Organization Society. Dr. Vambéry is the son of the well-known Arminius Vambéry and had the advantages of study in Budapest, Halle and Geneva. He is still a comparatively young man, though he has been a judge for ten years and the list of his publications includes nearly twenty titles, most of them relating to penological subjects.

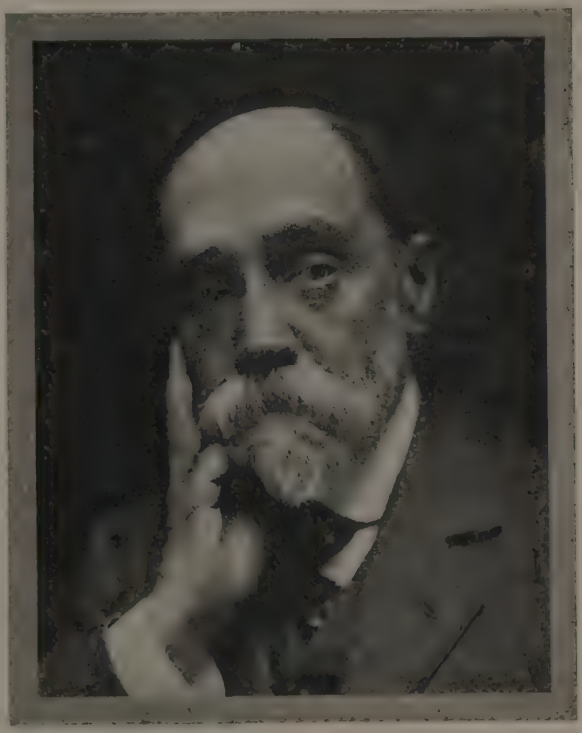
Belgium was represented by Professor and Mrs. Adolphe Prins, who have been studying American institutions with zeal during their weeks in this country. Professor Prins is general inspector of prisons and if he inspects his own establishments with as much kindly earnestness

R. VAMBERY, HUNGARY.

Royal attorney; professor University of Budapest; a progressive in the debates on the indeterminate sentence at Washington.

and painstaking observation as he has given to our own he must not only elicit cheerful information, but make friends with everybody with whom he comes in contact.

Great Britain sent a fine group of men and one woman, but as grandniece of Elizabeth Fry and granddaughter of Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, the famous abolitionist and prison reformer, Mrs. Scott well balanced the other sex. Her husband, Walter George Scott, head of the prison system of Scotland and chief of the clan of Scott, is a nephew of Lord Aberdeen and has several high-sounding titles of his own, but they meant so little to American ears that they were quite ignored in addressing him. He himself is so independent of any outward honor that could be bestowed on him that, to tell the truth, we forgot them. It was a case of "the man's a man for a' that." In this country at least he was as simple as any of us and he and his wife, his manly son and charming daughter, captured our democratic hearts.



Photograph by Campbell.

ADOLPHE PRINS, BELGIUM.

Professor, University of Brussels; general inspector of prisons; chairman of the section on criminal law of the Washington congress.

The head of the Irish prison system, J. S. Gibbons, a man as modest as he is intelligent, has long been connected with this work and under his régime the Irish prisons show good results, especially in the matter of health. Captain Arthur St. John of the Penal Reform League was another quiet Englishman, who was never idle here any more than he is at home. Then there was Major H. S. Rogers, who, after serving in India for years, has come back to England to build her prisons as the national architect, under the old name of chief surveyor. His tall, handsome figure and striking head called the attention of many a stranger as he sat in the meetings, and once—just once—when he was persuaded to lead the Sir Roger de Coverly in an improvised dance to while away the time when waiting for a train on the long excursion. The special gospel that he had to preach was the value of direct sunshine in prison cells. He would have met with a warm welcome from his friend, Mr. Barrows, for that was one great reform which he, too, hoped to bring into prison construction in this country. The prisons erected under Major Rogers are models in many ways, but in nothing more than in the fact that no corridor keeps the light from flooding the cell where the prisoner spends ten hours out of the twenty-four. America is far behind in prison structure in this respect. Yet here tuberculosis is our dread enemy, and the released prisoner spreads in the community the disease he may have contracted from lack of direct sunshine when behind the bars.

Yet another man from Great Britain was Thomas Holmes, secretary of the

J. S. GIBBONS, Ireland.
Chairman, Prison Commission.

Howard Association. He looks for all the world like the Laird in Trilby—with his whiskers, the twinkle in his eye and the pipe in his teeth. At the age of eleven he went to work as a parish apprentice in the foundries of the black country and worked until he was thirty-seven, when a serious accident threw him out. His hours were fourteen a day and he got up between four and five in the morning and read and studied. He studied at night after he should have been in bed. Then he came down to London and got work as a missionary. I told him about the twelve-hour day in the steel mills in this country. In England they work nine. He said:

> If any man works twelve hours a day at the usual rate in the iron works it is a scandal and a danger. Good gracious, what time have they to develop the best part of a man; I know what it cost me to study before I went to work at six and after I got back at eight. No reasonable man ought to be called upon to make that sacrifice. The country loses when it asks a man to do that; no wonder that among working people, the brains lie fallow; and only now and again can a man with remarkable abilities break out.

One of the parish apprentices that Mr. Holmes grew up with as a boy is now a leading engineer and railroad man on the Pacific coast. Holmes has the same veneration for a book that Carnegie has. As a boy he knew many of Macaulay's essays and poems by heart because those were the few books he could reach. A book was prized very much and thumbed over and handled with care. There were so few of them within reach. But along with this appreciation of the value of books, which many of us take for granted, he is dignified and vigorous in maintaining that conditions of life should be such that books could be used. Books and a long working day are to him antagonistic. There this English iron worker oversteps Carnegie, who has distributed the one as no man who has ever lived, but who has not raised a hand to stay the other.

Sir Evelyn Ruggles-Brise, who was elected president of the commission for the next five years, is president of the English prison board and a wise and rational prison reformer. In his hands the International Prison Commission may look forward to a successful congress in London, five years hence.

There was a wide variety of faces and heads as one looked about over the

WALTER GEORGE SCOTT, Scotland.
Master of Polworth, Chairman Prison Commission.

Washington gathering. The three Canadian delegates, for instance, offered a striking contrast in physiogonomy, to the three from Cuba, but beneath the fair, as beneath the darker skin, the same earnest desire for the betterment of existing conditions was burning.

It took no skill to select the most picturesque face in the crowd, and the character of the man was as interesting as his face — Victor Nybergh of Finland. Of himself he would not speak. When asked to furnish some facts for this article, he contented himself with saying that he had grown gray in prison service and then he began to tell of the splendid work of Baroness Mathilda Wrede, the Elizabeth Fry of Finland, who devotes herself to prisoners and their families and inspires prison officials with renewed courage and hope, teaching them not to tire in their work which so frequently fails to show the expected results. And then he hastened to add, that we may know she is not the only woman caring for her fellows, "The Finnish women have obtained universal suffrage and there is now ready a proposition for prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors."

Photograph by Barrach.

VICTOR NYBERGH, FINLAND.

This private representative of the Switzerland of the North was the most striking figure among the foreign delegates.

Too well he recognizes the connection between crime and drink. Mr. Nybergh is director of one of the largest prisons in Finland, with eight hundred men in his charge. Personally he has more faith in preventive work and looks with great anticipation on what is being done by the four schools for delinquent youth and the schools for neglected children in his own country. In what he calls our rich and wonderful America he has met friendship and hospitality. The Washington congress, the third which he had attended, rounded up a three months' tour of American institutions in more

than one of which he has been called "the children's Santa Claus, the man with the bright eyes who always looks on the bright side of things." People who come and go at international congresses are like ships that pass in the night and yet one can but feel a pang as they sail away. Among those who will be remembered with this regret is this man with the clear-seeing eyes and the warm heart.

It is encouraging to those passing away from the field of action to see young men coming up to fill the vacant places. There are many. Among them is Bolzidar Markovitch of Servia, professor of law in the University of Belgravia. Though only thirty-five he has published many things concerning penal procedure and other legal subjects. His German studies were made in the universities of Freiburg and Munich and he was a member of the Budapest congress. As minister of justice he has exercised much influence in his own country. Another of the active younger members of the congress was Paul Lublinsky, professor of law in the University of St. Petersburg, who first saw the light in the grim city of St. Petersburg in 1882. Possessed with a desire to make his own way in life, he began to teach at the age of thirteen, for the love of it, and at fifteen was already earning his living as an instructor. It is not strange that so gifted a lad was sent by his university to study in England and Germany, nor that he carried off gold medals and other honors, so that by the age of twenty-five he held a professorship. By his winning personality he won many friends this side of the sea and proved a living illustration of his name, whose root is the Russian word for "love."

ETIENNE DE KHROULEFF, RUSSIA.

Commissioner; chief of the Prison Administration of the empire whose statements as to Russian prisons provoked an active newspaper discussion.

Another Russian professor, from the University of Moscow, was Mr. Poznycheff who has been a prolific writer on penological subjects as well as on almshouses and reformatories. One of the titles in his list awakens a desire to see what a good Russian subject could have to say on it, Crimes against Religion, Considered from the Point of View of Liberty of Conscience.

In the notes furnished by Mr. Loutchinsky, editor of the *Russian Messenger*, he tells of his first interest in criminal matters when as a tutor he was sent to Switzerland with an abnormal youth with dangerous moral tendencies. On his return to Russia in 1888, he entered government service, where he received promotion after promotion as prison inspector, judge, and state councillor. He afterward went to Germany to study the method of identification by finger prints and is at the head of the Russian bureau which requires finger prints of those refusing to give their names and civil and social position. He has also studied juvenile reformatories in Paris, Vienna, Prague and France, to which he has added his American studies in the same direction. Among his numerous publications are several on the indeterminate sentence and conditional release as practiced in America. Whether his earlier ideas were confirmed by his visit to this country, or whether he will look on these reforms with a more lenient

eye after seeing our institutions, the readers of the *Prison Messenger* will learn.

Naturally the head of the prison department of Russia attracted great interest in this country, for no other man at the congress has it in his power to wield an influence for weal or for woe in 1,200 prisons. After finishing his studies in the University of St. Petersburg Mr. Khrouleff devoted himself to law, rising by degrees till he reached his present influential position. He has not only been interested in the question of prisons, but in reformatories for youth and in prisoners' aid societies. It is said that wherever he has been stationed he has developed guardian societies to look after discharged prisoners. In addition to his judicial work he has found time for writing, and one of his papers, on the compensations due to those who have been falsely sentenced through errors of justice, attracted much attention.

E. S. GOLDENWEISER, Russia.

Mr. Khrouleff was ill-pleased with much that was said of him and his prisons in the American papers. Nor were Americans well-pleased that his French biographer in this country quoted S. J. Barrows to sustain Mr. Khrouleff's claims for the excellence of Russian prisons. As I was with Mr. Barrows in Russia and visited some prisons with him I may perhaps say here, what I have refrained from saying in the daily papers discussing this theme, that it is true that he found features in Russian prisons which he thought worthy of adoption. But it must be remembered he was studying construction, with a view of getting the best for the New York prison to take the place of Sing Sing. He therefore studied only the newest structures in each of the thirteen different countries through which we passed on that memorable trip. In these, he praised the large cells, the direct sunlight in those cells and some other features. The question of administration he took no notes upon, but I recall his speaking with commendation of the outdoor exercise to which every prisoner in Russia was entitled. But there need be no uncertainty on the subject, for Mr. Barrows made an official report on European prisons, including those of Russia.

I might venture to state that Premier Stolypin admitted to me personally, when I saw him in Russia last year, that the prisons were frightfully overcrowded, that typhus fever and tuberculosis were rampant in them, and that the question of prison labor was a terribly vital one in Russia. Strange to say my suggestion to Russian officials that they could relieve the overcrowding by releasing political prisoners did not meet with favor! When Mr. Barrows was asked, "What do you do with political offenders?' he laughingly replied, "We turn them down at the next election."

Mr. Khrouleff is not ignorant of Russian conditions. He has served in many parts of that vast empire, and made visits to the penal settlements of Siberia. He has seen European and American institutions and marked the results, and if in his great field he does not adopt the best means of treating criminals he will sin

M. A. SCHRAMECK, FRANCE.
Director-general of Prisons.

against the light. He has it also in his power to lessen the sufferings of political offenders, and will command the gratitude of civilized countries if he takes advantage of his power and undoubted ability to lighten the hardships of prisoners of every kind. Such work is needed in Russia.

The chief prison physician of the great prison in Moscow was also present. He has travelled much in Europe and has written concerning prison sanitation and occupations. Among others from Russia were Mr. and Mrs. E. S. Goldenweiser of Kiev, people who moved so quietly on their way that only a few learned to appreciate their great worth. The Washington meeting was the occasion of an interesting family re-union, for the interpreter of the third section of the congress was their son, a member of the staff of the Federal Immigration Commission and translator of his father's essay on Tolstoi's Resurrection. This essay, which has been translated into several European languages, was issued as a sixty-page pamphlet and distributed to members of the congress, with a letter of introduction from Count Tolstoi, in which the great social philosopher of Eastern Europe stamps as unreasonable and immoral "that strange institution which is called a trial." To Mr. Goldenweiser, the part which the Resurrection will play in combating criminal slavery, will no doubt be similar to that played by Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel in the abolition of Negro slavery. "Tolstoi's task is a heavier one; he attacks an institution which is everywhere considered normal and necessary, whereas Mrs. Stowe was indignant at a practice which was condemned as a disgrace by the entire civilized world." "What exists must do so no longer: What will take its place is another question."

France sent six representative men, Mr. Schrameck, director of the French Prison system; Mr. Constantin, general inspector; Mr. Danjoy, chief of the Bureau of Prison Administration, and Messrs. Spuch, Bok and Blum.

Holland, too, was well represented. The first name on its list of nine was that of Dr. Simon van der Aa, commissioner for Holland and professor of penal law in the university of Groningen. Dr. van der Aa has attended several of the International Prison Congresses. At

VICTOR ALMQUIST, SWEDEN.
Chief, Division General Prison Administration, Stockholm.

Washington Dr. Guillaume laid down the secretarial pen, which he has held since these congresses began in 1872. The commission was fortunate in being able to enlist so well-equipped a man as Dr. Van der Aa to succeed Dr. Guillaume. Dr. van der Aa studied in Heidelberg as well as in Amsterdam, where he was made doctor of laws twenty years ago. He has served as prison inspector, on the court of appeals, as director general of prison administration, and has represented his country in several International Congresses. He has been deeply interested in measures to be applied to juvenile delinquents and abandoned children and in systematic trade-teaching in prisons. He has written on all these and allied topics.

From Holland were Mr. Dressulhuys, director general of the prison administration; Dr. Engelen, Dr. Kranenburg, and other members of the judicial world. The familiar name among them was that of Dr. van Hamel, professor of law in the University of Amsterdam, where he succeeds his father, who has for many years been a leader in prison reform. Dr. van Hamel shared with Dr. van der Aa and Dr. Borel the distinction of being able to use three languages interchangeably.

Photograph by Campbell.

D. O. ENGELEN, HOLLAND.
President, Tribunal of Zutphen.

M. H. C. DRESSELHUYS, HOLLAND.
Director-general, Central Administration of Prisons, Ministry of Justice.

Sweden also sent the son of his father, Victor Almquist. The father was chief of the prison administration of Sweden and first president of the International Prison Commission. The son began as a child to visit prisons with him and so grew up in the atmosphere of prison reform. He has served in Sweden on committees for securing new prison laws and improving prison administration and is a member of the Swedish temperance society.

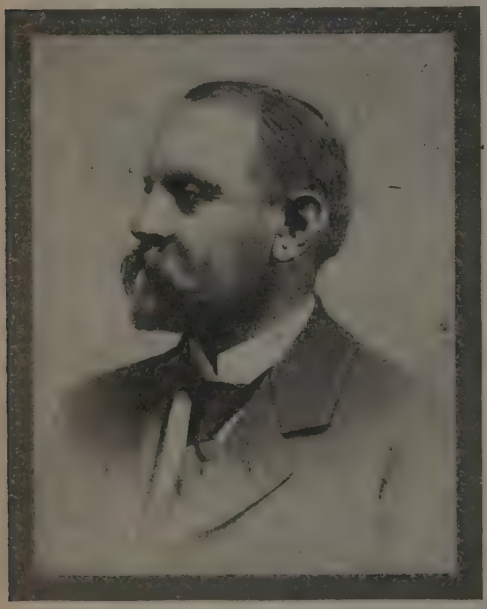
Norway's representative, Frederic Woxen, is the treasurer of the commission. Like most of the delegates, he devoted himself to law during his university course in Christiania, France, Germany and Italy. Snce 1880 he has been attached to the Ministry of Justice and since 1889 has been the head of the prison administration. He has been a member of the school board of Christiania, a member of the high court of the kingdom, and a member of the Society of Norwegian Penologists. The laws which he has helped frame are: for morally abandoned

children, on vagabondage, intemperance, prisons and workhouses. He has written much concerning Norwegian prison affairs. For both Norse and Swedish delegates, the Washington congress was the fifth.

But all the wisdom did not come from the north. It was pleasant to meet from Spain men whom we had greeted in Madrid, and the men from Greece were Budapest acquaintances. Names only can be given; from Spain: Doctors Silvela y Corral, Cadalso and Valdes, each representing prison work and all faithfully attending the sessions of the congress. From Greece Messrs. Skousis, Gounarakis, Castorkis and Typaldo-Bassis. The last may have been a descendant of Ulysses; he came at least from Ithaca. He is a member of the International Court of Arbitration at the Hague and has been a member of the International Prison Commission since 1896, but it would take pages to tabulate all the other distinguished posts he has held in artistic, historic, monetary, agricultural, archeological and scientific societies, representing them at national and international sessions and writing voluminously. Probably there was not another member of the congress interested in so many subjects from the protection of useful birds to the production of drama.

Mr. Skousis is the son of Helena Skousis whose father in 1826 blew himself up that he might not fall into the hands of the Turks at Missolonghi. His son was born in the house of his grandfather, the house in which Lord Byron died. He has been much in diplomatic service in Vienna, Berlin and Paris, and has attended five of the congresses, acting as vice-president on three occasions.

The three Italian members were easily distinguished. No one who ever saw the towering figure of the Roman Senator Pierantoni would be likely to forget him. On the tour about the country, the Pullman berths were too short for him and he had to be accommodated on a couch in the men's dressing room. Next was the gentle Abbé Bianchi, who never missed a session and no matter how hungry always sought out a church before a restaurant. Of all the writers of papers



FREDERICK O. A. WOXEN, NORWAY.
Secretary-general, Department of Justice; chief Prison Administration.

D. E. CASTORKIS, GREECE.
Chief, Prison Administration; professor of law, University of Athens; ex-governor of Cephalonia.

for the congress he was the only one who urged gymnastics as a moral influence for young people. Count Ugo Conti was the third Italian, an ardent reformer, a man of deep-feeling and warm, human sympathies, and a leader in the discussions of criminal law. Delegates from the Orient were also present. The Chinese attended their first prison congress, but one of the delegates from Japan made the long journey in 1905 to attend the Budapest congress.

It was Switzerland, the land of liberty and progress, that sent the literature of the congress with the men who came to represent her. The papers prepared for the congress are translated into French and distributed from the office of the secretary, Dr. Guillaume. Fifteen large cases brought them across the ocean. In addition, at Washington, a daily *Bulletin* was printed of which Dr. Borel, professor of international law in the University of Geneva, was editor. No man in the conference was busier than he, but no one had more time, tact and quick discernment. In the confusion sometimes arising from diversity of tongues as well as of ideas, it was his serene decision that smoothed out the roughest places. His knowledge of the laws of many lands, his unfailing courtesy and genial kindness made a deep impression and more than one American said, "Why doesn't one of our big universities try to transplant that man to America? He would take root here."

UGO CONTI, ITALY.

Professor, University, Superior Colonial Institute of Rome; delegate of the Italian government; a conservative leader in the debates on the indeterminate sentence.

ERNST ROSENFELD, GERMANY.

Secretary of the International Criminalistic Association.

Dr. Borel is the son of a sister of Dr. Guillaume, for forty years secretary of the congress, who with the Washington meeting, laid aside his labors. They inherit the same splendid traits from the same ancestry—goodness and learning.

The father of Dr. Guillaume was a lawyer living in Verrieres—Suisse, canton of Neuchatel, when Luis Guillaume was born, the oldest of eleven children. His mother was one of the remarkable women who have had great influence over remarkable sons. She was an eager reader of scientific books. At the time when the writings of the French encyclopedists were contraband, they were printed in this little Swiss village and thence smuggled into France; but many copies were left there. The grandfather of Dr. Guillaume had therefore all the works of Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot,

and the rest, and the children learned to read these books and many ideas took root. Certainly they influenced the thought of this young boy who went away to Basel to study and become a physician. He began his practice in Neuchatel and among his patients was a friend of Agassiz, Mr. Desor, who had received from America among other books some of the writings of Theodore Parker. Later Parker himself came to Europe and Dr. Guillaume met him and they talked of the abolition of slavery and other serious topics. Through him Dr. Guillaume learned to know the writings of Channing and other Unitarians.

For twenty years Dr. Guillaume was the prison physician in Neuchatel and when Dr. Wines went there in 1871 to see about organizing an international prison congress they became friends. As Dr. Guillaume was chairman of the Swiss Prison Society the Federal Council naturally sent him to London to attend the first International Prison Congress. There he met Mary Carpenter and spent several weeks in her home in Bristol becoming acquainted also with Octavia Hill, her sister, and their distinguished father Recorder Hill of Birmingham.

For years he was a member of the Swiss statistical society and in 1889 the Swiss Federal Council asked him to become director of the Bureau of Statistics, a position he still holds. He reached a wider public than Switzerland in one of his reforms. This was as president of the school board, a post he filled for years. Through an American engineer he heard of the idea of separate desks for each scholar, a plan which appealed to him as a physician. He wrote a little treatise on school hygiene and suggested this reform. The book was translated into all the languages of Europe and to Dr. Guillaume the little children of those great countries owe the fact that school desks and seats are adapted to their needs.

His own university, Berne, made him a doctor of laws and last year, during its great celebration, the University of Geneva made him a doctor of letters on account of his historical writings. I was present in Paris when Dr. Henderson told him of this new honor. He had heard the name announced in Geneva. Dr. Guillaume could hardly believe it. His learning is equalled only by his modesty.

The congress honored itself by making him an honorary president henceforth. He will finish the official report of this congress and then lay down his pen. But that will give him more time for his friends, of whom he has an unending throng. One has but to walk the streets of Berne with him to see how he is loved and revered. The little children know that kind face and gentle word and their fathers and mothers look pleased and proud when he recognizes them. In spite of his years—he is nearly eighty-three — no one thinks of him as old. He uses no glasses, no cane, no stimulants, and is as keenly alive to all reform and progress as any younger man. Loyal in his affection to his friends, true to the highest ideals of duty, his is one of the noblest and most beautiful characters it has ever been our joy to meet. A safe voyage to him as he sails over the seas and a calm and peaceful harbor!

AN EXCURSION INTO REFORMATORY AMERICA[1]

J. SIMON VAN DER AA

UNIVERSITY OF GRONINGEN, HOLLAND

Surely the trip through different states to visit various penological institutions—and including the visits to others before and afterwards — was the most interesting part of the Washington Prison Congress to the foreign members. It gave us a great many strong and valuable impressions about the country in general and its activity in the matter of prevention and punishment of crime in particular. But for this very reason, it is difficult to express at this moment and in brief, as I am asked to do, a general view about it. One must stand a little farther off to overlook the whole more freely. Time is needed to select and put in order material of such quantity, quality and variety. So, the only thing I can do at present is to make some scattered observations on points which seem prominent to me at this moment.

SIMON VAN DER AA, HOLLAND.

Professor, University of Groningen, who, on Dr. Guillaume's retirement, was elected secretary of the International Prison Commission. Professor Dr. van der Aa was chairman of the section on prison administration of the Washington congress.

There is no doubt that the trip was a complete success and that it an-

[1] Dr. van der Aa was one of the group of foreign penologists who were guests of the United States on the tour of American institutions which preceded the Washington Prison Congress. The itinerary included the New York State Reformatory at Elmira, founded in 1876, and the first institution of the kind in the world; the George Junior Republic at Freeville, the initial children's institution for juvenile delinquents founded along self-government lines; the New York State Prison at Auburn, the State Agricultural and Industrial School at Industry, one of the best examples of cottage institutions in America; the Ohio State Reformatory at Mansfield, one of the newer American reformatories; the Juvenile Court, Chicago, the first children's court in the United States and in the world, together with the following Illinois state institutions.—The House of Correction and John Worthy School for Boys, the Illinois State Penitentiary at Joliet, Illinois State Training School for Girls at Geneva, the School for Boys at St. Charles, and the Illinois State Reformatory at Pontiac. In Indiana, an equally notable series of institutions was visited, including the Indiana Woman's Prison, the Indiana Girls' School, Indiana Boys' School (both for juvenile delinquents and indicating even in their titles the newer conceptions in such work), the Indiana State Prison at Michigan City, and the Indiana Reformatory at Jeffersonville, which has taken the leadership in experimentation in the direction of asexualization as a preventive agent. Special entertainment was accorded the delegates at New York, Auburn, Buffalo, Chicago, Indianapolis, Louisville, Washington and elsewhere. Visits were made to the institutions of the District of Columbia and, after the congress, to the Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia, the model in its day of cellular confinement, as Auburn was, once, for imprisonment in common with isolation at night; the two distinct types which, even in Europe, have been known by these American names. Prof. van der Aa was requested by the editors of THE SURVEY to express himself with entire frankness as to American institutions. The time at his disposal before sailing for Europe, was so very brief that he protested very naturally against putting his impressions on paper in such hurried form. To his good nature in overcoming these scruples, as guest and as literary man, Americans are indebted for what is, in truth, a valuable piece of constructive criticism.

swered perfectly its purpose. "A hard labor sentence," one of the foreign delegates called it jestingly, in an after dinner speech. If one take the term "hard labor" in a modern sense, as an instructive and educative exertion of mind and body after a well considered scheme and under clever and benevolent guidance, that denomination may suit perfectly. There is also this particular likeness: no other element of penological treatment is more beneficial than well conducted labor, and no way of introducing the team of foreigners into the theory and the practice of the American systems could be more profitable than that of letting them work through the program of the excursion with the pleasant help of competent Americans of both sexes. Gratitude to those who in one way or another contributed to make that work in so high a degree interesting and agreeable, as it proved to be, is one of the warmest and most enduring personal feelings we take home with us.

When the International Prison Commission in the meeting at Budapest in 1905, received the gracious invitation of President Roosevelt to hold the next congress in the United States, it gladly voted to do so. We presumed then that it might be right to go over to America for a change and that it could be useful to look at penitentiary methods and matters there. It was rational, all know now, not to say necessary, to do so for our own intellectual benefit and for the development of penitentiary science in general. Hardly any of us had been here before; nearly all were "freshmen" in that respect. Going about, seeing and hearing have not only added to the positive knowledge we possess, but have changed its character more or less; in a certain way cleared it, improved it and especially broadened it. Veterans, as many of us are in penological work, acquainted with what is done in Europe, we felt now and then like recruits when we stood before some new institution, some new proceeding that embodies or realizes some new keen idea; the warm enthusiasm of younger days now and then seized us, profound admiration several times animated us, even though the system and its incorporation, which awakened these feelings, could not perhaps be transferred to our own surroundings. Yet many a principle which forms the pith of such a system is apt in itself to be transferred, and to find its way sooner or later to other countries, I am sure, shaped according to local conditions.

Perhaps the most remarkable fact revealed to us was that the notion of the vindictive character of penalty appears to have quite vanished and that even the idea of retributive punishment seems here to be losing its hold more and more. Official and unofficial words of the highest officers of state bore witness to this advanced state of mind, as it seemed to me.

Next, I was struck particularly by the probation work and the parole practice, these two equally important methods of dealing with transgressors. To avoid punishment, if possible, and especially to keep the person out of prison; to release him, if he is sent to prison, as soon as feasible, are undoubtedly sound and excellent ideas. One can hardly sufficiently appreciate that they are not carried out by the direct action of authorities merely, but that private associations and individuals co-operate with the judicial and executive powers in such a way and to such an extent as were evident to us. Thus public sentiment is created, which is indispensable for the success of such methods. In this America is certainly far ahead of old Europe.

Very high it ranks too,—standing in line with the most progressive countries —in the work, official and private, of saving children from crime and distress. It was a treat to sit at the sessions of juvenile courts, where the judges in dealing with the various cases showed as much simple kindness as clear sagacity. Whether these sessions should be open to the public, in the absolute way they seem to be, is to me a matter of serious doubt. It was a pleasure to see different institutions: — friendly children's homes, the homely detention house, and the well kept reformatory institution for boys and girls in Louisville; the renowned Geneva and St. Charles Schools near Chicago, and the special division for

boys in the house of correction there, held quite as an educational institution, with first class manual training;—the imposing new reformatory for girls outside Indianapolis, built after the cottage system on large and beautiful grounds; the fine and home-like reformatory of Industry, a collection of family cottages and other buildings covering a vast and pretty domain in the country near Rochester, N. Y. The hasty visit of less than an hour to the George Junior Republic at Freeville did not allow any closer observation of that remarkable experiment to let children be ruled by children under general supervision. A pleasant and favorable remembrance of that peculiar self-governing community remains, giving at the same time the impression that the inmates must be always of a certain standing, which excludes very bad and otherwise unfit elements, and also that the supervisor must possess uncommon personal qualities.

The latter criticism may be applied also to the big reformatories or reformatory prisons for juveniles and adults, like those of Elmira and Mansfield, where we had the advantage of again seeing a system till now unknown in practice in Europe. Therefore, the visits to these institutions were counted amongst the most interesting events of the trip and they did not fail to impress their characteristic features on the minds of the visitors. The situation of each on an elevation, the extensive premises, the grand structures, luxurious even in some points, as they seemed to us, spoke of the importance attached to the reformation of young criminals who might be rescued from a life of vice and harm and turned into orderly and valuable members of society. Not to let them undergo punishment, but to make them good citizens if possible, seemed to be the design that rules—and rules entirely—the treatment. So we found it in both institutions but with some difference in details. It would, for instance, appear that Elmira did a deal more in the line of work in the gymnasium and military drill, which we saw performed in an astoundingly alert and correct manner, and that Mansfield put more weight on instructive labor and teaching a trade, of which we saw remarkably good results.

In these reformatories, containing a thousand and more inmates each, a great deal must depend on the influence of the general spirit of the house. This spirit has to seize the individual man and lead him in the desired direction. Does this not imply the danger of weakening his individuality, which should be at its strongest on his return into free life? I was informed that experience shows it does not, and I am inclined to think, judging from what I could observe and gather outside the prisons, that indeed, generally speaking, the American knows how to submit to common rules and at the same time to keep up his individuality. It follows that individualization is not considered the great modern principle in confinement, as it has been in later years in Europe. Still its value is not quite overlooked in these reformatories. For the men who live for the rest of the time in common are kept in cells from the hour that work is over till the next morning and likewise on Sundays. This, it seems, is a weak point in these institutions, in consequence of the construction; the cells can hardly be called sufficient for their purpose, at least not according to our general standard. First of all they are inside cells, receiving light and air not directly from the outside, but only from the corridors round and between the tiers. Besides they are of small dimension, too small in fact for serving as a convenient retreat during many hours. Moreover, when the house is overcrowded, which often is the case two or more persons are put in one cell. It seems that the relatively small amount of additional money needed for the construction of a sufficient number of cells of larger dimension, with direct admission of light and air, could be easily raised when one thinks of the large sums which these institutions must have cost.

This same drawback is found in other prisons, even in the famous old penitentiaries at Philadelphia and Auburn. Everyone who has studied the history of prisons has visited these with a feeling of respect for their past, but at the same time with a feeling of regret for the

present in that respect. The Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia, once the model for cellular imprisonment, is now holding far more prisoners than its capacity allows, so that even four men are kept in a cell which would be sufficient for just one. At Auburn, the model once for imprisonment in common, with isolation at night, many a cell held more than one person, a deviation from the good old regulation. There at Auburn the special division for women (formerly a hospital for insane) shows how cells should be constructed according to modern conceptions. The new cell block in the house of correction at Chicago shows the same advantage.

Far worse is the drawback in houses for prisoners awaiting trial or serving short sentences, like the Tombs of New York and different county jails we saw. In the latter, sometimes a barred corridor along these inside cells offered some opportunity of moving about, but it also imposed upon the prisoners the promiscuity of all the others in the same row. In these prisons there is, as a rule, no work for the men, so that they have to pass their day—and often many a day, many a week, many a month—in idleness, trying somehow to kill the time, and everyone who knows prisons understands what that means.

Labor, in fact, is the best thing one can offer the prisoner. The man detained for trial will also accept it as a benefit, or can be made to understand that it is such. America is a land where one evidently knows what it is to work and what work means to a man. Is it not astonishing, then, that there should be difficulty in providing it for prisoners, either because of the construction, or the management, or for other reasons, like fear of competition with free industry? This competition which seems to be a great hindrance in several states, as we heard, can be eliminated or reduced to an absolutely harmless minimum by a discriminate application of the state-use system, adopted already in many of the prisons here. Such is the experience in my own country, where the damage would be all the greater as the country is small. How well Americans know how to make prisoners work we have seen in the penitentiary at Blackwell's Island and elsewhere; how well they know how to teach them trades we have observed in the prison at Auburn and in other institutions, when no restrictive regulation put obstacles in the way.

To conclude, I must mention that the visit to the great reformatory at Jeffersonville deeply impressed us as it brought us face to face with a daring attempt at solving one difficult problem of prevention (sterilization), which gave cause to much after-thought and discussion.

Let me say in addition that we greatly admired the American frankness and broad-mindedness which allowed and induced us to see everything, even where the authorities who opened the doors knew that we would find fault. This has obliged us in our intercourse with our American colleagues and friends not to speak only flattering words, but to express our thoughts when we were asked to do so, freely and openly, and this, I am glad to say, has facilitated greatly mutual understanding and increased yet more our sympathy with them, their work and their country. For this reason I felt bound to refer to those few drawbacks while expressing warm appreciation of the great work in general which is done here in practical penology, as revealed to us in the trip.

SOCIAL CHANGE AND PRISON REFORM IN JAPAN

T. SANAGI

COMMISSIONER OF THE PRISON BUREAU, DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE, JAPAN

TAKASHI SANAGI, JAPAN.

Commissioner, Prison Bureau, Department of Justice. Mr. Sanagi was one of the public lecturers at the Washington congress.

With regard to the improvement of prisons in the Japanese Empire, every effort has been made to adopt measures to that end during the last forty-two years, that is, ever since the accession of the present emperor. In 1872 the principle and course to be adopted in the treatment of prisoners were for the first time defined; and at the same time the essential point of prison government was indicated in the following terms:

> The prison should be a place for the treatment of men with humanity and not with cruelty; it should be a place for correcting them, and not for inflicting pain upon them. Punishment is resorted to under unavoidable circumstances when the object is to remove evils from the state. Prison governors should bear this carefully in mind in the treatment of their prisoners.

The intention was thus clearly expressed to put an end to cruelty and infliction of pain in the treatment of prisoners, and to adopt exclusively what is known as the principle of improvement and reform based upon the doctrine of humane correction. Since then, by observance of this principle, efforts have been made to reform the prison system and to bring about improvements in the enforcement of penalties to keep pace with the reform and development of the penal system. Three years ago, in 1907, the criminal code was revised, and with a view to insure the effective enforcement of penalties, the prison law was also established and promulgated. In this manner a new era was opened in the penal administration of our empire.

The social changes have been remarkable in our country. From institutions and social conditions and manners to arts and sciences, there is nothing that has not undergone entire transformation. When we look back to the times, more than two decades ago, when the criminal law and the prison regulations which were in force up to the year before last were first established, we feel as if we were then living in an altogether different world. Now law is the reflex of society; and it need hardly be stated that

since it is the true character of law to develop simultaneously with institutions and social conditions and to advance with the progress of science and acquirement of experience, it should always keep abreast of the times. And when regarded also from the standpoint of penal administration, the necessity for the revision of the criminal code was recognized. Accordingly, after careful study of the sciences and institutions of the various countries of Europe and America, and mature consideration of the social conditions of our country and the results of our scientific knowledge and experience, additions and amendments were made upon subjective principles and the criminal code revision bill was drafted. It was presented to the Imperial Diet and, with its approval, was promulgated in July, 1907, and brought into force on October 1 of the following year. Thus, the criminal code was revised, but since the effectiveness of a penalty is revealed only when it is enforced, no judicial decision, however just and to the point, can be of effect unless it is carried out in a proper manner. Hence, it became more necessary than ever to bring about a reform in prison administration, and the prison regulations, which had been issued in the form of administrative regulations, were abolished. As it was deemed necessary to enact a law in their place in order to strengthen the basis of the enforcement of penalties, the prison law was framed in accordance with the principles of the revised criminal code. It was presented to the Imperial Diet in 1908 and, upon obtaining approval, was immediately promulgated. It was brought into force on October 1 of the same year, simultaneously with the revised criminal code. The detailed regulations relative to its enforcement were, so far as they harmonized with the spirit and principles of the prison law, issued at the same time in the form of an administrative ordinance, that is to say, in this case as an ordinance of the Department of Justice. In this manner, penalties and their enforcement were made to harmonize with each other; and this harmony has been of great service in the penal administration of the empire.

With regard to the results of the enforcement of the revised criminal code and the prison law, it would be premature to speak with confidence as the enforcement is still of a recent date; but if we were to compare the number of persons convicted during the twelvemonth following the introduction of the revised criminal code with the number during the same period immediately preceding that event, we should find a decided decrease. The revised code has generally extended the range of penalties and left room to reach the proper mean between severity and leniency, by letting the degree of punishment vary with the circumstances of the offence and the character of the offender. As persons who have previously transgressed the law are in most cases condemned to longer terms of imprisonment than was the rule under the old code, those with previous convictions are struck with fear and not a few habitual offenders have taken up honest callings. The decrease in cases of gambling and larceny is an instance in point, and goes far to show that the deterrent effect of punishment is recognized and that its object, the general prevention of crime, has been attained. Further, many prisoners, fearing that if they commit crimes after leaving prison they will be condemned to long terms of imprisonment, become careful in their conduct and make up their minds to take up honest callings when they are released. Moreover, whereas in the old code it was prescribed that to be admitted to the special favor of provisional release those condemned to penal servitude for life must serve fifteen years, and those condemned to a definite term must serve two-thirds of that term, under the new code provisional release may be granted after ten years in the case of servitude for life, and in the case of penalty for a definite term, upon the lapse of one-third of such term. As this special favor may thus be enjoyed much sooner than formerly, the prisoners, in their eagerness to qualify as soon as possible for this favor, have shown a tendency almost unconsciously to become careful in their conduct. The adoption of the finger-print method for the detection of previous conviction, the consequence of

which is to eliminate the blind trust that a light sentence might be obtained by concealment, has not been without fruit in the prevention of crime. Among the reforms made in the prison law with a view to the effective enforcement of penalties, should be mentioned the fact that the wages for the work done by prisoners, which they received under the old regulations as a matter of right, are now given them in the form of rewards, and in the conditions for determining the rates to be given, conduct has been included. This intimate connection between their conduct and the amount of their rewards has produced a good impression upon the prisoners and brought about an improvement in their conduct. As a part or the whole of a reward may, according to circumstances, be withheld under the new law as punishment, the prisoners have naturally shown a disposition to be careful and diligent. In short, as they have come to understand that their punishment is not to be slighted, and its enforcement not to be evaded, the condition of the prisoners has changed and is now tranquil. It would not, therefore, be far from the truth to say that the enforcement of the revised criminal code and the prison law marks an advance in our prison administration, and that its object has been attained in part.

But it need hardly be stated that since laws and regulations are lifeless things, they will be of no effect unless there are proper men to put them to practical use. As it was necessary to foster men of character at the same time as the revision of laws and regulations, the training school for prison officials, which had been closed for some time, was re-opened in Tokyo upon the enforcement of the criminal code and the prison law. Once or twice every year one or two of the chief jailers in actual service are selected from every prison and admitted into the school, where during four months they receive instruction in law and other subjects useful to prison officials. Thus, the school is the means of obtaining men of special fitness for the work. Since last year two terms have passed and 117 persons have completed the course. As the school has so far given effective results, it is intended to keep it up.

It is not enough for the improvement of prison administration to obtain proper prison officials; a great deal depends without doubt upon the buildings. The prisons hitherto erected in our country are mostly of wood, and the arrangement and construction are imperfect so that it is to be feared that perfect confinement and true reform cannot be confidently expected in such places. Rebuilding of prisons was perforce recognized to be as urgent as reform in administration. Accordingly, in 1900, it was decided that prison expenses, which had until then been defrayed out of the local accounts, should thereafter be defrayed out of the national treasury. At the same time, a program was formed with respect to the reconstruction, and after a careful consideration of prison architecture in Europe and America, and close study of the actual convenience and advantages attached to it, it was planned to build our prisons entirely of brick or stone. The scheme was adopted of rebuilding one after another at the annual expenditure of 300,000 yen. First, the rebuilding of six prisons was commenced as an undertaking extending over five years. Those belonging to the first period have been completed, and the rebuilding of four prisons which belong to the second period has been commenced. The work is going on and will, it is expected, be completed in a year or two. In order to make the reconstruction as complete as possible, it is desired to rebuild the remaining prisons, and application has been made for funds to meet the cost. Although the object in view is, for financial reasons, yet unattained, a plan is being made to apply for an annual grant of not more than 500,000 yen, and to expedite therewith the rebuilding of the prisons of the whole country.

As regards prison education, lessons are daily given to prisoners under eighteen years of age, while to those of eighteen years and upwards, the lessons are given only in cases where they are deemed necessary. The subjects taught are those of the primary school course. In large prisons professional teachers are

specially engaged, but in small ones the chaplains take charge of the classes in addition to their proper work. Moral instruction is based entirely upon religion, and the chaplains are all Buddhist priests.

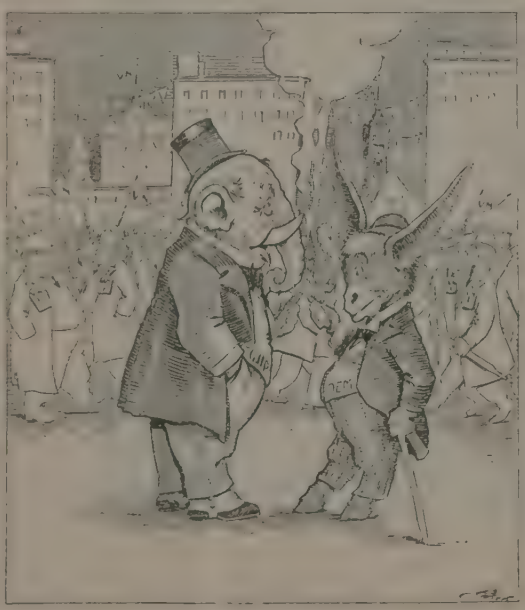
As the provisional release previously referred to has had a marked effect upon the condition of the prisoners, it is here proposed to give some details of the procedure connected therewith. If any prisoner, who has been of good conduct and received reward-badges and has been in prison for ten years under a life sentence, or for one-third of the time condemned to a definite term, is considered by the governor of the prison to show unmistakable signs of repentance and reform and to be fit to be provisionally released, the governor reports to that effect to the minister of justice. If the minister approves, he gives the required permission. When such prisoner leaves the prison, he receives from the governor a certificate of provisional release, and after release he must, of course, take up an honest calling, maintain his good conduct and be under the control of a police office. The police office, however, may, after hearing the opinion of the prison governor on the matter, delegate the control to a private individual, who must be a competent relative or friend of the prisoner, a person engaged in protecting discharged prisoners, a priest, a schoolteacher, or a person of high moral reputation. If a prisoner on provisional release desires to change his residence or to travel for ten days or more, he must obtain permission of the controlling police office, and if he desires to travel outside the Japanese dominion, he must obtain permission of the minister of justice. Further, he must present himself without fail once a month at the controlling police office, and report on his occupation and other matters connected with his livelihood. If he commits a crime and is condemned during the period of provisional release; if he is condemned to a major fine or a more severe penalty for an offence committed prior to the provisional release; then, in the case of one who has been condemned to a major fine or a more severe penalty for an offence committed prior to the provisional release, such penalty is to be enforced; or, if he has violated any provisions of the regulations relating to provisional release, the minister of justice may, upon receiving the report of the public procurator or the prisoner governor, revoke the order for provisional release. The number of prisoners provisionally released during the last five years (1905-9) is 8,281, while the number of those whose provisional release was rescinded during the same period is 264. The provisional release system has on the whole given good results and has been effective in bringing about the reform of prisoners so released. Although there is no fixed rule respecting the protection of the prisoners upon their provisional release, to those for whom such care is necessary suitable attention is given by societies for the protection of discharged prisoners, charitable persons, or persons to whom their control has been delegated.

A remark may be made, in conclusion, regarding the work of protecting discharged prisoners. With a view to the development of this work, the government has annually been distributing 10,000 yen among the protection societies of the country and has made every effort to stimulate and encourage the establishment of societies; but the object aimed at has not yet been completely attained. The present number of societies for the protection of discharged prisoners throughout the country is fifty-seven; but it is much to be regretted that they are organized on a small scale and that their field is consequently limited. It is, however, now recognized by both the government and the people that the protection work should not be neglected. As the present tendency of society proves the urgency of this work, we are not without hope that with its steady progress, we shall fully attain in the near future the object we have in view.

THE COMMON WELFARE

A MUNICIPAL YEAR BOOK

Years ago, in his book on The American Commonwealth, Ambassador Bryce pointed out that the weak link in our administrative system is municipal government. It goes without saying that one method of giving it temper and tensile strength is to secure and make available exact data as to municipal affairs, which will be at once comprehensive and comparable, one city with another. Yet, although there have been improvements in administrative methods in many cities of late years, we still lack the machinery by which municipal officials and citizens in New York or Cleveland or Los Angeles can quickly and accurately learn how other cities are doing any branch of civic business and what the results are.



THE POPULAR CANDIDATE.

G. O. P. to Dem.—I don't know who this V. N. is, but she's getting all the votes today.—*Minneapolis Journal.*

"V. N." was the visiting nurse fund of the Minneapolis Associated Charities which raised money by a successful tag day.

In only lesser degree this was true also of the German cities, before their present period of municipal renascence, which has been accompanied by a corresponding development in the technique of municipal bookkeeping. Among the welding influences which have led to effective interchange of information and method have been the publications of Albert Sudekum, one of the South German group of socialists in the Reichstag, who is in America for a period of weeks lecturing before various civic and scientific bodies. The program of these German radicals, who are the moderate wing of the Socialist Party in the empire, is not altogether different in spirit and issues from the political platforms of the Western insurgents, or the civic demands of aggressive civic organizations in this country. It will be recalled that Dr. Hegemann, who was a member of the staff which organized the Boston-1915 exposition of 1909, later instituted a similar civic exhibit in Berlin. This was transferred to Düsseldorf. While it was there, Dr. Sudekum was called in by the municipal government as an expert on city planning — and shortly after his arrival in this country, he received a similar invitation to speak before the Municipal Congestion Commission of New York.

It is his experience in the technique of municipal administration, coupled with his intimate acquaintance with the practical working-out of various progressive policies adopted by the different continental cities, which will make his American lectures especially informing to civic bodies in the United States. But

ALBERT SUDEKUM.

Who edits a year book of German municipalities much needed in America.

his editorial work itself holds a special significance for the country at large. He conducts a critical weekly journal devoted to municipal affairs, entitled *Kommunale Praxis,* of which we have no counterpart in this country. We have, to be sure, a number of papers concerning municipal matters published by city governments and local organizations, which prove that critical interest in the details of civic affairs is spreading. The labors of the various bureaus of municipal research and of such official bodies as the Merriam Commission in Chicago and the Finance Commission in Boston have created a body of material, but it is in the nature of disconnected publications. The national bureau of municipal research which is so badly needed could well devote part of its energy to issuing such a magazine of municipal technique.

The *Kommunale Praxis* was so successful that its editor issued, through Gustav Fischer of Jena, the even more valuable *Kommunales Jahrbuch* (Municipal Year Book). This consists of two volumes of 800 pages each. In Part I public health, street cleaning, charities, water and gas supply, town planning and the like are treated in carefully prepared articles. The material is arranged alphabetically by subjects and the new work in each field in every city in Germany is noted. There are a number of valuable statistical tables which show, to take gas production as an example, the amount produced in each of the larger cities, the total cost and gross revenue, the cost and selling price per unit of measure, the profit to the city and other facts by which the practical efficiency of operation in different towns can be judged and compared. This is similar to the statistical work of the Wisconsin Public Utilities Commission.

In Part II, the cities are arranged alphabetically, and pertinent facts are printed as to the municipal ordinances, organization and activities of each. The only publication in English to compare with these volumes is the Statesman's Year Book, which, however, is devoted to information about national governments and has no portion grouping the facts by subjects as well as by countries.

The Book of American Municipalities issued by the National Municipal League is in an entirely different class from this encyclopaedic German Yearbook.

COMMON DENOMINATORS OF MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

The *Jahrbuch* is entirely self-supporting and enjoys no subsidy. It is the output of two men and two stenographers and has a sale exceeding 2,000 copies mainly among city officials. The material is collected through voluntary answers from the cities through their boards of statistics or mayors. Some sixty carefully prepared questionnaire blanks are sent out and where there is any question as to the accuracy of the returns, a special investigation is made.

The compilation of such a year book is made possible by the work of boards of statistics in all the larger German cities. These, after years of effort, have reduced their municipal statistics to common terms and made it possible to secure figures that are prepared in the same way and are fairly comparable. New York has, in the comptroller's office, a bureau of statistics and investigation and a few other cities, as Philadelphia, have statisticians attached to the mayor's office. Ordinarily, however, each city department makes up its own statistics and, save perhaps in preparing its budget estimate, receives practically no instructions calculated to secure uniformity within the city or with other towns.

Ex-comptroller Herman Metz of New York, while a city official, felt the need of some agency from which he could learn how certain things were done in other places and the results. He has since made a gift to establish a central bureau for collecting such data and making it available to officials throughout the country. Perhaps the most valuable feature of this agency will be its influence toward uniform statistics. The publications of the Census Office upon municipal statistics are not of the specific character of the *Kommunales Jahrbuch*, and the office is itself much hampered by the lack of uniformity referred to and is obliged to keep a large corps of agents in the field to overcome the difficulty.

To Dr. Sudekum's mind it would be impossible as yet to publish an American year book of the standard of the German volumes, because of the inequalities and fragmentary character of the information to be obtained. Perhaps, however, that is merely another argument for its publication; the very gaps serving to show residents of different cities where their home governments are not keeping tab in an understandable manner. As a leverage for bringing out facts which like to be hid, and as a compendium of statistics, the German volumes seem remarkable instruments of education. The presence of their editor in this country, in the words of a New England civic leader, puts the query rather pertinently to Americans, as to where we shall look for such an American municipal year book. Will it be, he asks, from the presses of one of the great universities, from a National Bureau of Research, from the Russell Sage Foundation, or from the Census Office?

THE STRIKE OF THE EXPRESSMEN

The strike on October 25 of the wagon helpers of the United States Express Company in Jersey City and New York, followed within a few days by their drivers and now extending to some 6,000 men employed by the four large and many of the smaller express companies and some department stores, is a protest against present wages and hours. The wage demand which the Teamsters' Union makes is for an increase of five dollars a month as follows:

	Present Wages.	Wages Asked.
Route drivers	$75	$80
Chauffeurs	75	80
Transfer and schedule men	65	70
Single wagon drivers	60	65
First helpers	50	55
All other helpers	17-45	50

It is noteworthy that except in the first three grades, none of these wages, even with the proposed increase, is adequate to provide a normal living according to Chapin and other recent reports on standard of living.

If the strikers win, the helpers will secure the greatest advantage in the mat-

ter of wages, though their scale is the lowest. It has been the custom of some of the companies to hire boys of eighteen at wages ranging from seventeen to forty dollars a month to do men's heavy work. The proposed establishment of a minimum of fifty dollars should tend to displace growing boys in favor of strong men.

There has hitherto been no system of advancement in wages, the vast majority of the men working for years for the same salary, and the strikers' demands contain a clause which would be the first step toward a system of promotion based on seniority of service.

The hours demanded are eleven, with pay for all overtime beyond the first half hour, which is "given to the boss," and time and a half pay for Sundays and holidays. Eleven hours is not a short work day but it represents a great improvement over the present conditions—about fifteen hours a day, Sunday work once a month and work on holidays on demand without pay. At present, as the men put it, "there is a regular hour for starting work but none for stopping." From seven in the morning till six at night is the time for collecting packages; at six the load is delivered at a railroad station, unloaded by driver, helper and platform man and the wagon reloaded with a "bulk load" waiting on the platform. This is carted to another railroad station, sometimes all the way from the Grand Central to Jersey City, unloaded again and the wagon taken to the stable. Not till then is the expressman's long day over.

At the time of going to press, all efforts at settlement by Mayor Gaynor, John Mitchell, the State Board of Arbitration and the Merchants' Association, have failed. The men have been willing to arbitrate on all points except one—the right of the companies to discharge men, or to refuse to re-employ them, because they have joined the union. So conservative a body as the Merchants' Association has condemned this attitude in measured and convincing terms.

A comparison of the wages and hours of these expressmen with those of post office employes, men of similar grade doing work requiring a like degree of intelligence, shows clerks and letter carriers working an eight-hour day, against the proposed minimum of eleven for the expressmen. For the first three years of probation after passing the civil service test, post office wages average $32 a month. In regular service, they begin at $600, rising to $800 the second year, with a yearly increase of $100 thereafter until $1,100 is reached. About fifty per cent of the men who have been on the regular force for six years are raised to $1,200 by special appropriation by Congress. A clerk or letter carrier must therefore work over five years to reach the present salary—a little under $800—of an express transfer man. This, however, is a shorter time than the average expressman must wait to become a transfer man—in fact, many of the helpers never rise beyond the tailboard of the wagons—and the letter carrier has a fixed period of probation with a regular wage increase from year to year to look forward to. There is the additional incentive of a pension or retiring scheme of some sort for which government employes are now working.

It is noteworthy that one class of postal servants has no protection from the civil service and ranks with the express helpers, should the latter secure the new schedule. In this class are drivers of mail wagons who are employed by private companies which hold government contracts for hauling mail. Up to five years ago, in New York, these men received a dollar a day for fifteen hours' work. In 1905 they struck, were received into the Teamsters' Union—the same union which has just taken in the unorganized expressmen—and, thanks to its support, were increased to two dollars for an eleven-hour day.

EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE REPORTS ON FIRST YEAR

The National Employment Exchange, which was organized in New York with a guarantee fund of $100,000 to carry it over the initial years on a semi-philan-

thropic basis, has issued its first annual report. An inroad of $10,622.09 has been made on the guarantee fund, but the net earnings of $14,170.05 are encouraging, particularly in view of the fact that the prime object of the exchange is to place men at work. Commercial bureaus, it has frequently been shown, too largely pursue a successful policy of securing fees rather than jobs.

The exchange has two offices for skilled and unskilled laborers, at 14 State street and 211 Grand street, and a newer office for both men and women in mercantile lines, at 47 West Forty-second street. Up to September 30, places were found for 4,120 men as laborers and 537 situations for applicants at the mercantile bureau. It has interpreters who speak seventeen languages.

Orders for skilled and unskilled laborers were received in abundance, but it was found that a large army of idle men will not accept work when it is offered. The requests for men so far exceeded the number the exchange was able to furnish as to indicate that times are prosperous and few able to work have any excuse for idleness.

Some of the men placed, especially if they did not pay for at least part of their transportation, deserted upon arriving at the destination. Often there were good reasons, such as exorbitant prices for food and poor sleeping quarters, but many had no intention of working. The exchange finds that it is difficult to secure men willing to take places in the country or on farms. Applications for positions as clerks are accepted only from persons within commuting distance of New York. So many of this class are out of employment that the salaries paid for the lower positions are less than in the trades. This, the report holds, is because people come from all over the country who will work for small pay to have something to do, and the workers in New York must take less for their labor than they should.

In his report as president, Otto T. Bannard points out that self-support was not expected of the bureau for the first few years. "It was agreed that fees should be charged with the hope that the exchange would become self-supporting before the fund was exhausted, and because a business rather than a charity would attract a better class of both employers and employes."

The contributors to the guarantee fund include men connected with most of the largest charitable organizations in New York.

ENGLISH TRADE UNIONISTS REPUDIATE CONCILIATION

The London *Times* reports that the women chainmakers of Cradley Heath, whose strike was described in THE SURVEY for October 1, have come to an agreement with the manufacturers' association. The latter voted unanimously to deal with no contractor whose name was not on the women's "white list" of those paying the new scale of wages. One class of women workers in England is thus on a firmer basis than ever before, not only because of a higher scale of pay but because it has learned the lesson of the value of organization.

In the meantime, important developments are taking place throughout the labor movement in England. The rank and file of the union membership in three trades have struck, against the advice of their conservative leaders, and have virtually repudiated the conciliation and arbitration system that since 1902 has been called in to avert strikes.

The railway men, whose threat of strike in September was caused by a reduction of wages, at their last general meeting in October passed a resolution against the whole arbitration and long-term agreement system, on the ground that the system made it practically impossible to readjust grievances without long delay or to take advantage of improvements in the industry which might make increased wages possible.

In September, too, the miners of the Ely Pit struck on account of a reduction of wages which they claimed the conciliation boards had already had eighteen months to adjust, and a little later the boilermakers struck for a similar grievance for which they had asked re-

CHAINMAKER AT THE FORGE.

The English women in this trade, mostly mothers of families, work twelve hours a day at crude forges in their own homes.

dress in September, 1909. Aside from the annoyance of such long delays, the question of prompt adjustments of the wage scale is of the greatest practical importance to the miners, as the decisions of the arbitration boards are not retroactive.

In the cotton industry the employes of a single mill went out because of the dismissal of one man, who, by advice of the union, had refused to do work which was not on the list of the operatives' duties in the agreement between employers and employed, but which employers in many mills had been in the habit of exacting from their men.

The cotton, boiler and mining employers responded by a general lockout involving altogether probably 200,000 people. They claimed violation of the long-term contracts, and held that the men should have waited before striking until the whole machinery of arbitration had been brought to bear on their grievances.

In the cotton trade a temporary adjustment has been reached and arbitration is now under way. In the mines and shipyards the union officials have been powerless to make the men see the situation as a violation of contract, and according to the last reports these trades have not yet adjusted their grievances.

It is not without some show of truth that the London *Times* recognizes a very revolutionary element in this repudiation of the union leaders, and suggests that the same attitude of mind is extending to political leaders also, and the English

labor movement is taking the first steps toward that policy of "direct action" in the economic field that is becoming a prominent feature of the French labor movement.

AMBITIOUS PROGRAM TO HELP ITALIANS

A comprehensive and exceedingly ambitious program to benefit 750,000 Italians in New York city in embodied in the plans which the Contessa Lisi Cipriani is fostering as the representative in this country of the *Segretariato Permanente Femminile per la Tutela delle Donne e dei Fanciulli Italiani all' Estero.* This society is entrusted by the Italian government with the welfare of Italian women and children abroad.

A first step among those planned is the establishment of a central bureau to publish the results of research and to help bring about co-operation between all institutions which carry on work in behalf of Italian immigrants in New York. A bureau of translation and information is to be included to assist the needy in making proper application to local charities, and to aid workmen seeking employment.

A hygienic station has already been started by Dr. Louis R. Kaufman of the Flower Hospital which is to receive the co-operation of the Board of Health. The work of the station will be to instruct the people how to avoid disease by their own efforts, to treat working mothers and their children, to aid mothers before the birth of the child, to study rachitis and arrested development among Italian children, and to help in the campaign against tuberculosis. The Italian government has promised to furnish two physicians who are to publish medical sociological records.

The City and Suburban Home Company offers to raise one million dollars for model housing accommodations, provided Italians and their friends will find an equal sum. The intention is to build homes in the less congested districts. To supplement the model tenements, gymnasiums, reading rooms and lecture halls are planned.

CONTESSA LISI CIPRIANI.

Trade and industrial schools are contemplated, also, as the best means for improving the standard of living by increasing the number of skilled workmen in the rising generation. The Italian government has promised first class teachers for these schools.

These steps have all received the sanction of the Italian government. In addition plans for colonization are under consideration. The idea is to have farming villages and not to encourage the single Italian to take up land. The colonization plans have not yet been submitted for approval at Rome.

This all-inclusive plan smacks of the Utopian, but it is not expected that the entire scheme can be set in operation at once. To those who wonder how much dependence may be placed upon promises of help from the Italian government, it is pointed out that certain activities for the benefit of Italian immigrants in New York already receive financial

assistance from Rome, paid from the proceeds of a tax of $1.60 collected from every person who leaves Italy. Of the amount raised, which is set aside for the benefit of emigrants, some is expended to aid those who have returned and much will be used to help the Italians in Argentine. Besides its direct value, the sanction of the Italian government will make it easier to get the co-operation of influential Italians here.

To ensure full success for the plans ample funds are needed. The names of those already interested are a reasonable guarantee of the worth of the scheme. The money will be forthcoming in the long run, provided the details are worked out carefully and capable agents are found to carry on the work. Among those who are patrons of the movement are:

Dr. Samuel McCune Lindsay, director of the School of Philanthropy; Dr. George W. Kirchwey, dean of the Law School, Columbia University; R. Fulton Cutting, president of the Association for the Improvement of the Poor; Hastings H. Hart, director of the Child Helping Department of the Russell Sage Foundation; Robert Erskine Ely, director of the League for Political Education; E. R. L. Gould, president of the City and Suburban Home Company; Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee; John Mitchell, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor; Antonio Stella, vice-chairman of the Committee for the Prevention of Tuberculosis; Edward S. Sykes, director of the Technical Department of Teachers' College, University of Columbia; Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the City Commission on Congestion and Population; Rev. Professsor Besani, secretary of the *Italica Gens.*

THE PREVENTION OF INSANITY

At its annual meeting, held in Albany in February, 1909, the New York State Charities Aid Association took as its theme the Prevention of Public Dependence. Through several sessions it considered the possibility of specific measures aimed directly at diminishing the volume of demand upon public aid. In direct line with the suggestions advanced at that meeting, the association now announces, elsewhere in this issue, that it has entered upon a campaign for the prevention of insanity.

It has in hand the same agencies with which it began three years ago its tuberculosis campaign—a special committee, composed partly of experts and partly of interested citizens; a guaranteed income of several thousand dollars (which it hopes largely to increase) and a paid staff to give continuous attention to the movement. As in the tuberculosis campaign, the state department directly affected, the State Commission in Lunacy, is a leading factor from the outset.

It is fitting and is significant, that the State Charities Aid Association, which in the decade ending in 1890 secured the legislation for the humane care of the insane in state hospitals, should now go one step farther back and seek at least to hold in check the increase in the number of the insane, which is considerably in excess of the growth of population, and which must be recognized as one of the extremely serious facts in present social conditions.

The new work is not without its difficulties, but they are of a sort which people are more ready to overrate than otherwise. This movement rests on a solid basis of known scientific fact. It has the experience of the tuberculosis campaign to draw upon. If entered upon seriously and with plans proportionate to the magnitude of its objective, and with reasonable financial support, substantial and tangible results are within reach. The way to prevent is to prevent.

DO AND SAY

Two brothers once lived down this way,
And one was Do and one was Say.
If streets were dirty, taxes high.
Or schools too crowded, Say would cry,
"Lord, what a town!" but Brother Do
Would set to work to make things new.

And while Do worked, Say still would cry;
"He does it wrong! I know that I
Could do it right." So all the day
Was heard the clack of Brother Say.
But this one fact from none was hid:
Say always talked, Do always did.

(Frederic Almy, secretary of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, in the *Christian Register*).

RECENT CONFERENCES

LONDON TOWN PLANNING CONFERENCE

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON,

"For each age is a dream that is dying,
Or one that is coming to birth."

These lines, which are at the end of a little poem—by Shaugnessy, is it not?—that hung somewhat obscurely in the Edinburgh room at the town planning exhibition in London, in October, are a fair expression of the feeling which one had in attending the remarkable town planning conference that closed there October 15. The conference was under the auspices of the Royal Institute of British Architects, with the king as patron and John Burns as honorary president. It brought together 1,500 delegates, the greater number, of course, from the British Isles, for the most part architects, city councillors and engineers, but many also from France, Germany, Italy, Holland, a few even from Australia and a half dozen from the United States. The number of the latter would doubtless have been considerably greater had the conference been held in the early summer, as was proposed until the sudden death of King Edward caused the change of many English plans.

The conference was formally opened on October 10 and it closed with a series of excursions to see town planning wo' on the fifteenth. The days intervening were filled to the brim with meetings, social functions, and town planning trips. Indeed, the most obvious criticism, if one were seeking to criticise, would be that so large a program was crowded into so short a time. In the afternoons one had to choose between two simultaneous meetings and a half dozen excursions, each feature promising great interest. And all the time three exhibitions, in far scattered places, were inviting the attention of the delegates.

The official program—merely the program—made a pamphlet twice the size of THE SURVEY. The excellent catalog of the town planning exhibition in the Royal Academy was the equivalent of another pamphlet as large again; the catalog of the exhibitions in the Guild Hall and at the institute would make a third; and still there are the social activities to tell of, such as the evening reception to the delegates at the institute; the reception by the lord mayor and his wife at the Mansion House; the banquet, with its many speeches, at the Hotel Cecil; the reception by the American ambassador, and the countless informal luncheons and dinners, which were to be expected when 1,500 delegates, of many nations, but all of one faith, one hope, one great interest, came together. And were all this told, a shelf-full would remain of books and pamphlets descriptive of the garden cities, the housing and other town planning work which the delegates visited in the eighteen conducted excursions offered for their choice.

Thus one cannot write in short space an adequate account of the conference. There was not even a set of resolutions, which might be quoted to sum up conclusions. The congress was really for conference, rather than for the formulation of policy and the recording of judgments. But it may be said that the main exhibition, housed in the Royal Academy, was largely composed of the town planning exhibitions shown in the spring at Berlin and in the summer at Düsseldorf, of which THE SURVEY readers are already informed; that the other exhibitions were collections of prints, maps, plans, etc.—many of them very old and valuable—the property of the institute and of the Corporation of London; and finally, that the whole rich program was carried out with the most extraordinary efficiency and perfect management. For the rest, one must note only the high lights in the vast, kaleidoscopic picture which the mind's eye sees as one looks back on the busy week. To a SURVEY contributor, of course, these high lights shine on the problems of social welfare

more intensely than on those of architecture, traffic or commerce. For town planning is a many-sided question, including in its scope all that is of interest to urban dwellers. It was a tribute to its breadth of view that sociology received as much attention as it did, in a conference called by architects, and in which those whose interest was primarily social were in a small minority compared to the professional architects, the engineers, and the city councillors.

The program, very briefly summarized, provided for an inaugural meeting at the Guild Hall on Monday, at which the principal address was by John Burns; then for a big general meeting every morning, at which the principal papers were submitted; and for two afternoon meetings each day, at which were given papers on special phases of the morning's general subject. To the two Americans who presented papers places were given on the morning programs, and such audiences did these sessions draw that the great gallery proved insufficient and overflow meetings had to be held. The general theme of Tuesday was The Cities of the Past; of Wednesday, The Cities of the Present; of Thursday, City Development and Extension; of Friday, Cities of the Future. The paper of D. H. Burnham of Chicago came Friday morning; that of the writer, the other American, on Wednesday. Mr. Burnham discussed democracy and town planning, finding in the power of the people the great hope of the future. The writer considered the connection between street widths and rents and the folly of standardizing streets.

It was doubtless due to Mr. Burns that social welfare occupied quite as important a place as it did in the conference discussions. One could not expect that it would have first place. But John Burns emphasized it strongly; and the point which a cabinet minister, who was also author of the town planning act, emphasized in an hour's stirring address was likely to stick in the minds of the delegates. He stated the belief that squalid environment is a direct cause of a poverty of spirit akin to lack of means and not less deplorable. "The cheerful spirit," said he, "is very difficult in Tabard street in the Borough; hope is not eternal in Hard street, Walworth, and you do not find much of the buoyant temperament in Peter street, Westminster. . . . Some of us think that the town where the money is made ought to be as cheerful as the town where the money is too often foolishly spent. . . . The East End wants West-Ending. Wigan must be taken in hand as well as Westminster, the Potteries as well as London, and Bermondsey needs it more than Belgravia." He traced the suffering due to sickness, and declared that to fight disease we must "let the sun and air into our houses and our streets. Motherhood and youth demand the demolition of the slum, and ask for the pleasant town and the comfortable but dignified city." Again, he said: "Mean streets breed mean men. It is not an accident that the stately homes of England, the delightful country parsonages, the beautiful public schools have produced the Ruskins, the Kingsleys, the Nelsons, the Wellingtons, the Newtons and the Darwins." He recounted from his own experience how much he felt he owed to beauty of environment when a Westminster apprentice. "Make wider roads, but"—he added, "don't narrow the tenements behind."

The garden city movement, which was very fully set forth in the conference, owes the greater part of its interest to its social aspect,—and this in spite of the picturesque architecture that has become associated with it. Both Raymond Merwin, the garden city architect, in a formal paper of a morning session, and Mrs. Barnet, the "mother" of Hempstead, in a papers which she read to the visitors to that city, emphasized the importance of intermingling the classes in suburban districts. This, they thought, could be accomplished, as to some extent it is now at Hampstead garden city, by bringing houses of different sizes together.

The paper by Dr. Eberstadt of Berlin was a very frank and generous comparison of English and German town planning methods—much to the advantage of the former. English visitors, said he, are driven through the imposingly broad

streets of modern German towns, where "they see asphalt enough to empty half the pits of Italy, a show of granite sufficient to level the mountains of Sweden, and lines of huge five- and six-storied tenements." They admire the effect; but the Germans, he said, wish to do away with a system so pernicious for the people; their aim now is the English home, the cottage, the individual house." Admiration for the German method comes too late. To admire it now is like getting a play from Paris or a scarf from London at the moment that it goes out of fashion. But the German method, he added, was worth studying, for nowhere could one better see the connection between street planning and housing, which is the basis of social life.

There were several papers on parks and open spaces—a matter in which the foreigners could teach Americans little. In fact, the idea of radial parks, which has ceased to be a novelty in the United States, was received with great interest and some enthusiasm. The *Westminster Gazette*, summing up the results of the conference several days after it had closed, reported a unanimity of opinion "as to the evils of a uniform street width for needs totally unlike . . . resulting on the one hand in unnecessary cost, reflected in rent, and on the other in main arteries totally inadequate to carry a large stream of traffic"; a general preference, if there must be choice, for radial parks rather than for isolated patches of open space; and a disavowal on any wise town planner's part of a wish for "a clean slate" that he might make his designs unhampered by the historical evidences of a people's development.

As far as it goes, this summary is probably accurate; but the strongest general impression which one carried away from the conference was of the virility, the breadth and might, of the town planning movement; of the high aim and earnestness of purpose which characterized its exponents from many nations, and the consequent belief that for cities a new "dream . . . is coming to birth."

THE DEVELOPMENT IN THE WORK OF CHILDREN'S PROTECTION

C. C. CARSTENS

During the week of October 10-15 in conjunction with the thirty-fourth annual meeting of the American Humane Association in Washington, the First International Humane Conference was held, which was attended by representatives from many states, Canada, Great Britain and other European countries. The meetings were the first to be held in the commodious new building of the United States National Museum. A humanitarian exhibition was installed in adjoining rooms. It was the week following the sessions of the International Prison Congress, and a number of delegates from abroad remained in Washington for the Humane Conference.

In interpreting the development of the American Humane Association, one must not lose sight of the fact that it is a federation of societies and individuals interested in the prevention of cruelty to both children and animals. Organized work for the protection of animals began in England in 1824 and even in New York it antedated protective work for children by eight years. In 1874, when the New York Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was organized—the first society in the world distinctively organized for the protection of children—several humane societies were already actively at work, the Illinois and Minnesota societies since 1869, Washington (D. C.) 1870, Oregon, 1872, and Atlanta and Cleveland, 1873.

It was not surprising that this effort to protect children from the cruelties of recreant parents or guardians soon developed large enthusiasm. Many societies for the prevention of cruelty to children were organized between 1875 and 1883, and the previously organized humane societies broadened their purposes to in-

clude work for children. Naturally the emphasis in this work, because of its relation to the protection of animals, was on prevention of physical cruelty and punishment of offenders. As a result, shocking cruelties, many times so revolting that they may not be mentioned in public, have been materially reduced in number, and the whole civilized world has felt a humanizing influence in which these societies have been among the strongest forces.

But during the last thirty years, besides recognizing the constant presence of flagrant physical abuse of the type which led to this movement, new forms of protection have been recognized. We have become increasingly sensitive to the fact that many children are living in unwholesome and immoral surroundings; that they are underfed or infected with loathsome diseases; that girls, while mere children and before they know what they are doing, invite or are unwillingly subjected to horrible abuses from men, and that all these are worse than the inhuman punishments common in an earlier day. A study of children's abuses has naturally directed attention more toward the future welfare of the child and less toward mere punishment of the offender. It is also recognized that a multitude of other agencies include in their purposes the protection of children though they may seek to accomplish it in other ways.

The question whether certain societies had, or should have, distinct police functions has therefore become of decreasing interest at successive conferences, because of the broadening purposes of children's protective societies to satisfy the needs that exist in their respective communities, and the question as to what functions a children's protective society can well serve in the community has been increasingly thrust into the foreground.

It was noticeable at this year's conference that the combination of work in behalf of animals and of children in one society was held a detriment, especially to the work for children. The sentiment was frequently, though perhaps not often publicly, expressed that the proper development of children's work by children's protective societies requires a complete separation of the two functions. These functions, which were originally similar, are growing increasingly diverse as the viewpoint of the child's future, and not the mere punishment of the offender, is more universally accepted among our societies. On the other hand, where this combination of work has persisted in growing communities, societies are constantly in danger of not keeping up with community needs and by that means of giving occasion for other agencies, particularly juvenile courts, to take over the children's function, a result that is not necessarily for the best interests of the child. It was therefore urged that in every community of 50,000 inhabitants or over a separate children's protective society be organized, and where a society performing both functions exists, that they be separated by the formation of a new society. To encourage this movement, the employment of a field secretary was considered. He should assist in organizing new societies, in resuscitating moribund organizations where practicable, and in standardizing work.

Inevitably, such a differentiation of functions and such a recognition of the broadening purposes of a children's protective society led to consideration of the relation of the children's work of the American Humane Association to the work of the children's committee of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. In order that the functions of the two organizations may be better understood, a committee of three members of the American Humane Association has been appointed to visit the National Conference at its next meeting in Boston and report on the advisability of arranging co-operative relations.

Perhaps the most important result of the Humane Conference was the clear recognition of the necessity for trained service. First steps were taken to bring the needs of children's protective work to the attention of schools of philanthropy, that they might adapt their courses and practical instruction to the work of these societies, with the alternative, if this cannot be brought about, that a separate school be founded for training humane workers.

The last three days of the week were

given to considering the protection of animals, and these meetings were the more largely attended. The exhibits in animal protection were particularly interesting, that of the Pennsylvania Railroad being perhaps the most notable.

Dr. William O. Stillman of Albany, N. Y., was elected president for the sixth successive year, and Nathaniel J. Walker, also of Albany, secretary. The next meeting will be held in San Francisco in October, 1911.

FIFTEENTH ILLINOIS CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

Social advance and civic reform are keeping pace in Illinois this fall. The Peoria Conference[1] started the citizens' campaign against political corruption and for progressive legislation to safeguard popular rights. The State Conference of Charities at Galesburg, October 22-25, proved to be the most successful rally of forces for social advance the state has thus far seen. Both gatherings were characterized by earnest enthusiasm and a focusing of effort on urgently needed legislative "next steps."

The two movements joined hands in support of the effort to extend the merit system, one of the three referendum propositions urged by the committee of seven of the Peoria Conference, to be voted upon November 8. Charles L. Capen of Bloomington, chairman of the Peoria Conference, made one of the principal addresses at the Galesburg conference of charities. He pointed out the evil effects of the spoils system in the penal institutions of the state. These, as well as many other administrative branches of the state government, will come under the civil service—as the charitable institutions now are—if the referendum vote is carried and the next Legislature executes the will of the people.[2] The conference of charities unanimously adopted a resolution favoring this extension of the merit system. The evolution of civil service in Illinois was traced with painstaking accuracy in a paper by Joseph C. Mason, secretary and chief examiner of the State Civil Service Commission.

Two of the most important sessions were devoted to public health, one on tuberculosis and the other on mental diseases. The Sunday afternoon mass meeting listened to Dr. Woods Hutchinson at his best as he told of the frontal attack which the whole community must make if consumption is to be exterminated. He referred to the pride of the medical profession in breaking loose from traditions to assume a new and active part in public life and work. In emphasizing the value of fresh air he pointed out that the fine houses on the avenues are frequently the least ventilated. Of 350 observed at 5 o'clock in the morning open windows were found in only twelve. Such conditions mean that tuberculosis bacilli are born and reared almost as pets. A big community campaign would very perceptibly check tuberculosis in five to seven years, and the money Illinois loses every year by disability and death from this disease could rid the state of it in a comparatively short time. The social implications of such a campaign would mean injustices corrected, a fair chance for children, a humanized standard of living, fewer orphans and widows, and fewer crimes occasioned by dependence. Dr. Hutchinson closed his fine address by saying that the undying human service of efforts against the plague constitutes in itself a religious sanction.

Bad housing and Its Relation to Tuberculosis was discussed by Charles B. Ball, Chicago's chief sanitary inspector, who cited many authorities to show that "evils worse than wars"—darkness, dirt, dampness, overcrowding and bad air—curse the houses of the poor in congested districts and cause tuberculosis to thrive.

Dr. Caroline Hedger of Chicago told the story of open-air schools. Referring especially to those in Chicago, she said that 92 children gained 230 pounds in

[1] See THE SURVEY for September 3 and October 1.

[2] [illegible] at the time of going to press indicates a sweeping victory for civil service extension.

a total of 3,148 days of attendance at a cost of $1,200. As a result, the child is taught that he owes it to the community to take care of his health and strength; teachers are taught to build the child as a whole, physical as well as mental, into a citizen; and the community is taught not to impose conditions that blast life.

A special gathering of secretaries, nurses, and other workers connected with tuberculosis organizations drew an attendance of thirty including several people from nearby states. Attention was centered on the question of a state sanatorium. The consensus of opinion was opposed to it on the ground that the state is too large a unit, as proven by experience in other large states; that advanced cases should not be sent across the state to die, and that under Illinois laws cities, villages and counties have power to establish sanatoriums, which in their educational value should prove more effective than a state institution. It was pointed out that a state sanatorium would unfairly impose double taxes on such progressive localities as establish their own sanatoriums.

Discussion of The Prevention of Mental and Nervous Diseases by Dr. V. H. Podstata of Chicago, former superintendent of the Elgin State Hospital for the Insane, was especially timely in view of the recent organization of the Illinois Society for Mental Hygiene.[1] He outlined a legislative and educational program for the state as follows:

Legislative: (1) Study by the state or national government of the causes of mental breakdown. (2) Elimination of inherited weakness through regulation and often prohibition of marriage, sterilization of those unable or unwilling to abide by laws regulating marriage, and segregation of the hopelessly defective. (3) Safeguarding motherhood—especially by relieving the wives of the poor of worry and work. (4) Hospitals for alcoholism so as to avoid the mingling of alcoholic and insane patients. (5) A systematic fight against excessive drinking. (6) Every person legally detained for any cause to be examined for so-called blood diseases; if found infected to be treated until free from infection; such diseases to be dealt with as are other dangerous infectious diseases. (7) Psychopathic or neuropathic hospitals in every large city to provide early treatment; admission voluntary and with little legal formality. (8) Intelligent supervision of patients discharged from institutions for the insane, feeble-minded and epileptic, for such a period as to protect the patient against relapse.

Educational: (1) Public instruction in upper primary grades on sexual hygiene and the social evil and its consequences. (2) Public instruction on rearing children and home welfare. (3) Co-operation of teacher and physician with reference to abnormal children.

In line with this program, Dr. H. G. Hardt, superintendent of the Lincoln State School and Colony for the Feeble-minded, urged that attention be directed to the high class border line cases of feeble-mindedness termed "moron" in the classification recently adopted by the National Association for the Study of the Feeble-minded. These cases appear at home to be normal and cause many illegitimate births of still more defective feeble-minded children. By means of the new Binet test, Dr. Hardt said that it has become comparatively easy to discover the moron cases which have heretofore been so difficult to diagnose. He urged also that the state provide additional institutions so that classification of cases may be accomplished better than it now is at the Lincoln Institution, which handles all the feeble-minded whether they are young or old or have additional defects such as blindness or deafness.

The movement in Illinois to secure an adult probation law, which failed at the last legislative session and is now being renewed in view of the forthcoming session, gave special point to an address on Adult Probation by Edwin E. Mulready, deputy commissioner of the Massachusetts Commission on Probation. He outlined the experience in Massachusetts, upon which was based the proposed Illinois law, and said that out of 150,000 arrests, 15,000 lawbreakers — of whom 3,000 were children—were placed upon probation. The economy of the system—Massachusetts spends $208 a year on each prisoner—is surpassed by the saving of character through the judicious work of probation officers, many instances of which were cited. Mr. Mulready emphasized dis-

[1] See THE SURVEY for August 20.

crimination and classification as essential for the best results. That care in these respects is necessary with regard to parole as well as probation is evident in the light of atrocious crimes which have recently been committed in Illinois by paroled prisoners. The conference adopted resolutions in favor of an adult probation law and an increase in the number of parole agents.

One of the noteworthy addresses was by Sophonisba P. Breckinridge of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy on The Community and the Child. She declared that the home should be maintained at all cost and not broken up if the trouble is simple poverty. The various ways of accomplishing this, she described, such as the Scottish "special list" which provides for poor families, the juvenile court law in California which allows the family out of public funds eleven dollars a month for each child if the court sees fit, and the compensation scheme of the Chicago Jewish Aid Society, which pays a pension to the mother for doing the thing which the community would have to do if it took the child from the mother. Miss Breckinridge urged that the cause of the poverty of the family, if it involves no moral delinquency, should make little difference in the community's purpose to keep the family together and do the right thing by the child. If the community is to hold together fit families and to discontinue holding together unfit families, some standard of fitness must be worked out, perhaps by the charity organization societies.

From the point of view of real and all-around helpfulness, Mary E. Richmond of the Russell Sage Foundation placed a similar emphasis on the thorough understanding of family situations. She made it clear that the welfare of both the community and the poor depends on the efficiency of social workers in devising plans to deal with the unworthy as well as the worthy. In discussing details of charity organization work, she showed vividly the absurdity of clinging to outworn traditions, and made many suggestions as to methods of questioning and investigating, enlisting co-operation and interest, and relieving the pressure of work by doing each thing well so that it will not involve recurrent treatment. Following her address, the same problems were discussed by Victor Young from the standpoint of his work as assistant county agent of Cook county, and by Mabel E. Beverly, secretary of the Monmouth Charity Organization Society.

The readjustment of delinquent children in life after institutional experience was the subject of some definite suggestions by C. B. Adams, superintendent of the St. Charles, Ill., School for Boys, and Fannie F. Morse, formerly of Massachusetts, now superintendent of the Minnesota Training School for Girls. Colonel Adams said that with more frequent visitation through a larger force of probation officers, many released boys could be saved from careers leading to the reform school or penitentiary. Mrs. Morse pointed out that readjustment depends in some measure on how well the institution prepares the child. She dwelt upon the importance of having the placing-out department directly under the institution rather than under a different organization, and upon the necessity of not sending girls back into an old environment which is still bad.

School care of deaf children occupied one session. Mary McCowen, principal of the Chicago day schools for the deaf, outlined what can and ought to be done in the light of the new understanding that the limitations imposed by deafness are not much greater than the various limitations which affect people who hear. Papers sent by Prof. J. W. Swiler of Burlington, Ia., on the Competency of State Schools for the Deaf, and by Margaret Artingstall of the Jacksonville, Ill., state school on the Educational Value of Basketry in Schools for the Deaf, were read. An interesting local incident was the gathering of a group of deaf people by a former pupil of the Jacksonville School for a little "talk" by Dr. Charles P. Gillett of Jacksonville.

The Illinois Association of Poor Farm

Superintendents met for the last session of the conference, the principal address being by Judge B. R. Burroughs, secretary of the State Board of Administration, who urged that things be provided for the inmates themselves to do, as this might sometimes lead to independence, and that in any event it would add greatly to the interest in life. He also dwelt upon the need for better buildings and sanitation. The association re-elected as president S. D. Weiser of Carthage and chose as secretary William Ehrler of Galena.

A larger number of exhibits than have been displayed at previous conferences were shown. Most noteworthy was a large map of Springfield prepared by Health Commissioner George T. Palmer, indicating every house, well, privy, sewer and water main and giving other data. Perhaps never before has so complete a sanitary map of a community been prepared, yet its cost was only sixty dollars, the work being done by Dr. Palmer's enthusiastic regular force. Other interesting exhibits were a poverty map of Chicago prepared by the United Charities, a showing of tuberculosis activity from various points in the state, and of handicraft work from the state hospitals for the insane, taught by attendants trained in the courses of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.

For the first time in the history of the Illinois conference the sessions included a Sunday. This arrangement, which has been so successful in Indiana and elsewhere, proved equally so at Galesburg, and the whole city seemed to be stirred, the appearance of delegates in the local pulpits helping materially. The Rev. E. B. Rogers of Champaign in his conference sermon issued a splendid challenge to the church to do its duty for social betterment, driving home his message by asking church people if they knew the facts of social conditions.

Advantage was taken by Galesburg people of the opportunity to confer with recognized leaders concerning the possible organization of a local associated charities. The evident interest in social questions aroused among the students of Knox and Lombard colleges in Galesburg may in some degree have determined the selection of Urbana and Champaign—the location of the University of Illinois—as the meeting place for 1911.

The presidential address of William C. Graves suggested a program of social legislation which was embodied in the main in the resolutions adopted by the conference. In addition to those already mentioned they are:

Place the two penitentiaries and the reformatory under supervision of the State Board of Administration.

Eliminate political qualifications, short terms and small salaries from this law.

Transform the Cook County Hospital for the Insane into a state hospital.

Establish a true psychopathic hospital in Chicago and a state inebriate institute.

Appoint a commission to take a census of the blind in Illinois.

Furnish more experienced care for education of the feeble-minded, and

Furnish two state schools for delinquent boys and girls.

That the conference, through a committee, study infant mortality in Illinois;

That a State Board of Children's Guardians be provided for by law;

That the conference co-operate with the committee on family treatment in establishing charity organization societies in Illinois cities; that the co-operation of public and private agencies be promoted; and that destitute people be not passed on from city to city without investigation as to the responsibility of the people to whom they are sent.

The following officers were elected:

President, Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago; vice-presidents, Mrs. R. N. McCauley of Normal and W. E. Simonds of Galesburg; secretary, A. L. Bowen of Springfield; committee chairmen: executive, F. E. Lyons, Chicago; feeble-minded children, H. G. Hardt, Lincoln; social legislation, F. H. Wines, Springfield; exhibits, Mrs. Mary R. Parsons, Jacksonville; children, Colonel C. D. Adams, St. Charles; family treatment, Perry N. Hiser, Peoria; infant welfare, Dr. Caroline Hedger, Chicago; social hygiene, Dr. George T. Palmer, Springfield; corrections, Prof. C. R. Henderson, Chicago.

MASSACHUSETTS STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES

The Eighth Massachusetts State Conference of Charities met October 26-28 in Fitchburg, the smallest city in which a Massachusetts conference has yet convened. Judging from the attendance, however, both of delegates and citizens, the smaller communities have a livelier interest in charity conferences than the big cities, where social problems are more acute. At any rate the Fitchburg meeting was one of the most successful in the history of Massachusetts conferences, in point of attendance and in general interest.

At the session on Wednesday the delegates were welcomed by Mayor O'Connell. David F. Tilley, the conference president and president of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, Boston, spoke for broad-mindedness in religious and social work—broad-mindedness which would forget creed and differences of opinion in considering great questions of social work. "The man or woman who is earnestly religious," said Mr. Tilley, "cannot be bigoted, and we must not mistake bigotry for sincerity."

The first session of the conference was given up to the subject of recreation. Frank L. Boyden, principal of Deerfield Academy, presided. Joseph Lee spoke in favor of Sunday play.[1] Sunday has become the great day for gambling and lawlessness in the cities, Mr. Lee thinks, because we forbid work and we forbid play and we close the public schools.

> We cannot spend all our waking hours in church, even if all the hours we spend there are waking hours.
>
> Our Sunday laws are also an evil to those who are at work. The reason for the existence of Sunday is that there is a great deal more in human nature than can be packed into week-day pursuits, especially under conditions of modern industry. Sunday is the day of compensation, the day of the lost talents, the day for the exercise of those essential powers of our human nature for which the week-day left no room and without the use of which we are not quite alive. Our Sunday laws defeat the purpose for which Sunday stands. They forbid its true observance.

[1] For a full statement of Mr. Lee's views see THE SURVEY for October 1.

Lee F. Hanmer explained the boy scout movement and said that in less than half a year 150,000 boys have been enrolled in the Boy Scouts of America. Some 350 local committees have been formed, which have appointed approximately 2,500 scout masters in forty-four states, in Porto Rico and the Philippines.

The Thursday morning meeting was devoted to the question of insanity. Owen Copp, the secretary of the State Board of Insanity, reviewed recent progress in the treatment of mental disease in Massachusetts, giving the two great problems of the future as "the early and adequate treatment of acute and curable mental disease with the hope of its prevention and cure, which is the main purpose of the new psychopathic hospital in Boston, and the re-education and occupation in recreational activities and useful industries of the many comfortable chronic patients in institutions, to whom the pleasures and natural interests of a home should be afforded, in farm and industrial colonies similar to those at Templeton, Gardner and Grafton."

Dr. E. E. Southard of the Harvard Medical School explained the purpose of the new psychopathic hospital at Boston, which plans to cure "sick people" rather than to lock up the "legally disabled." Dr. Southard thinks that when insanity is looked upon as a disease, the lot of the insane—particularly of the borderland cases—will be greatly alleviated. Industrial Activities for the State's Dependents was the title of a paper by Edmund A. Whitman of Cambridge, who said that even excited and demented patients can do useful and lucrative work. The success of the Gardner State Colony, which was visited in the afternoon, well proved Mr. Whitman's point. The colony consists of an estate of fifteen hundred acres which is being gradually di-

vided up into farms to be brought under cultivation and tilled by the patients, who live on them in groups of twenty-five to one hundred. In the houses may be seen many patients busily working on rugs, weaving cloth and baskets, embroidering, tailoring and shoemaking.

On Thursday evening, under the chairmanship of Harvey H. Baker, justice of the Boston Juvenile Court, the conference discussed the Neglected Child, who Judge Baker thinks is a far more important and fundamental difficulty than the delinquent child, because neglect usually leads to delinquency. Thomas B. Fitzpatrick of Brookline dwelt on the importance of the public's attending to its neglected children and Eldon B. Keith, president of the Brockton Y. M. C. A., spoke on The Relation of Societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children to Cases of Neglect. About a year ago the Brockton branch of the S. P. C. C. was established and during that period about ninety cases, involving 266 children, have been handled. Mr. Keith believes that the smaller the place, the greater the need for organized effort of this kind.

In the small community a citizen of standing cannot individually handle such cases as may come to his attention, because of the attendant publicity and community knowledge of the affair. No society or organization can do its best work without local support. This is why the Massachusetts society has instituted the formation of local branches.

Nathan C. Upham, truant officer of Fitchburg, speaking on Truancy and Neglect, said:

When proper home conditions exist real truancy is reduced to a minimum. When the parent does not realize his responsibility in the proper training of his child, he should be brought into court and punished for failing to co-operate with the school official in his effort to break up truancy.

Mr. Upham cited several instances where parental neglect was responsible for truancy. In such cases the children cannot fairly be called truants. The truant officer should do all he can to improve such homes through the co-operation of the church, the relief agencies and the children's aid societies. If those means fail he should bring the children before the court as cases of neglect rather than of truancy.

What Massachusetts Does with Neglected Children was the subject of a paper by James E. Fee, superintendent of minor wards of the State Board of Charities. Mr. Fee said that the state aims to procure for each child the nearest approach possible to a normal home. When families can be rehabilitated, the children who have become state wards are gladly returned, but in the meantime juvenile dependents are clothed and fed and sent to school.

The state's children turn out very much like other children. There are some who come to grief and have to be disposed of by transfer and commitment to the state's institutions for delinquent children. These are comparatively few in number and I doubt if the percentage is much greater, if any, than that in the community at large. The state also has its conspicuous successes, and some of its children so improve their opportunities that they become part of the best life of the community.

The discussion on the Neglected Child was led by Zilpha Smith, assistant director of the School for Social Workers, Boston. Non-support was discussed under the chairmanship of Alice L. Higgins, general secretary of the Associated Charities, Boston, who reviewed the nature of the problem and the duties of courts, societies and individuals in attempting to rehabilitate the family. C. C. Carstens, general agent of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, gave the results of a study of non-support cases and advocated improvement in handling them. He favored probation, but said that the administration is often at fault. Edwin Mulready, deputy probation commissioner of Rockland, presented facts and figures to show the success of probation. He said that last year $25,000 was collected from 617 cases of non-support in Massachusetts, and this year over double that amount has been collected. In the Boston Municipal Court alone the increase has been from $1,400 to $4,300, and in Roxbury from $3,600 to nearly $9,000. Judge Charles Almy of Cambridge spoke on Probation in Non-Support Cases. He said:

Non-support cases vary greatly in merit. In

some cases the wife is extravagant or incompetent, but insists on holding the purse strings. In other cases the complaint in court is the result of a spree on the part of the husband who is ordinarily a good husband. In most cases the parties can usually be brought together without proceedings in court, and it is much better that they should be. It is the duty of the probation officer, though he gets no credit for it in his statistics, to take all such cases in the beginning and try to keep them out of court.

The final session of the conference was given over to Co-operation under the chairmanship of Frances G. Curtis of the State Board of Charity. Miss Curtis outlined the mutual help that should exist between public and private agencies. Mrs. H. D. Sleeper explained how co-operation works at Northampton, and Dr. H. Lincoln Chase of the Brookline Board of Health read a paper on Co-operation for Public Health. Ida G. Cannon of the Social Service Department of the Massachusetts General Hospital led the discussion.

The place of meeting of the 1911 conference will be decided by the executive committee. The officers are as follows:

President, Dr. Walter E. Fernald of Waverly; vice-presidents, Frances G. Curtis of Boston, William H. Hardy of Boston and Dr. J. F. C. Adams of Pittsfield; secretary, Parker B. Field of Boston; treasurer, Lehman Pickert of Boston.

OHIO'S PROBLEMS

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

Undoubtedly the specific problem emphasized by the sessions of the Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction in Newark, October 14-17, was proper state care of girl and young women delinquents. In the address by Blanche Vignos of Canton, president of the Board of Visitors, on Needs of Some State Institutions, the distressing conditions existing in the Delaware Industrial School for Girls (under sixteen) were vividly presented. This has been a frequently visited institution of late, and many people have expressed their opinion of it; but Miss Vignos gave the whole plain story.

There is, of course, the man superintendent, because Ohio permits only electors to serve in responsible positions in state institutions. More of this in a moment. Furthermore, there is the gravest suspicion as to whether all the counties have religiously obeyed the law and have not sent hither dependent girls on nicely arranged delinquency charges, thus relieving the county of future thought. Certainly the kinds of girl vary; no classification is possible with the overcrowding; the reception ward has no facilities for preventing the spread of infection among girls detained there. Girls sleep two in a bed and it is affirmed that there are, and in fact can be, no adequate safeguards against infection.

Again, at the great meeting on Sunday afternoon, when the auditorium of the High School building was filled and when the Delaware home choir itself gave the service of music, Katharine B. Davis, superintendent of the State Reformatory for Women at Bedford, N. Y., told what a real reformatory for women is. For be it known that Ohio has absolutely no correctional facilities for girls and young women over sixteen except the state prisons. Knowing the different brands of conservatism which have ever hedged the Ohio state institutions, Dr. Davis fought her battle with brilliancy and dash. No reformatory or industrial school for girls could possibly succeed without a woman superintendent. If there is a constitutional provision against appointing such an officer, knock it out—nothing is impossible. Don't kick the poor Legislature, but the public behind it which does not say to the lawmakers, "This you must do!"

All this has given impetus to a current campaign in Ohio, involving the establishment of a woman's reformatory, the complete reorganization of the Delaware school and lastly the abolition of the utterly absurd constitutional provision above referred to.

The presidential address on Isms by Dr. Henry C. Eyman, superintendent of

the State Hospital at Massillon, was a splendid exposition from something of a new standpoint of the essential unity of all real social effort, with some telling illustrations from the speaker's special field. The power of suggestion to furnish newer interests to take the place of older and evil tendencies in a subject's mind, the social theory plus the personal touch with the individual human being—nay, indeed, the need of this for even the most general of social reform—this was the theme.

Dr. Louis Stricker of Cincinnati in his address, Is Work for the Blind Desirable, presented the results of the Blind Relief Commissioners' work in connection with pensions for the blind. The most significant part of this report urged that workshops be established in various sections of the state to supplement the state school. Dr. Stricker contended that the more ignorant blind could not make their own way, but that these workshops, with organized industry and centralized output, would enable the incompetent to support themselves. Attention was called to the lack of success of some state school graduates. Whether Dr. Stricker's suggestion regarding workshops, or that of a permanent society for the welfare of the blind, to develop their industrial abilities and fit them into the right niches, promises better results, may give rise to difference of opinion; but how limited the opportunities are for self-development by the blind in Ohio, both on account of the scope of the state school and the mistaken sentimentality of the friends of the blind, was the burden of Dr. Stricker's paper, and constructively his considerations deserve the closest examination.

The remainder of the general session programs covered Admission, Treatment and General Management of the Insane, by Dr. Charles Gilliam, superintendent of the State Hospital, Columbus; Cure of the Feeble-Minded, by Dr. E. J. Emrick, superintendent of the Institution for Feeble-Minded, Columbus; The State Sanatorium, by Dr. S. P. Wise, president of the Board of Trustees, Nullersburg; The Dependent Colored Child, by the Rev. R. A. Longman, Cincinnati; The Child Labor Situation in Ohio and Neighboring States, by E. N. Clopper, Ohio Valley, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee; The Delinquent Parent, by Judge Samuel L. Black of Columbus; Impulse and Law, by the Rev. George Stibitz, of the Central Theological Seminary, Dayton; Thirty Years' Experience by Addie Kidwell, governess Children's Home, Marietta; Traffic in Babies, by Dr. H. M. Platter, inspector of the State Board of Health; Some Phases of the Work of a Humane Society, by A. B. Williams, Jr., superintendent Humane Society, Cleveland; Needs of Newark in Organized Charity, by Francis H. McLean, field secretary, Charity Organization Department, Russell Sage Foundation; School Gardening, by Louise Klein Miller, curator of gardens, Board of Education, Cleveland.

There were well attended section meetings of infirmary directors and matrons, county visitors, children's home officials and matrons, blind relief commissioners, city charities and the Ohio Crittenton League.

The conference meets next year in Toledo. The officers are:

President, the Rev. R. A. Longman, Cincinnati; vice-presidents, Mrs. Apollo Opes, New Philadelphia, and the Rev. Joseph A. Bennett, Newark, secretary, H. H. Shirer, Columbus.

MAINE STATE CONFERENCE

The fourth annual meeting of the Maine State Conference of Charities and Corrections was held in Portland October 26-29 under the presidency of William DeWitt Hyde, president of Bowdoin College.

The program was in practical touch with the needs of the state. Juvenile delinquency and juvenile courts were discussed by George E. Fogg of Portland, Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation and Mary Dewson. The conference appointed a committee to cooperate with the Maine Prison Associa-

tion in securing needed legislation this winter. The need of a state board of charities was presented by President Hyde, Robert Treat Whitehouse, United States district attorney, and Alexander Johnson, secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Vocational direction for young people was discussed by Everett W. Lord of Boston. The Rt. Rev. Louis S. Walsh, bishop of Portland, delivered an address and the work of the new Maine School for the Feeble-Minded at Pownal was described by Dr. George S. Bliss. Mrs. A. R. Scott of the Bangor Associated Charities dealt with problems of outdoor relief.

Dr. F. H. Gerrish of Portland gave an impressive address on The Social Havoc of Venereal Diseases, in which he showed their enormous prevalence and destructiveness, the futility of public licensing and registration, and the necessity for a sane and wholesome attitude toward the whole subject, arguing especially for freer discussion and the instruction of children by their parents. He urged that venereal diseases be made reportable to boards of health and that legislation be secured making the communication of such diseases a crime.

Prof. Robert J. Sprague of the University of Maine called attention to the number of divorces in the state and assigned as one cause the lack of sanctity in the marriage ceremony as performed in law offices by justices of the peace and other officials. He advocated legislation to insure a proper performance of the ceremony and to restrict the places where it may legally be performed to homes, churches, and rooms especially designated by municipalities.

The closing sessions were in charge of the Maine Children's Committee, an organization of child-helping agencies of the state established a year ago with the aid of the Russell Sage Foundation to facilitate co-operative work in child-placing in foster homes. It was decided as a result of these sessions to continue the work and to sustain it entirely by the resources secured from the constituent organizations, making the movement self-supporting.

The following officers were elected: President, E. P. Wentworth, superintendent State School for Boys; vice-presidents, the Rev. John H. Quint, Brunswick; Prof. Robert J. Sprague, Orono; secretary, Mrs. A. R. Scott, Bangor; treasurer, Charles H. Hitchborn, Augusta.

THE NEW YORK CAMPAIGN FOR THE PREVENTION OF INSANITY

HOMER FOLKS
SECRETARY, STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION

THE SURVEY of August 20 gave some account of the proposed work of the Connecticut, Illinois and Missouri Societies for Mental Hygiene. Announcement is now made of the beginning of active work in the field of the prevention of insanity in New York state, by a special committee of the State Charities Aid Association. In 1906 this association appointed a special committee on after-care of the insane. In the course of two years it became evident that the work of after-care led naturally and inevitably to the work of prevention, and the committee became the committee on the after-care, relief and prevention of insanity. More recently its name has been shortened to committee on mental hygiene.

The members of the committee include Dr. M. Allen Starr, Dr. Charles L. Dana, Dr. Frederick Peterson and Dr. Bernard Sachs, all physicians of wide experience in the treatment of mental and nervous diseases. Louisa Lee Schuyler, who was chiefly responsible for the adoption of the policy of state care of the insane in New York, has been an active member of the committee since its appointment. The president of the State Commission in

Lunacy, Dr. Albert Warren Ferris, the director of the State Psychiatric Institute, Dr. August Hoch, and the general medical superintendents of the two state hospitals for the insane, located in Greater New York, Drs. William Mabon and William L. Russell have consented to serve as *ex-officio* members. Florence M. Rhett, a member of the board of managers of the State Charities Aid Association, is chairman; Homer Folks, secretary, and Mary Vida Clark and Everett S. Elwood, assistant secretaries. Miss Clark has for several years had immediate charge of the State Charities Aid Association's work in behalf of the insane. She has been closely identified with the development of after-care work and has gained recognition as an effective advocate of advanced measures in the care of the insane, of the broader social mission of the state hospitals. Mr. Elwood is a graduate of Syracuse University, and has been principal of the Academy at Penn Yan, N. Y. He left the latter position to devote his entire time to the work of the committee on mental hygiene.

The committee undertook some months ago to raise a fund of $6,000 a year for three years, and has already secured contributions amounting to $4,200 for three years, and an additional $500 for the first year.

The lines of work which the committee has decided to undertake from the outset include the following:

1. An effort to secure the active co-operation of state authorities in a state-wide movement for the prevention of such forms of insanity as are already known to be distinctly preventable. The president of the State Commission in Lunacy, Dr. Ferris, is deeply interested in this subject, and has already gone on record in favor of bringing the various hospitals into much closer relations with the medical profession and with social workers in their respective districts, and also in favor of a general campaign of education as to the causes of insanity. His colleagues, Commissioners Sheldon T. Viele of Buffalo and William Cary Sanger of Oneida county are in full sympathy. The commission will undoubtedly ask the Legislature of 1911 for an appropriation to enable it to undertake educational work, and the committee on mental hygiene will lend its active support to securing such appropriations as may be necessary to enable the State Commission in Lunacy to do in this field, work similar to that done by the Department of Health in the prevention of tuberculosis. The close and effective co-operation between the New York State Department of Health and the State Charities Aid Association has been one of the most important features of the state tuberculosis campaign, and has greatly contributed to the degree of success attained. It is believed that in this later preventive campaign, the dignity and prestige of the state and the initiative and interest of private benevolence will co-operate from the start in an equally effective manner.

2. A campaign of popular education as to the causes of certain forms of insanity, as to which there is a comparative unanimity of opinion among medical authorities. The committee has already issued one leaflet (State Charities Aid Association Publication No. 117), The Prevention of Insanity, which states briefly the range of our present knowledge as to the causes of insanity, based largely upon the close study of the history of each patient, which has been carried on in recent years in state hospitals. In this leaflet the following are indicated as causes of insanity which may be regarded as preventable:

(a) General paralysis, also called paresis, and popularly known as "softening of the brain," is considered by medical authorities as being, in from 85 to 100 per cent of cases, a result of syphilis. This is a particularly distressing form of insanity, being incurable, resulting in rapid physical and mental deterioration, and in death in a few years. It comprises from 14 to 21 per cent of new admissions of men to state hospitals, and from 4 to 8 per cent of women.

(b) Alcohol is a direct and unmistakable cause of insanity in a very considerable number of cases. In many more cases alcohol is undoubtedly an important contributing factor. Statistics as to the exact proportion of cases vary considerably. In the *Medical Record* for May 28, 1910, Dr. Ferris states, "Of the insane in New York state, 28.9 per cent owe their insanity to alcohol." The uncertainty as to the exact total number of cases due to this cause does not, however, impair

the directness and certainty of the relation between alcoholism and many cases of insanity.

(c) Certain physical disorders requiring surgical or medical attendance are often the causes of nervous and mental diseases, and unless relieved lead to permanent mental impairment. Overwork, overstrain, worry and exhaustion, especially when combined with under-nourishment and unsanitary conditions of living, are evident causes of insanity in a certain number of cases.

(e) Less readily recognized, but coming more and more clearly into view, is a cause which may be termed "bad mental habits"; excessive introspection, brooding—the condition which is coming to be known among alienists as "the shut-in personality."

The committee plans to enlist the interest and co-operation of the clergy, teachers, public officials, physicians, leaders in labor unions, fraternal orders, farmers' organizations, and other classes of persons whose position gives them influence, and opportunities for effective service in social betterment. It also plans to publish a leaflet, stating in popular form, with the authority of scientific experts, the essential facts as to the causation of some forms of insanity, stated above. It believes that if the facts concerning the relation of syphilis to insanity, which are as yet hardly known generally in the medical profession, and are practically unknown to the laity, can become widely and clearly understood, a substantial diminution in the number of paretics to be cared for in the state hospitals may confidently be expected. It believes that to bring home to people generally the fact that alcohol is conclusively known to be a cause of much insanity, will have considerable effect upon the habits of the coming generation in this regard. It believes that to make people understand the fact that bad mental habits, which can be described in detail, are apt to lead to insanity, will result in the earlier recognition and consequent earlier treatment of impending mental disaster.

3. As features of the educational campaign, the committee plans, in co-operation with the state authorities, to arrange for a series of lectures in the larger cities of the state. It is hoped that an exhibit familiarizing the public with the more important facts concerning the hospitals for the insane, and concerning the cure and the prevention of insanity, will be prepared by the state, to be shown at various conventions and conferences.

4. The committee has also in mind definite work in bringing to light individual cases of approaching mental impairment at a much earlier stage than at present, and in securing such medical attention and social aid as will, in many cases, delay or prevent what would otherwise have been a serious impairment. There are already in New York city a number of clinics for mental and nervous diseases, including those connected with the Bellevue Dispensary, Cornell Medical College, Vanderbilt Clinic and the Neurological Institute. The work of the existing clinics could be extended, and additional clinics in various portions of the city, connected with public or private hospitals, should be established as rapidly as funds can be procured therefor. It would perhaps be unduly optimistic to look forward to the districting of the city among an adequate number of neurological clinics, comparable to the Association of Tuberculosis Clinics, but such an outcome is by no means an impossibility. It is hoped also that each of the thirteen state hospitals may follow the example of the Ogdensburg State Hospital, which has already established a clinic or outdoor department to which any patient, from any part of the district of that hospital, may go for medical attention, advice, and instruction. A more perfect co-ordination of existing and proposed clinics with public and private relief agencies in all parts of the state, is also contemplated.

In the nature of the case, the work of the committee on mental hygiene cannot attract so wide attention, nor be carried on with the help of so large a degree of publicity, as the campaign against tuberculosis. It is expected, however, that in comprehensiveness, thoroughness, soundness of educational method, co-operation on the part of public and private agencies, and in arousing interest on the part of all classes of people, this later campaign will not suffer by comparison.

Probably no member of the committee has ventured to hazard a guess as to how

much may be accomplished in the way of reducing the volume of insanity by such preventive measures. It is their conviction, however, that it is not necessary to await more complete scientific data, nor a more definite forecast as to precisely what may be accomplished before setting on foot various measures on a considerable scale. The program of work will be flexible, subject to revision and modification as experience may indicate, and as new scientific discoveries may require. It is possible, for instance, that the recent achievement of Professor Ehrlich in producing the remedy, "No. 606", for syphilis may, within a few years, considerably modify the methods most likely to be effective for the prevention of paresis. This possible change in method, common to many forms of social work, should not, in the judgment of the committee, delay a most serious effort to bring home to the population of the state the close relation now existing between insanity and certain factors susceptible of control by the individual or by community action.

The humanitarian aspects undoubtedly interest the committee most. To diminish the volume of disease and consequent suffering and death; to decrease the heavy burden placed on the families and friends of those afflicted; to assist in building up a strong and efficient people —these certainly are worthy objects, fit to engage the active interest and the serious labors of the best and the strongest. The economic aspect, however, is one sufficiently serious to engage the attention of any to whom other considerations might not make a conclusive appeal. The number of insane in the state is now in excess of 32,000—roughly one in every 200 of the total adult population. The average annual increase exceeds 1,000. The annual cost of maintenance exceeds five and one-half million dollars. The necessary cost of new buildings exceeds a million dollars each year. About one-sixth of the entire current income of the state is expended for the insane. In view of these facts, can anyone question the wisdom of expenditure of a modest sum in an effort to secure the effective application of our present knowledge as to the causes of insanity?

A CLINIC FOR INDUSTRIAL DISEASES

JOHN B. ANDREWS
SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

Some of us had hoped that industrial America with its wonderful resources, its famed philanthropies and its uncounted thousands of work-diseased men and women, might be first among nations to recognize the need of a special hospital and clinic for industrial diseases. But the honor belongs to Italy.

Eight years ago a group of social-minded medical men in Milan united in a demand for systematic study of diseases of occupation. Four years ago they called together from many nations the first International Congress on Industrial Diseases. Last March they saw the hopes of years culminate in the dedication of the first labor clinic.

"For the scientific study and prevention of occupational diseases," is the inscription in letters of gold on a background of white marble over the entrance of this unique hospital. Three large four-story buildings, new and well-equipped with the latest scientific apparatus in laboratories, hospital wards, lecture room and library, are here frankly dedicated to the elimination of those diseases peculiar to industrial employments. Already twelve scientific men are co-operating with the director, Dr. Devoto, although the laboratories were not opened until March 20. In one of the hospital wards the director is giving special attention to fourteen patients. One of these, a man trembling with the peculiar palsy due to mercurial poisoning, began work in a hat factory when ten years of age and felt the effects of the poison almost immediately. Another patient suffers with "lead colic", the result of his work as a house painter. Seven of his thirteen children died during the

WHERE ITALY LEADS.
The first clinic for industrial diseases, recently dedicated at Milan.

first few months after they came into the world, on account, perhaps, of the presence of poison in the father's system. Other patients are being treated for ills occasioned by work in high temperatures, in dusty or poisonous atmospheres, and for the results of overstrain.

The laboratories, too, are fully equipped. Here we find treadmills in which dogs patiently trot up endless hills in order that their blood corpuscles may disclose new truths concerning the toxin of fatigue. Machines register on revolving discs the fluctuating curves inscribed by long series of muscular strains, in order that the effects of overwork and artificial stimulus may be correlated with immunity from disease. Here, too, "leaded" mother goats and guinea pigs add to our fund of knowledge concerning the effects of lead poisoning upon premature birth and the supply of mother's milk.

These experiments, moreover, are of much more than ordinary laboratory interest. A practical provision extends the activities of the clinic into industrial establishments, and supplements the work of government factory inspectors. Dr. Carozzi, who has devoted much time to this important work, is fully supplied with portable air-test devices. When called upon by the department, he is authorized to enter establishments to inspect sanitary conditions.

These practical experiments, carried on with a broad scientific devotion to the conservation of human resources, offer both encouragement and reproach to us in the United States. What have we of equal value to offer the sons and daughters of Italy whom we invite to our shores? Country dentists have confessed to us that they were merely "experimenting" with match factory employes afflicted with the dreadful "phossy jaw". Industrial diseases of many kinds are leaving pitiful wrecks to burden and shame us. Is it not a matter of reproach that it was not in weary, smoke-begrimed Pittsburgh, nor amid the textile mills of New England, nor among the mines and smelters and factories of the great industrial centers of the United States, but beneath the sunny skies of Italy that this need found tangible expression in the first clinic for industrial diseases?

When Florence Nightingale and Henri Dunant saw the battlefields strewn with dead and wounded, they gave a moment to thought, and then passed on to the world an idea which grew into that beneficent organization known as the Red Cross. Since that time, wherever men might be injured in the activities of war the means for quick relief have been supplied. During that same half century, however, the industrial field with its activities of peace has extended and grown more mechanical, until it now maims more men than war ever did. In the United States we are just beginning to realize that 30,000 wage-earners are killed by industrial accidents every year, and that at least 500,000 more are seriously injured. And now, carefully prepared by a committee of experts appointed by the president of the Association

for Labor Legislation and thoughtfully received by the president of the United States, comes a Memorial on Industrial Diseases,[1] which discloses industrial injuries of still greater magnitude. In this admirable memorial of facts and figures we learn that in the United States there are probably not less than 13,000,000 cases of sickness each year among those engaged in industrial employments. The money loss each year (for those who find dollars more impressive than lives) is calculated by these conservative experts as nearly three-quarters of a billion dollars. At least one-fourth of this painful incapacity for work and consequent economic loss, we are told, can be prevented.

Germany has gathered and displayed in special governmental institutions the latest devices for preventing accidents and disease in workshops. These suggestive permanent exhibitions rank among the interesting museums pointed out to the stranger. And it was only yesterday that Germany among nations nosed into the industrial class. In Minnesota and Wisconsin we are tardily securing the attention of the state to this important subject and are gradually building up permanent exhibits on that sure and effective foundation.

But in the United States we need an institution that will correlate the experience of our scattered little group of hygienists and enable more medical men to direct their attention to the problems of industrial hygiene. We need for the purpose a special laboratory and hospital to accelerate progress in the study of the causes and prevention of industrial diseases. With such an institution, phosphorus poisoning would quickly disappear from our match industry as a matter of scientific common sense. The long list of poisons affecting scores of different occupations would gradually be shortened. Conditions which lower vitality, lessen efficiency and invite disease, would quickly be improved to the advantage of manufacturer and wage-earner. The necessary research would be carried on by scientists of unquestioned ability and singleness of purpose, and in a manner which would enlist from all the heartiest co-operation.

For the past two years the American Association for Labor Legislation has had an able commission on industrial hygiene, and last June we held our first American Congress on Industrial Diseases. As an outgrowth of that congress a committee of experts has submitted to the president a memorial, calling attention to the urgent need of a national investigation. The most valuable aid in such an inquiry would be an American clinic for the study and prevention of industrial diseases.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT, Department Editor

THE RURAL LIFE PROBLEM OF THE UNITED STATES. By Sir Horace Plunkett. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1910. Pp. 174. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.33.

In this book, to which one of our esteemed contemporaries alludes as "one of the new nature books", Sir Horace Plunkett has amplified the five articles contributed to the *Outlook* under the title Conservation and Rural Life. With his remarkable success in helping Ireland to solve her own rural problems, and with his ten years' experience as a ranchman in the foothills of the Rockies and an "annual holiday" in the States for the last twenty years, America could hardly find a more competent observer and adviser. What is needed in the country, he thinks, is "better farming, better business, and better living", to all of which co-operation is the first essential. To secure these desiderata he urges the creation, or the development out of existing organizations, of two bodies—a "popular propagandist association" and a "scientific, philosophic, research-making" institute; and he advises with a sagacity that belies his claim to being "an unwilling politician", that, "since the one idea has caught on while the other lags", the "Country Life Wagon" be hitched to "the Conservation Star."

[1] A review of this memorial will be published in an early issue of THE SURVEY.

THE LIFE OF DANIEL COIT GILMAN. By Fabian Franklin. Dodd, Mead and Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 446. Price $3.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $3.67.

This story, succinctly and interestingly told, is full of inspiring suggestions. Dr. Gilman's statements of principle and outlines for action are masterly in their brevity, pointedness and practical wisdom. Most of them relate to education, but many apply equally to other social problems. The common welfare was his absorbing interest. He gave himself unceasingly to the development of society and of individuals. His keen insight discovered directly what was valuable in whatever and whomever came before him. The motto he chose for the Johns Hopkins University, "The truth shall set you free", expressed a sentiment that was fundamental through all his life. He believed in seeking and following the truth boldly, as well as in caution against half truth.

Few men have served their country in as many different capacities. Besides his work as builder in two universities and the Carnegie Institution, he was a member of the Slater, Peabody, General Education, and Russell Sage Foundations, president of the National Civil Service League, member of the Venezuela Boundary Commission, member of the Charter Commission of Baltimore in 1897, president of the Charity Oragnization Society of Baltimore, as well as a member of boards of other important institutions. He identified himself thoroughly with local interests wherever he went. One of the chief merits of the Hopkins University has been its fine influence in widening the outlook and raising the public standards of the people of its city.

OPEN AIR SCHOOLS. By Leonard P. Ayres. Doubleday, Page and Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 170. Price $1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.32.

The little red schoolhouse has grown up with the cities into a big brick hothouse, with plenty of steam heat, as is natural and necessary in a forcing plant, whether it be for ripening tomatoes in January or adding the latest frills to the Three R's. So it is a most wholesome thing that Dr. Ayres has brought between covers the good and sufficient reasons for reverting to the open-air school, which may be anything from a class out under a tree in the summer to an old building with the sunny side ripped out in the winter.

There is nothing new in the book, as he frankly says. A few reports from Germany, England and America, and articles in THE SURVEY and the *Journal of the Outdoor Life*, give the groundwork. The tuberculosis societies have pioneered the movement in this country, but it is too big and important for them alone. As Dr. Ayres puts it, these schools mark "one long step toward that school of the future in which the child will not have to be either feeble-minded or delinquent or tubercular or truant to enjoy the best and fullest sort of educational opportunity." Here, as in so many school matters, the abnormal or subnormal child has opened the door—and the windows—for the normal. In open-air schools, or open-air-recovery-schools as the Germans, their inventors, call them, pre-tubercular and anaemic children show improvement nothing short of marvelous in physique, school work and deportment. If the sick youngsters do that, the well may do even more

Besides the historical and descriptive chapters there are other very practical ones on Feeding, Cost, Construction and Clothing, and Forms for Record-keeping.

THE AMERICAN RURAL SCHOOL. By Harold Waldstein Foght. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1910. Pp. 361. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.37.

This book—the first comprehensive treatment of its important subject of which we know—is "affectionately dedicated" to "the thousands of conscientious hard-working teachers who are devoting their best energies to prepare our twelve million country boys and girls for useful citizenship." It should help them materially, both by the suggestions it contains which they can themselves apply, but still more by the influence it should have on school boards and other authorities who shape the conditions under which they work.

The underlying idea is the same one that pervades current discussion of city schools, that the school should fit the child "for life", but in this case "for sane, wholesome lives on the farm—the only normal American life of our day." It is easy to agree with this, without stopping to argue against the qualifying phrase at the end of the sentence, or against the assumption that city life is "terribly devitalizing," and to follow with interest the very concrete discussions which make up the bulk of the book: problems of organization and administration, maintenance and supervision, training of teachers and their salaries, architecture and equipment of buildings, curriculum, affiliated social activities, and at the end a page and a half of "simple rules by which to recognize symptoms of some common diseases."

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. By John M. Gillette. American Book Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 303. Price, $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.09.

Mr. Gillette allies himself with those who would begin training a child for "his niche in life" at the age of twelve. "If the very constitution of this social world which environs him demands that the individual shall be specialized in terms of its nature, which in my estimation is the case, then the specializing of the child to meet the terms society imposes is the dominant thing. This is the great goal of education."

Does, however, the socialization of education mean the "vocationalization of education"

for the child of twelve? This assumes that at twelve the child will, or must, know what his vocation is to be. It assumes also a far more static condition in industry than the facts warrant at a time when all sorts of occupations are passing through kaleidoscopic changes.

The practical suggestions for the reconstruction of certain school subjects, in Methods of Socialization, are the most valuable part of the book.

THE MAKING OF A TRADE SCHOOL. By Mary Schenck Woolman. Whitcomb and Barrows. Boston. 1910. Pp. 101. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY, 54 cents.

Sincere gratitude is due Mrs. Woolman for putting into shape the experiences of the Manhattan Trade School—the problems encountered in the eight years of its existence under private auspices, and the methods adopted to meet them. Unfortunately the account is marred by careless writing here and there: *e. g.*, "Others (other trades) were not chosen, as there was little chance in them to rise on account of men's trades intervening."

MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS. Edited by T. N. Kelynack, M.D. London. P. S. King and Son. 1910. Pp. 434. Price $2.43; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.63.

Dr. Kelynack seems to have a confirmed habit of getting out such volumes as this—compilations of papers by well-known authorities on various aspects of a general subject. It is not a wholly satisfactory method of book-making, from the public's point of view, for it always involves hiatuses, divergences, inconsistencies, and repetitions in the development of the subject, though on the other hand each chapter can, in such a book, be the work of an expert, as in this case the editor claims.

The aim of this collection of thirty-two papers is stated, in labored phrases: "To provide a complete guide for school medical officers, and to afford educationalists and all interested in the welfare of the school child with a reliable and authoritative exposition of the methods and means whereby the best use may be made of the machinery at present available."

Chapters are devoted to the methods used in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the United States (contributed by Dr. Gulick and Dr. Ayres), Germany, France, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Switzerland, with one on physical education in American universities.

CHILDHOOD. Edited by T. N. Kelynack, M.D. Charles Kelly. London. 1910. Pp. 151. Price, limp cloth, 32 cents; stiff cloth, 48 cents. Not on sale in America.

This compilation is the second of the National Health Manuals, the first of which was concerned with Infancy. The series represents a laudable effort to furnish trustworthy literature at popular prices.

The normal growth of children, their psychology, physiology, diet, diseases, moral training, protection against cruelty and care in dependence, are treated in brief essays, each one prefaced by a page of quotations from the poets and philosophers of the world and the ages.

THE VAGRANCY PROBLEM. By William Harbutt Dawson. London. P. S. King and Son. 1910. Pp. 270. Price $1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.28.

Mr. Dawson's uncompromising contention is that "society is justified, in its own interest, in legislating the loafer out of existence, if legislation can be shown to be equal to the task."

Twenty years ago Mr. Dawson first called attention to the continental detention colonies and labor houses which he still considers the foundation of a rational treatment of the "social parasite." Ten years ago he outlined a comprehensive plan for dealing with vagrancy in England. Two features of it—the establishment of public Labour Registries and the prohibition of child vagrancy—he has recently seen put into effect. This volume, therefore, concentrates attention on the disciplinary institutions which have been found feasible and salutary in Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and which Mr. Dawson thinks should be substituted for the "casual wards" of England. To provide for the bona fide work seeker, for whom the casual wards are equally unsuited, he urges "wayfarers' hostels" affiliated with the Labour Registries.

1911 CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

INTERNATIONAL

International Congress on Tuberculosis. September 24-30. Rome, Italy. Secretary-general, Professor Ascoli, Via Lucina, Rome, Italy.

International Prison Congress (Quinquennial). London, 1915. Secretary, F. Simon van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

NATIONAL (NEW)

Conference on Vocational Guidance, November 15-16. Boston, Mass. Secretary, James A. McKibben, Boston Vocation Bureau, 101 Tremont street, Boston, Mass.

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. Second Thursday in November, December, February, and April. New York, N. Y. Corresponding officer, James Pedersen, M.D., 20 West Forty-second street. Subject of Meeting of November 10: Clause 79 of the Page bill.

American Academy of Medicine. Midyear meeting, December 1-2, Buffalo, N. Y. Annual meeting, June 24-26, Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary,

Charles McIntire, M.D., 52 North Fourth street, Easton, Pa. Subject of both meetings: Medical Sociology.

American Sanatorium Association, December 10. Lake Kushaqua, N. Y. Secretary, Dr. Harry Lee Barnes, Lake Wallum, N. Y.

American Civic Association, December 14-16. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Richard B. Watrous, Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

American Sociological Society, December 27-31. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, Alvan A. Tenney, Columbia University, New York city.

American Association for Labor Legislation, December 27-31. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, John B. Andrews, Metropolitan Tower, New York city.

American Association of Home Economics, December 27-31. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, B. R. Andrews, Teachers College, New York city.

National Child Labor Committee, March. Birmingham, Ala. Corresponding officer, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, March or April. New York city. Corresponding officer, Waldemar Groszmann, Plainfield, N. J.

American Federation of Arts, May. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Leila Mechlin, 1741 New York avenue, Washington, D. C.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Alexander Johnson, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

National Probation Association, June 5-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Roger N. Baldwin, 903 Security Building, St. Louis, Mo.

National Women's Trade Union League, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer, Mrs. D. W. Keller, 5,273 McPherson avenue, St. Louis, Mo.

American Medical Association, June 27. Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, George H. Simmons, M.D., 535 Dearborn avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Education Association, July. San Francisco, Cal. Secretary, Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

National Fraternal Congress, August 21. Mackinac Island, Mich. Secretary, C. A. Gower, Lansing, Mich.

American Hospital Association, September 19-22. New York city. Secretary, J. N. E. Brown, M.D., Toronto General Hospital, Can.

American Prison Association, September. Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Joseph P. Byers, 13 Central avenue, Newark, N. J.

National (Previously Announced)

National Municipal League, November 14-18. Buffalo, N. Y. Secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Room 705, North American Building, 121 South Broad street, Philadelphia, Pa.

National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, November 17-19. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Edward H. Reisner, Columbia University, New York City.

American Economic Association, December 27-31. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, T. N. Carver, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

American Historical Association, December 27-31. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, W. G. Leland, 500 Bond Building, Washington, D. C.

State (New)

Juvenile Court Conference of Middle Western States, November 9-11. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, Alice B. Graydon, chief probation officer, Indianapolis, Ind.

Conference of New York State Probation Officers, November 15-16. Rochester, N. Y. Corresponding officer, Arthur W. Towne, State Probation Commission, Albany, N. Y.

Western Reserve Conference on the Care of Neglected and Dependent Children, November 17-19. Cleveland, O. Secretary, Annie S. Cutler, 501 St. Clair avenue, Cleveland, O.

New Jersey Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis, November 17. Newark, N. J. Secretary, William C. Smallwood, 164 Market street, Newark, N. J.

Illinois Association for Labor Legislation, November 26. Chicago, Ill. Secretary, Luke Grant, 29 North Pine avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Virginia Anti-Tuberculosis Association, December 15-16. Richmond, Va. Executive secretary, Douglas S. Freeman, M.D., Richmond, Va.

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, April. Princeton, N. J. Secretary, J. Byron Deacon, 417 Roger Williams Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Arizona Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Bisbee, Ariz. Secretary, John W. Flinn, Prescott, Ariz.

Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction, May 8-12. Hamilton, Ont. Secretary, P. M. Nicholson, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, Ont.

New England Conference on Street Cleaning, June. Springfield, Mass. Corresponding officer, Carol Aronovici, 55 Eddy street, Providence, R. I.

Northern Baptist Convention, June 13. Philadelphia, Pa. President, Emory W. Hunt, Denison University, Granville, O.

Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities, October 10-12. Indiana, Pa. Secretary, L. C. Colborn, Somerset, Pa.

State (Previously Announced)

Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction, November 15-17. Altoona, Pa. Secretary, Frederick S. Hall, 1,338 Real Estate Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association, November 25-26. Milwaukee, Wis. Executive secretary, H. E. Dearholt, Goldsmith Building, Milwaukee, Wis.

New York Child Welfare Exhibit, Jan. 18-Feb. 12. New York city. Secretary, Roy Smith Wallace, Room 5,105 Metropolitan Building, New York city.

Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction, November 10-12. Chillicothe, Mo. Secretary, W. T. Cross, State Board of Charities and Corrections, Columbia, Mo.

New York Conference of Charities and Correction, November 15-17. Rochester, N. Y. Secretary, Frank E. Wade, 11 D. S. Morgan Building, Buffalo, N. Y.

Maryland Conference of Charities and Corrections, November 17-19. Frederick, Md. Secretary, H. Wirt Steele, 15 E. Pleasant street, Baltimore, Md.

Minnesota Conference of Charities and Correction, November 18-21. Crookston, Minn. Secretary, E. T. Lies, City and County Building, Minneapolis, Minn.

Iowa Conference of Charities and Correction, December 4-7. Des Moines, Ia. Secretary, George Mogridge, M.D., Institute for Feeble-Minded Children, Glenwood, Ia.

South Carolina Conference of Charities and Correction, December 8-10. Florence, S. C. President, A. T. Jamison, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood, S. C.

Michigan Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis, December 9. Ann Arbor, Mich. Secretary, A. S. Warthin, Ann Arbor, Mich.

WANTED: A man to take charge of boys' club work in a Settlement including personal supervision of playground. Must be a practical athlete. Reply, M K. S. Care of Survey.

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This includes all necessary expenses except steward's fees. There are many desirable single staterooms at $500 and up. All rooms are first-class and all passengers have similar privileges. ¶ The cruise is under the personal charge of Mr. Herbert E. Clark, whose unsurpassed familiarity with the places visited assures members of the party all possible advantages. Lady chaperons accompany the tourists and are available for the service of ladies traveling alone.

Such gratifying success marked the trip of the last Observer party that another is now being organized under the same auspices. The Publisher of The Observer and his wife are planning to go on the cruise. Illustrated booklet and ship diagram will be mailed free upon application. Address **JOHN A. OFFORD**, 156 Fifth Ave., New York.

GARMENT WORKERS' STRIKE IN CHICAGO

A strike of garment workers in Chicago, which was started about seven weeks ago by twenty workers in one shop, has spread now to nearly 40,000. Although the employers insist that there are no real grievances and that intimidation is responsible for the large numbers who continue on strike, it seems clear that no such rapid, spontaneous and enthusiastic enlistment of working people in a long, hard struggle could have come about without general discontent over work conditions in the trade. The grievances concern various questions of shop control, in regard to fines, overbearing foremen, speeding up and wages—especially the way in which the amount of earnings is calculated. The lack of any way to present grievances, except at the personal risk of an employe, was a complaint common to all the shops.

Further indication of the spirit of the strikers is afforded by the summary way in which they turned down an agreement into which their leaders, both local and national, were willing to enter. This proposed agreement provided for the return of all former employes without discrimination because of their affiliation with the United Garment Workers of America, and for the selection of one person by the employers, one by the United Garment Workers, and a third by these two, to take up the alleged grievances and to devise methods both as to redress and the avoidance of like difficulties in the future. It was specifically stated, however, that this should not be considered as a recognition of any union; that the question of union or open shop should not be submitted to or decided by the committee, and that the open shop should not be considered as a grievance. This document was signed by President T. A. Rickert of the Garment Workers of America, and by the firm of Hart, Schaffner and Marx in whose shops the strike originated. It was felt that a settlement with this concern, which has 10,000 employes, would lead to a general settlement. Meetings of strikers on the same day overwhelmingly repudiated the proposed agreement because of its failure to provide for collective bargaining of any sort and for the closed shop, which the workers finally demanded.

When the strike assumed large proportions a citizens' committee organized "to investigate the grievances and if possible to remedy the situation." Emil G. Hirsch was chosen chairman and Anna E. Nicholes, secretary. The other members are: Jane Addams, Mr. and Mrs. T. W. Allinson, Grace Abbott, Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, S. P. Breckinridge, Dr. Henry B. Favill, Prof. Ernst Freund, Luke Grant, Alice Hamilton, Mrs. Charles Henrotin, the Rev. Jenkin Lloyd Jones, Sherman C. Kingsley, Judge Julian W. Mack, Prof. George H. Meade, Allen B. Pond, Father Spetz, Rabbi Joseph Stolz, Dean W. T. Sumner, Graham Taylor, Mrs. Harriett Van der Vaart and Mrs. M. H. Wilmarth.

A sub-committee consisting of Professor Meade, Miss Breckinridge, Miss Nicholes, Professor Henderson and A. A. McCormick was appointed to investigate the grievances. Its report consists of a statement of certain points with reference to the character of the trade, a statement of the grievances as learned through interviews with strikers gained by the department of social investigation of the School of Civics and Philanthropy, a report of interviews with three men identified with the clothing manufacturers, and the conclusions of the committee.

SWEATSHOP TO FACTORY

Until recently, the trade was characterized as entirely unorganized from the technical as well as from the industrial standpoint. There has been an effort by Chicago dealers, notably by Hart, Schaffner and Marx, "to regularize the employes in well-appointed factories and

work shops." In health and physical equipment this marked a notable advance. But this sudden transfer of workers from their homes to well-equipped factories, however, with great sub-division of labor has involved economic and industrial weakness in the position of the workers. The seasonal character of the trade was emphasized, and it is stated that the burden and costs of this are shifted to the shoulders of the workers. "The demands of common justice would require the assumption of a larger share of this risk by the manufacturers to whom the profits of these undertakings accrue." It is pointed out that the industry depends upon recent immigrants almost wholly for a large number of processes. They are especially helpless and in need of protection.

Concerning grievances, the strikers interviewed represented the employes of seventeen firms in addition to thirty-one out of the forty-nine shops under the control of Hart, Schaffner and Marx. Fines and deductions are a frequent source of complaint. Loss of spools, bobbins and needles may reduce earnings, and it is even complained that there are charges for the use of soap in the washroom. Deductions are made for small pieces of cloth in addition to the piece given to the cutter as just large enough for a suit. The workers claim that they are sometimes compelled to purchase garments at retail prices if there are slight imperfections in the workmanship. It is alleged that increase of speed or complexity of work is not accompanied by an increase of pay, and there is a general belief that certain employes receive secret inducements to act as pacemakers.

In the relation of foremen with employes, a chief difficulty alleged is that the pay of foremen is in some degree determined by the amount of work or the economy secured in their department. Incessant small friction between worker and foreman doubtless accounts for much of the feeling now manifesting itself, hitherto without any natural channel of expression. Typical of these difficulties is the loss of time, and therefore a lessened wage for piece workers, when it is necessary to hunt for the foreman in order to secure a pass to leave the workroom.

The strikers claim that the efforts of the employers to regularize the work are due to a desire to be more advantageously placed when the rush season begins. They resent the necessity during slack season of spending the whole day in the shop when they are able to work and draw wages during only a portion of it. Time clocks are often subjects of grievance, and some workers say that if they forget to punch the clock their time pay is refused them although their work tickets show that they have been working.

Apprentices, who the strikers say are trained to be fast rather than skilled workers, are looked upon as a labor supply designed to replace older, more skilled and better paid employes.

With reference to wages, in addition to the ways of reducing them already mentioned, there is complaint of the methods of calculating earnings, no system having been developed which enables the workers to estimate their earnings or correct the estimate of the employer. Fines, often listed as "merchandise," make a difference between what workers expect and actually receive.

All three of the men on the employers' side who were interviewed—Harry Hart of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, Harry Pflaum, president of the Wholesale Clothiers Association, and E. J. Rose of the National Wholesale Tailors' Association—insisted that none of their employes has had a real grievance. Mr. Hart said that his employes were free to express their own grievances to him or to the other members of the firm, and that the fact that they did not was sufficient evidence to him that they had no serious grievances. He declared that the strike was fomented by agents of the union who had taken advantage of a small walk-out, due to a misunderstanding, and reiterated his insistence that most of the workers stayed out only through fear of violence. The attitude of Mr. Pflaum and Mr. Rose was substantially the same. They admitted, however, that foremen might be brutal and inconsiderate, and also that some form

of organization within the shops would be useful in giving expression to grievances and leading to their correction. Mr. Hart added that the strike might be a blessing in disguise in bringing attention to evils of which they did not know and which might be corrected.

FINDINGS OF THE CITIZENS' COMMITTEE

The conclusions expressed by the citizens' committee are that the present contract system does not differ materially from the sweatshop in principle, and that in passing from its original sweatshop condition into a factory condition, there are still present in the clothing trade, even in the highly organized factories of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, many of the social conditions which belong to the sweatshop. The committee states its impression that the shop procedure results in unwholesome methods of speeding up, and that the foremen and inspectors naturally give their first and every interest to increasing the efficiency of the operatives even to the point of physically injuring them. The strike is felt to have been made possible by the continued irritation arising from conditions in the shops, there being little evidence that it was due to organized labor. While there is evidence that many operatives have been induced to remain away from shops through fear of violence, the committee does not believe that so large a number could have thus been kept out. The committee believes that

> the natural method of removing the causes of irritation and of making more healthful social life is some form of organization among the workers in the shop. The industry is so very complicated, the labor so highly subdivided, the dependence, as yet, of the operatives upon the foremen is so great, that it seems next to impossible to bring about normal conditions unless the operatives themselves are able to express their own views and their own complaints through committees and thus without fear of the loss of position or of the enmity of the foreman.

Such representation seems necessary also as a protection for the many immigrants whose skill and knowledge of American conditions is not yet sufficient to enable them to protect themselves. The report concludes:

> There seems to be no manner in which the firm can insure itself against the recurrence of such disturbances except by instituting some system of dealing with their operatives through representative committees or other forms of of shop representation.

The Women's Trade Union League, one of the participants in joint conferences — which include representation from the national executive committee of the United Garment Workers, the local union, the strikers' committee and the Chicago Federation of Labor—has also issued a statement covering many of the points which appear in the statement of the citizens' committee. The league specifically states, however, that through various methods the reduction in wages has amounted to from fifteen to twenty per cent. Incidentally, it gives the interesting information that there are fifty-six divisions in the manufacture of a pair of pants, over sixty for a coat and twenty for a vest. The statement concludes with a strong declaration that the only practicable and effective method of collectively presenting grievances and securing protection is through trade union organization. The league is maintaining three commissary or lunch stations, one in each section of the city especially affected by the strike.

With the strong endorsement and active support of the Chicago Federation of Labor, the striking employes both in and outside the garment workers 'union, have united in presenting to the employers, through National President Rickert of the Garment Workers, the following demands:

> (1) Only members of the union to be employed in the cutting and manufacturing departments.
>
> (2) A week's work for all cutters and trimmers to consist of forty-eight hours, and for all tailors fifty-four hours; overtime work to be paid at the rate of time and one-half, and double time for holidays.
>
> (3) Any misunderstanding as to wages and other working conditions in any shop shall be referred for adjustment to the firm and the shop steward of the union, and if they cannot adjust it, then it shall be submitted to a third party mutually agreed upon between the union and the firm.

CLAUSE 79 OF THE PAGE LAW

Clause 79 of the Page Law on Courts of Inferior Jurisdiction in New York city was discussed for three hours last week at a meeting of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis and at the end, as at the beginning, the audience was divided sharply into two groups—those who find it the first step into the European system of regulating and licensing prostitutes, and those who find it the first step toward a better protection of public health and morals.

Segregation of prostitutes as a means for reducing syphilis was first proposed in the fifteenth century when, as Dr. Prince A. Morrow, the president of the society, recalled, certain learned men declared, in the quaint phrase of that day, that the disease could readily be cured if the infected women were set apart and treated by chirurgeons by authority of the princes temporal and princes spiritual and the Grace of Almighty God. The women have been set apart and treated with varying degrees of thoroughness—and today we have syphilis and gonorrhoea in every part of the civilized and uncivilized world—the white man's burden freely carried over to the heathen, be it noted—to a degree never before known. As an integrate and ineradicable part of this method, we have, as our twentieth century science tells us, babies blinded, girls ruined, boys debauched, women surgically mutilated, men crippled for life and work, and an annually recruited army of paretics in the insane hospitals. It is high time, Dr. Morrow and his associates hold, that we throw overboard a theory based on the belief that sexual intercourse is a necessity for men, and therefore to be safeguarded; and a practice based on the treatment and the punishment of the woman, who has been forced into prostitution through the lust of men and the pressure of man-made economic conditions. Self-control, a single standard of morals, punishment of men as well as of women who transgress the moral and the statute law, sex education for boys and girls, frankness of speech, publicity, a general knowledge of the harvest as well as of the sowing of wild oats—that is the platform of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis.

Those who differ with Dr. Morrow on the specific issue of Clause 79—and it is fair to note that many of them agree with his whole general program—find that clause not a beginning of state regulation and licensing of prostitution, but a measure for substituting hospital treatment for jail treatment of diseased prisoners and a valuable supplementary factor to his campaign. The wording of the statute, they hold, bears them out, for the medical inspection applies only after conviction, while the European regulation systems invariably give power to the police to have examinations made of any women whom they may believe to be prostitutes. It is, they contend, in very truth a first step, making toward medical examination of all prisoners; finger print records of all convicted persons in order that probation, or reformation, or permanent segregation, may be applied as needed; and, so far as prostitutes are directly concerned, removing from the streets at least a few of the diseased women. They are convinced that there is a gain in every street-walker torn from Broadway, for not only is she denied this easiest and freest possible commerce with the man who seeks her, but she is removed from active solicitation of boys returning from the theater or any innocent evening amusement.

TWO SIDES OF A QUESTION

There are the two views. As Dr. Morrow said, the society seldom expects to convince anyone of anything when it is discussing mooted questions. But it believes the discussions are worth while, nevertheless, for frank discussion is the only possible solvent for divergent views, and as it seeps down through the laity it starts more and ever more discussion and thus aids mightily in that education of the general public which, after generations of false silence, is so important.

Not the least interesting part in the discussion was that taken by the women. Without a place on the program, although they formed three-quarters of the

audience; with no chance to speak until a motion to adjourn was before the meeting, they nevertheless made an impression on all who were present. Moral fervor is greater than parliamentary usage.

The arguments against the bill were presented by Dr. Morrow, in a paper which carried weight not only because it was by the foremost American authority on venereal disease and the author of the standard work on the subject,[1] but because of the evident care in its preparation, the temperate language and the orderly array of argument. This clause of the Page law comes within the scope of the society, he said, for the society's specific object is to check the spread of venereal disease and the essential intent of the law is sanitary. In that it is unique, for all previous American legislation on the social evil has ignored these diseases. The question is, does this represent advanced legislation, or is it the entering wedge of regulation in the European sense? There is no suggestion that the law is reformatory in its purpose, although the women caught under this law are probably the debutantes of vice, for all medical history shows that it is the youngest who are most diseased. The law is clearly not in the interests of the women; it is evidently in the interests of the men these women might infect. That is class legislation, directed against a particular class of women in favor of a particular class—a licentious class—of men, though the members of the Page Commission had no such end in view. Such disease can be contracted only by seeking it. Should the state protect the men who seek it?

The argument that the number of foci of disease present in the city at any time will be reduced by the number of diseased women then in hospital, will not hold, he said. The supply of contagion is constant, for the demand for prostitutes is constant. Those in hospital will be immediately replaced by a fresh supply who will themselves become infected, and when the first are released there will be a larger number than ever.

[1]Social Diseases and Marriage. By Prince A. Morrow, M. D. Lea and Febiger, Philadelphia. Pp. 390. By mail of THE SURVEY, $3.

With the practical working of the law, he took strong issue. The evidence upon which conviction rests is in the hands of the police who are not fitted to give it, he said. Sentence to a hospital and discharge from it depend on an examination by a doctor stating that the woman has or has not venereal disease —"making a demand which it is beyond the power of medical science to give," for only the most virulent cases of gonorrhoea will be caught, while the deep-seated but equally infectious cases will escape detection. The most that the hospital can hope to do in so short a term is to whitewash the case—clear up the obvious symptoms. That is no protection to the men who patronize the woman after discharge. Moreover, every woman discharged will be held by an ignorant public to be safe.

To those who ask why not try the law out, his reply was that it has been tried out for a century in Europe and condemned by its practical results.

ALL ARE EQUAL BEFORE INFECTION

Since segregation and medical treatment were first proposed in the fifteenth century, the masculine spreader of contagion has been practically ignored. The whole blame, he said, has been laid on the woman. Yet the male is the disseminator and the cause of the social results which are the most serious. The prostitute is the purveyor. In the field of immorality she is the more active, but she is confined to that field, while her partner takes the disease home to his wife and children.

So, he held, to lock up the woman, to isolate one factor and leave the other free, would be a satire on sanitary science. It would be an attempt to create a double standard of sanitation which is impossible, for science recognizes the absolute equality of all before infection. There should be equality of responsibility as well.

His proposal of reform, with which he closed, was for obligatory notification of the venereal diseases, like tuberculosis and smallpox, to the health authorities, under specified conditions; and the wid-

est possible publicity of their consequences in order to create public opinion in favor of the sanitary measures deemed necessary for their effective control. The need is for general enlightenment and antiseptic publicity. He was heartily applauded.

Homer Folks, secretary of the State Charities Aid Association and president of the State Probation Commission, made the chief reply. Social as well as medical factors are involved, he said. The crucial point in regard to Clause 79 is, is it a regulation of the social evil? If it is, he is against it without further argument, but he can find in it no features common to the regulation acts abroad. It appears to deal only with a small number of persons—those arrested; and of those arrested, only with those convicted; and of these it proposes to segregate for a time the ones found to be diseased. Is that a regulation of prostitution, or is it a measure for public health and morals? It cannot possibly be regarded as a comprehensive plan to treat the social evil.

Mr. Folks's point of cleavage with Dr. Morrow—and as a social rather than a medical point, he claimed the right as a social worker to present and maintain it—is whether the number of active foci of disease will be reduced by segregation of diseased women after conviction. To him it seems almost an arithmetical proposition. He does not believe that the demand will remain the same.

I believe that the demand is in an appreciable degree dependent upon the supply—the number of women actually on the streets soliciting and thus actively creating the demand——and that every removal from that number is a removal of demand as well as of supply. I favor Clause 79 because it removes women who are otherwise foci of infection. It reduces the incitement to the demand and so reduces that demand itself. It does not discharge the non-diseased. They are left under conviction and subject to just the same penalties as they were before the Page law was passed.

I will stand for the most stringent law for the segregation of diseased men, too. But will some one tell us how, when, and where we can get hold of them?

A law cannot be condemned for the good things it does not do, if the things it does do are valuable. The administration of the Page law to date has been faulty, and commitment should not be to the workhouse, nor even to a well-equipped hospital, but to a reformatory with adequate hospital features. Dr. Morrow is right in urging an educational campaign. This law is not a substitute for such a campaign and does not stand in the way of it.

In closing, Mr. Folks said, referring to Rabbi Harris's criticism that the Page law is not a comprehensive handling of the subject, that he had given up trying to get all the reform he wanted at one time. The only way to progress is to get what you can, and then get some more, and again some more. "If this law is good as far as it goes, and is impartially enforced—then I will go ahead with any others to get more of the progressive things that this law is criticised for not doing."

There was a hearty round of applause when Mr. Folks closed.

Rabbi Maurice H. Harris, speaking on the moral aspects, got into a position of opposition to the single standard of morals that to many of his hearers was unconvincing. A number of others spoke briefly. Dr. John S. Billings told of the arrangements for medical examinations which the Department of Health has made in accordance with the provisions of the law. Only one woman of 168 convicted has objected to examination. Gonococci were found in fifty-nine, or thirty-five per cent.

Julius H. Mayer, counsel to the Page Commission, who had been the opening speaker on legislative aspects, was given an opportunity to close the discussion. The bill, he had said, was not new legislation on the general subject of prostitution, but a development upon the existing laws which run back to 1833. The failure to make Clause 79 apply to men who live on the earnings of prostitutes was purely an oversight due to the great number of points and laws to be considered. He could only see objection to Clause 79 on two grounds. The first was a fundamental objection on the part of some to any legislation whatever on the subject. With that view he could see no use in arguing. The other objection was upon specific phrases or upon administration. On that he urged time to see what some of the results are. "We

must confer and co-operate and work it out together", he said. In the time allotted to him he had not given anything like an adequate description of the law or of the commission's reasoning in drafting it, but urged his hearers to read the report of the commission. In closing, he repeated a plea for a fair trial. It was not in any sense a complete measure, but a first step. Let it be tried out practically and made the basis for further steps.

"FIRST STEP" TOWARD WHAT?

Then, with the chairman's gavel raised to declare adjournment, the women took a hand. By his use of the phrase, "a first step," Mr. Mayer had given the cue to their chief contention—that medical inspection under Clause 79 is essentially regulation and the next step will be licensing. Twenty women were on their feet, claiming the floor. Finally one of them put the question that was on every tongue. Would the gentleman state what, if he had the power, the next step would be? He had not the power, he said—that lies with the Legislature—but if he had the power he was frank to confess he had no next step. He had done his best in the Page law.

One woman after another got the floor and in explosive phrases told the tale that Dr. Morrow had put dispassionately. As discussion it was emotional and incoherent, but it struck home to many as evidence of an absorbing moral fervor. Under it all lay a sex-consciousness of deep wrongs suffered by women, a storm of protest that has been gathering for centuries and is wreaking itself pell mell on what they regard as a "hypocritical and pharisaical law."

Finally, Lavinia L. Dock, secretary of the International Council of Nurses, got to the platform and flayed the law and its makers in stinging phrases, amidst bursts of applause. She challenged the wisdom and the sincerity of its supporters and the "weak excuse and feeble argument" of the "philanthropists who had failed to enforce the old law." Much had been said of soliciting by women, but nothing of soliciting by men, she said. Let any girl ordinarily protected by good clothes and a good neighborhood put on the clothes of a working girl and go to a factory. She would find that solicitation of women by men went on unceasingly wherever girls work for a living. The essential characteristic of state regulation of prostitution, the core and essence of the whole thing, she said, was the enforced medical examination and compulsory treatment. All the rest is unessential. Take the medical examination away from foreign systems of regulation and see what is left. Clause 79, she said, has not the slightest tendency toward minimizing prostitution. Let the money and machinery wasted on it be applied to enforcing existing laws which are now notoriously not enforced. She left the platform in a storm of applause and congratulation by her supporters, and the meeting broke up into little groups to carry on the discussion indefinitely.

To an outsider, it appeared that the evening was spent more in considering the general question of the social evil than the Page law. Dr. Billings's figures were the only statistics offered on its operation and Mr. Folks was the only one who spoke on actual administration. There was no evidence by judges, probation officers, police, matrons, examining physicians or any of the officials engaged in the actual administration of Clause 79. Sources of direct information were present, but unheard from, in a police magistrate, a former executive secretary of the Committee of Fourteen, the first woman probation officer at the Night Court, the secretary of the New York Prison Association, officers of the new Committee on Criminal Courts, and the director of the Rockefeller Institute, which is experimenting with the Ehrlich discovery for syphilis, which had not even been mentioned. A later meeting, on the same subject, which was proposed, may include them.

OPENING UP A WIDE FIELD

The discussion of Clause 79 has thus brought the whole subject of the social evil and the venereal diseases to general

attention, and has showed throughout that a public commission which puts through new legislation without calling into consultation the groups of people most interested, will be roundly criticised. Conversely, these groups are put in the difficult and embarrassing position of having to fight a long campaign for revision of a statute which they should have known about and challenged before it was passed, and especially while it was still under consideration by the commission—the report of the Page Commission was widely circulated and the bill was the subject of public hearings. Further, those who believe Clause 79 is the thin edge of the wedge for securing medical examination and finger print records of all prisoners, have found it in fact the large end of the wedge, which is balky about entering backward, after the contrary manner of all wedges. Finally, legislation directed at one sex, however well grounded in legal practice and precedent, will be fought as class legislation.

It has shown, moreover, the prime need for a body of actual fact concerning the social evil in American cities today. The history of European regulation is not enough. The reports of the Immigration Commission, the Committee of Fourteen and the Rockefeller Grand Jury touched single phases. The forthcoming report of the Chicago Vice Commission, a study of things as they are, will be impatiently awaited as the next contribution to the subject and one of national significance.

AMERICAN AND GERMAN STANDARDS OF LIVING

Bulletin No. 88 of the United States Bureau of Labor contains a study of the income and expenditures of 852 families in about thirty cities and rural districts of Germany, with incomes ranging from about $300 to about $1,200, made by the imperial statistical office during the year 1907-8. As Robert C. Chapin's study of the cost of living in New York, based upon 391 family budgets was made at about the same period, a comparison of average percentages of expenditures is not without interest. The first column is a general average from those on page 70 of Chapin.

	Chapin.	German.
Food	44.4	45.5
Rent	21.3	17.9
Clothing	14	12.6
Heat and Light	5	4
Miscellaneous	15.3	19.7

As the percentages for New York families are averaged on salaries from $400 to $1,200, the German percentages cover a slightly wider range. With the exception of food all the special expenditures in New York are higher, rent noticeably so, with the result of cutting down that miscellaneous group which represents the comforts of life.

Both German and American families of different incomes show widely different percentages for special expenditures. Percentages for rent, fuel and light decrease as income increases. For food the German percentage of the maximum income ($1,200) is 30.3 per cent as compared with 54.2 per cent for the minimum ($300), though the money expenditure on the larger income is three times as great; in New York on the other hand the percentage of the larger income is larger, 45.6 per cent as compared with 40.8 per cent for the smaller and this represents a money increase of only between two and three times the smaller. For clothing, those having the maximum income in New York spent less than three times what those with the minimum income expended, while in Germany this class spent nine times as much as the minimum income class.

As to sources of income, the German study shows the fathers of families supplying only 82 per cent of the total family income, the American 89 per cent, the German families showing a much greater percentage of working mothers and both having the same proportion of child workers. Almost one-third of the American and one-half of the German families showed an annual deficit, real in some cases and made up by borrowing or pawning, in others due probably to an understatement of resources in the shape of fees and of gifts from friends. It is noteworthy that a majority of the German deficits are in the salaried in-

come class, that class whose income in all countries is apt to be supplemented by gifts from the surplus prosperity of the wealthy classes to whom it is related.

FIELD SECRETARY FOR HOUSING ASSOCIATION

Systematic and aggressive work throughout the country is to be undertaken by the National Housing Association through a recently appointed field secretary, John Ihlder. For the last two years Mr. Ihlder has been secretary of the municipal affairs committee of the Grand Rapids, Mich., Board of Trade.

The noteworthy civic service of this body has been due in no small part to Mr. Ihlder's earnest and intelligent work. Its first achievement was the securing of a city plan for Grand Rapids. So little did the citizens and officials appreciate the significance of such a plan that a vigorous educational campaign was necessary. This took the form of a "civic revival"—a week of stirring meetings under the leadership of Prof. Charles Zueblin—which attracted widespread attention[1] and has since been iniated by more than a dozen cities.

An enthusiastic civic spirit thus stimulated led to a thorough scheme of committee activity dealing with various phases of municipal affairs, the work being kept constantly before the public so that well informed popular sentiment was rallied. In addition to the civic revival several other departments of the committee's work have become annual fixtures in the life of the city. Among these are an Arbor Day distribution of trees and shrubs, and a milk contest. The committee has co-operated with public-spirited citizens in other Michigan cities to secure the passage of home rule legislation. It took a leading part in Grand Rapids charter revision.

Most effective has been its ability to unite and focus effort on the thing which in the opinion of a representative conference was the most urgently needed next step of civic advance. In this way a large majority was secured in the vote on bonds to provide pure water. Similarly, at the present time civic and social organizations throughout the city have been lined up in a vigorous campaign to carry the bond issue of $200,000 for parks and playgrounds on which the people will vote at this November election.

A score of definite civic reforms or improvements have been agitated or accomplished by the committee, whose work has put the Grand Rapids Board of Trade in the forefront of the business organizations which devote real effort to the general public welfare. Mr. Ihlder's success in helping direct such work by a business organization augurs well for his service in gaining the support of practical men for the movement to secure improved housing conditions throughout the country.

JOINT FELLOWSHIPS FOR SETTLEMENT TRAINING

Believing that the field of social investigation is now thoroughly covered by the Russell Sage Foundation, schools of philanthropy and other like agencies, the College Settlements' Association has decided to replace its fellowships in investigation by fellowships in settlement training. With the co-operation of the New York School of Philanthropy, the Boston School for Social Workers and the University of Pennsylvania a course has been offered in New York and Boston, which will soon be extended to Philadelphia.

This course, which was planned by a sub-committee of the association consisting of Eleanor H. Johnson, Alice E. Robbins and Mary Van Kleeck, includes the full course of lectures in one of the schools and one year's residence and carefully supervised field-work in a settlement belonging to the association. The plan of field work, which is designed to give a clear view of the relation of the settlement to its neighborhood, covers attendance at lectures and meetings on social matters; visits to city institutions; comparative study of the methods of several settlements in the same community; detailed study of some one definite social problem, to be used as a final thesis, as well as practical experience in club work, house duty and visiting. A detailed outline of the plan may be obtained from

[1] See THE SURVEY for December 25, 1909.

Miss Johnson, 37 Madison avenue, or Miss Van Kleeck, 31 Union Square, New York. Fellows have been assigned for this year in New York and Boston, one being a graduate of Wellesley, the other of Smith.

The investigation fellowships have been in existence for twenty years and many of the fellows have made valuable contributions to our knowledge of social conditions. As early as 1893 Isabel Eaton made a study of the garment trades which was published by the American Statistical Association and of the problems connected with the American Negro which was edited by Dr. DuBois. The annals of the American Academy of Social and Political Science published Mary B. Sales's study of housing conditions in Jersey City in 1902. Frances A. Kellor made a study of employment agencies which formed a basis for legislation in New York. Mary Van Kleeck made an investigation of overtime work for women, published in THE SURVEY of October 6, 1906, and of tenement house work, whose results were published in THE SURVEY of January 18, 1908.

Jessie B. Adams's study of the Working Girl in the Elementary Schools in New York appeared in THE SURVEY of February 22, 1908, and Louise Odencrantz's study of Irregularity of Women's Employment, in THE SURVEY of May 1, 1909. Some of these fellows are now doing like work for the Russell Sage Foundation.

CUT THEATER RATES FOR WAGE-EARNERS

The New Theater in New York has set aside certain evenings on which plays with the regular casts are presented to wage-earners at one-quarter of the regular prices. The tickets are distributed through settlements, evening schools, and organizations of workingmen and women. Self-governing branch clubs, to be known as Wage-Earners' Theater Leagues, are being established. Each league has a committee of two to represent it.

Any working man or woman may join a branch league by paying monthly dues of ten cents, which are deducted from the cost of the ticket chosen during the month. The prices for these range from ten to fifty cents.

At the performances already given, the audiences were large and intelligently appreciative, showing there is a very real desire for good drama among those who cannot ordinarily afford to see fine plays. The fact that the settlement workers and club officers attend with those for whom tickets have been procured is some guard against abuse of the privilege.

The first special performance at the New Theatre on October 10, which was of Maeterlinck's Blue Bird, was so successful that the plan is spreading. Oscar Hammerstein has reserved Monday evening for a similar experiment at the Manhattan Opera House. The managers of two other theaters have agreed to set aside their entire houses for special Monday evening performances. The New Theater will even give up a Saturday evening to enable many to come who cannot stay up late other nights. Special matinees of fairy plays are also in store for the children.

The tickets have been distributed mainly among the Jewish factory workers, although any others who belong to certain settlements can secure them. Refined people of the clerical class, particularly women on salaries of from forty to sixty dollars a month, are not adequately provided for in the scheme. This is a defect which the New York *Evening Post* points out in connection with the plan in Chicago, by which three theaters reserve the first Tuesday night of each month as theater evening for business girls.

The People's Institute of New York aims to marshall an audience which can be used to secure better plays for the whole public. It selects certain performances each year. Then arrangements are made by which those who apply by letter and are vouched for by responsible officers of certain associations, after paying a membership charge of a quarter, receive identification cards. These are good usually during the early nights of the week and entitle the holder to a reduction of from a quarter to a half. The idea of bringing

good drama within the range of the wage-earners is quite similar in last analysis to that of creating a larger audience to demand better plays and the two forces should work in harmony.

REPORT ON EQUAL PAY

The New York Commission on Teachers' Salaries, which was appointed by Mayor Gaynor last February, has submitted its findings in 140 pages of material, so bulky that they have not yet been published in full. In the main the report is favorable to the advocates of "equal pay" for women teachers. Much carefully compiled information is given which is of interest to educators throughout the country.

The commission found that while only one-eighth of the positions in the public schools are suited to men, there are more men than women on the waiting list. The proportion of men teachers was found to be greater in the cities where equal pay for the sexes prevails than in those which discriminate. The commission was unanimous in believing that men should be employed in the upper grades of elementary schools and in the high schools.

The commission finds that men do not appear in large numbers below the sixth grade and practically all are employed in teaching boys' classes. In the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades there are 905 men and 789 women teaching boys' classes. Many boys leave the public schools without ever having had a man teacher.

The commission assumes that it is more difficult to teach boys than girls in the two upper grades, and recommends larger salaries for teachers of either sex for this work. For the lower grades and for girls in the last two years the report suggests for both sexes the rates that are now in force for women.

The commission recognizes the evidence on the cost of living furnished by the investigations of the State Conference of Charities in 1906, of the Russell Sage Foundation,[1] and of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor in 1907, and finds that $600 a year is not enough even for a beginner. The A. I. C. P. found $600 a difficult wage for a single woman in New York. Instead of a slow advancement every year, it suggested a minimum salary of $720 unchanged for three years. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment has passed a resolution in favor of this change which will take effect as soon as the necessary changes in the Davis law can be made.

Salaries for principals, it is said, should be based solely upon the size of the schools and not upon sex. In the high schools it is suggested that teachers of boys' classes, irrespective of sex, shall be paid more than those who have girls. In order to avoid the multiplication of salary schedules a system of bonuses in addition to salaries is recommended for teachers of classes of mentally defective and backward children and of cripples. It is recommneded that clerks receive a yearly salary of $600 instead of three dollars a day.

The commission believes that the wages paid substitute teachers should be so advanced that "it will no longer be possible to effect any considerable saving by employing the services of substitutes rather than those of regular teachers."

Under the head of "sex comparisons," the commission finds that promotion and attendance on the part of children are practically equal in schools under men and women principals, but that they are slightly better in rooms taught by men. The average woman is absent from duty two and a half times as much as the average man, but women are not tardy so frequently.

The commission consisted of Clinton L. Rossiter, chairman; Mrs. Frank H. Cothren, secretary; Leonard P. Ayres, Lee K. Frankel and James M. Gifford

THE HOUSING PROBLEM OF TWENTY CITIES

The article by Mr. Veiller on another page opens a series of twenty on as many cities which will be published in THE

[1] The Standard of Living Among Workingmen's Families. By Robert Coit Chapin. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. By mail of THE SURVEY, $2.

SURVEY once a fortnight. Since the organization of the National Housing Association, for which he was responsible, small but increasing groups of earnest men and women have taken up anew the study of local conditions as the necessary basis for legislation. THE SURVEY is fortunate in securing for its readers the first publication of these studies in communities ranging all the way from tiny villages to New York, Chicago, Philadelphia and Boston. The illustrations will offer significant evidence.

The list of articles, to which there may be additions, is as follows:

The House Awakening, Lawrence Veiller.
The Awakening of a State—Indiana, Albion Fellows Bacon.
Two Million People in Small Houses—Philadelphia, Helen L. Parrish.
Teaching the Tenant, Johanna von Wagner.
Socialists and Slums—Milwaukee, Carl D. Thompson.
A City with 70,000 Earth Closets—Baltimore, J. W. Magruder.
Two Hundred Miles of Alleys—Chicago. Charles B. Ball.
"Romeo Flats"—San Francisco, Alice S. Griffith.
A City of Huddled Poles—Buffalo, Frederic Almy.
Housing Reform in Cold Storage—Boston, Edward T. Hartman.
A City Awake—Detroit, James B. Williams.
American Housing Reformers, Lawrence Veiller.
Housing in Cleveland, Howard Strong.
New Tenants and Old Shacks—St. Louis, Roger N. Baldwin.
The Slum Invasion of a College Town—New Haven, Mrs. Henry Wade Rogers.
The Discoveries of Columbus, Otto W. Davis.
A Neglected Community—Cincinnati, C. M. Hubbard.
Turning Alleys into Playgrounds—Washington, William C. Woodward.
New York—The Pioneer in Housing Reform, Lawrence Veiller.

SEWAGE AND NEW YORK BAY

The letter by Mr. Holmes on another page refers to an article in THE SURVEY of October 8 which was a discussion primarily of the problem, at which New York is now at work, of properly disposing of the sewage of her five boroughs.

A solution of this will obviously be impossible if neighboring communities continue to pollute the harbor. Action by one community cannot solve such a problem; there must be co-operative effort in which all bear their share of keeping clean a body of water which is immediately adjacent to the homes of millions of people. The problem is vastly complicated by the fact that not only numberless cities and towns but two states front on New York bay. It would thus seem to be obviously an interstate question which, as Mr. Holmes suggests, may yet find its way to the United States Supreme Court.

In that case, the mere creation of the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission indicates New York's desire, if not her accomplishment, to appear with clean hands. As things stand, it would seem that if such a case as Mr. Holmes suggests came into court, the burden of proof would inevitably fall upon New Jersey, and that that state would be called upon to answer yes or no to some such question as this: "Have you done everything in your power to purify your sewage which you propose to discharge into a neighbor's front yard, and have you co-operated with that neighbor in devising a comprehensive plan for keeping New York harbor clean and healthful?"

Physicians, engineers, sanitarians and municipal commissions have differed widely as to the standards to be set up and as to the value of the various cleansing processes proposed. The records of inter-municipal relations go to show that if New York, situated at the discharging end of waters which carry the sewage of hundreds of towns, did not set up high standards, her neighbors might gorge her waters with raw sewage. A degree of treatment adequate for today might be quite inadequate tomorrow—or in a few years—with the enormous growth of population in New Jersey and in Westchester county, N. Y. It is easier and safer to demand a comprehensive plan and adequate treatment now than to wait until the harbor waters are saturated. White Plains and other Westchester towns did not project the Bronx river sewer until the river became literally a stench in the nostrils of the commuters. Why ask New York to repeat the experience?

"THE UNENDING MILES."

PASSAGE TO TEXAS

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

FIELD SECRETARY, CHARITY ORGANIZATION DEPARTMENT, RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

There may be a few men who know Texas. Many know parts of it. Even to a Californian, however, its striking and manifold variations are a never ending source of amazement. It is something to have sojourned in it a month and even in that time to have realized the incorrectness of many impressions. Generally it takes longer to relieve one's self of hasty impressions.

Let us see. In that month it took 3,000 miles of traveling to visit six cities. Important as those cities are, their own confusing variation forbids generalizing. Far to the west, scarcely of Texas though in it, is El Paso, up a titanic incline of 619 miles from San Antonio, its altitude 4,000 feet; a desert city of the mountains, with nothing but sand and air which thrill and tingle and colors which intoxicate. Many come for their lungs, come and go; and the permanent group of residents are well within their shells.

At the other end of that incline is San Antonio, green and beautiful, with its memories going back to Lone Star days, now undergoing the pangs of a land boom, with its civilization a mixture of old and new, the gay city of Texas. Still to the east, another half day's journey, is Houston, with something of Atlanta's assertiveness, claiming business primacy with more or less justification. Perhaps a little more southern in feeling is this lower tier of cities, excepting El Paso. El Paso is a reflection of the world. It is not only the Negro who is a separate class, but the Mexican—the Greaser—is to the ordinary inhabitant a being inferior. Then the capital, Austin, where one seems to strike the very heart of Texas: a tight little city of not so many ten thousands, sufficient unto itself, with a generous social democracy which has no counterpart in the other cities. Here is not only politics, but culture, the great University of Texas here having its domicile; or, rather, this is its home address, for ever the university is linking itself to the life of the people of the state.

The Conference of Education and the university have been fighting the battles for primary education and the socialization of the schools through parents' associations. Its law and other professors are furnishing the material for more than one social campaign. Progressive enough to adopt the commission form of government, though a city of but 25,000 or 30,000, Austin is showing what efficiency may be introduced by that system, even in a small city. Clean, generous and delightful is Austin.

Something tells you that you are reaching towards the northern borders when Fort Worth and Dallas are reached. The few railroad lines have merged into many, there are fewer Mexicans, manufactures are on the increase, the population type has become more cosmopolitan than in San Antonio or Houston. Here, too, the growth of the public conscience is apparent, particularly in Dallas. Indeed, in Dallas, and to a slightly less degree in Fort Worth, one realizes that the social problems are keenly felt and that the social agencies have reached a degree of organization quite complex. Situated within twenty miles of each other, they have developed only the most good natured of rivalries.

As to the relations among the five cities, so far as the social field is concerned, there is very little interplay. Here, as elsewhere, the charity organization group has struck up more acquaintanceships, but outside of the State Federation of Women's Clubs, the Labor Council, the Conference of Education people, and the university, very little general knowledge is current of what is happening in the other cities. There has been comparatively little visiting, and excepting in the case of Fort Worth and Dallas, whose interplay is undoubtedly responsible for some of the progress achieved, one has an ever present feeling of isolation.

And having seen these cities, what has one seen of Texas? What of the wonderful Pan Handle country, transforming its pastures to golden-lined crop fields, measuring its expanses by millions of acres? What of the still remaining pastures to the west, in the vast reaches stretching to the desert which encompasses El Paso? What of the glitter and fascination of the gulf cities, indeed, if one confines one's self to centers of population? What of a thousand other aspects of a land whose marvelous diversity of face and clime and geography bewilders?

Once the writer was endeavoring to plan a way of having the question of juvenile probation discussed comprehensively by the judiciary.

"There is the State Association of County Judges," replied a wise judge, "but it is no use your trying to get that before them as a whole."

"Why?" he was asked.

"Because, in scores of counties, some of them without railroads," was the reply, "the county judge is also superintendent of public schools, and does not have to be a lawyer. They are not bothering themselves about public questions, but trying to make their own way."

This brought out, as a mere incidental, the diversities even in agricultural conditions, throughout the state.

BUILT OF RUBBISH

A row of huts near the international bridge at El Paso where the presidents of two great republics met.

So, to speak of Texas as a whole, as a result of even this long journey, is absurd. If one traces the location of the five cities mentioned upon the map of Texas, he will find that after all only a little of the center has been visited with a short trip of 600 miles to the western border. Nevertheless, because these are five of the most important cities, and because there are at least three organizations (already alluded to) which have state-wide affiliations in the social field and whose point of view may be obtained at second hand, and because the results of rural mishandling are sometimes apparent in cities, there are certain problems standing out prominently in these selfsame cities, which are certainly state problems.

There can be no doubt that tuberculosis, both imported and domestic, hangs like a black cloud over Texas. It is extremely difficult, practically impossible, to form any idea of just how serious the situation is; but this is known: that wherever there exists an associated charities, there also exists a feeling approaching despair, caused by facing a situation without facilities to combat it. There is very little provision for sanatorium care; the state regulations for registration and disinfection are variously carried out in the different cities; a traveling exhibit and some few fairly

A HUT OF DIRT AND TWIGS.

Makeshift construction, without sanitation, in El Paso.

THE WORST SECTION OF THE CONTINUOUS CORRAL.

About 300 people live here. Light and air come only from the door. The infant death rate is very high. Rent, seventy-five cents a week.

effective local campaigns comprise the sum total of educational effort. Then consider that into this state, which, after all, is just beginning to know itself, there is pouring a stream of unfortunates from other states, fleeing, as they think, to save their lives in this sunny clime. Some do; but they are the ones who have resources. Many others, whose resources are small, through the criminal ignorance and incompetency of local medical practitioners, waste what would go a long way at home toward securing adequate care in coming here to strive and scrimp for a few weeks or a few months, and then collapse. They become public charges. Even then they may become victims of a ghastly comedy, may be shipped from place to place, by public officials, at public expense; shipped wherever their despairing whims suggest; hastened to death, and the public treasury in the end the sufferer.

So far only the associated charities have attempted to send home sufferers of this sort. Public officials in some instances have acted humanely in providing what care they could.

In this chaotic condition Governor Campbell, at the last legislative session, vetoed a measure for the establishment of a state sanatorium, a course in which he was amply justified. The situation demands something far more general than that. Governor Campbell's suggestion that there should be a state tuberculosis commission is, in the writer's mind, the first necessary step. Such a commission should have very wide powers of investigation and recommendation. It will be necessary for it to jack up the local health officials, who are lax, much more abruptly than in the past. It must gather statistics and data of the present extent of the disease. It must very carefully consider the question of a deportation law, or of other measures which will prevent the incoming of those who come only to die at public expense. It must see what system of sanatoriums is best adapted to the peculiar conditions existing in the state, and this with relation to the comparative wealth and comparative civilization of different sections. Then must come a consideration of the educational campaign. Other states have suffered because of lack of a great state program. Texas is in a position to lead the way by a strong state commission.

Because we have expressed the opinion, voicing the belief of trained observers in the four larger cities at least, that tuberculosis is a menace, it must not be presumed that present conditions are much worse than in other states. The

THE MODEL CORRAL OF SAN ANTONIO.

Renting for $5.50 a month, these little houses are occupied by steady, hard-working men.

only difference is that Texas is adding rapidly to its burden by reason of alien accretions. With this added burden, only a few health officers have acted with any degree of vim. A few have attempted to hide conditions. Others have affirmed that there were no "native" cases, which is nothing less than wilful blindness. But whether there has been activity or laxness, it matters not. Because of climatic and present social conditions, the tuberculosis problem is primarily a state problem in Texas.

In the field of the juvenile court and probation there is the same apparent need of a state juvenile court commission. The history of this movement in Texas plainly indicates that it is now in need of the patient, careful, intensive field work which must always follow the active propagandist stage. As the result of enthusiasm, there was imbedded in the Texas statutes a law covering juvenile court and probation which was practically copied bodily from the statute books of another state. In some ways lawyers have affirmed it was a misfit. Its legality on some points is so seriously questioned that the judge in one important city juggles his dockets so that technically juvenile court cases are tried on a criminal docket. As a result, we were told of one case where a weak-kneed jury refused to take a child from a notoriously immoral woman, on evidence which any juvenile court judge would have accepted as convincing.

In another large city the probation system has been badly discredited because the judge has been trying to work out a "big brother" volunteer scheme with no paid official as a center. In short, some of the best friends of the movement acknowledge that, excepting

THE CONTINUOUS CORRAL.

Under new ownership it has been brought up to a high standard of cleanliness.

in a very few places, it has broken down completely. There is need to see where the law should be remedied, what system would best fit counties varying in wealth and in social conditions, when the paid officer should be paid from the public moneys, and so on through the whole long chapter. Texas was not ready for the plan; it had not been worked out in sufficient detail. What is being done now should have been done in the first place. The day was saved in a few places, like Dallas and Houston.

THEIR ONLY OUTLOOK.

A city beautiful movement has been started in San Antonio—but not in this alley.

For instance, in Dallas the Women's Club paid for a good officer until the county was willing to pay for him, following the old Chicago plan. But there cannot be the slightest doubt that probation needs rejuvenation on a carefully thought out and intensive plan.

Though in tuberculosis the state has been slow in awakening, this is not indicative of its attitude in other fields. The child labor problem now receiving attention in the state is practically one of prevention. There are unmistakable evidences of increasing manufacturing interests. At the same time there is nothing resembling the cotton mill conditions in some of the other southern states. Whatever of administrative coercion is now exerted in this broad state must be by one lone commissioner of labor statistics and a deputy at Austin, who notifies the district attorney in case violations come to his attention. The district attorney notified must prosecute. In several pretty bad situations the commissioner or deputy has gone to the scene and righted matters. But everyone recognizes that they can give only incidental protection.

The present child labor law prohibits employment of any child under twelve in factory, manufacturing mill, or any establishment using machinery. Children between twelve and fourteen the statute bars out, and those who cannot read nor write, unless the child has a widowed mother or incapacitated parent to support. Employment under sixteen is prohibited in breweries, distilleries, and in marine service. The twelve- to fourteen-year-old children who are employed, can drive away idleness only between the

hours of 6 A. M. and 6 P. M.. They cannot work all night. Proof of age is most rudimentary. Furthermore, there is no compulsory education law.

With this situation, leaders in social work in Texas are considering two things: first, the organization of a state child labor committee; and, second, the placing of all emphasis just now upon legislation which shall fix an absolute standard age limit of fourteen, and shall further, as the opportunity offers, a state compulsory education law. No wiser decision could be made. It is not a situation which indicates improving the administrative machinery, in order completely to accomplish what the present law intended. Rather every detail of the situation seems to cry out for the strategic advantage of getting a better and absolute standard on the statute books, and then fighting for the administrative details later on; especially so as industrial interests grow apace, and problems become more complicated.

With reference to a legislative program of this sort, it is interesting to the writer to remember some comments made to him upon the uncouthness of the Texas Legislature. It was not his fortune to see it at work. But certainly it cannot be accused of unwillingness to accept "new fangled" ideas, an accusation which could rest against certain other Legislatures.

Let us take these two movements, for instance, child labor and juvenile probation. Its legislation on these two subjects is really remarkable, when one remembers how strong in Texas is the tradition that a man's home is his castle, and his children his own. Even in some of the cities it is so. The writer was called sharply to account in Fort Worth for having ventured to remark that in the ultimate analysis the state must be responsible for its children. The "castle" idea is still a more or less popular tradition, redolent though it is of Middle Age isolation and oppression.

While the three campaigns above mentioned must begin from the state end, there is another which must be taken up in the individual cities. From El Paso, with its miserably damp and dark Mexican adobes fringing the international boundary along the historic Rio Grande, to the opium shacks in the bottoms of Dallas, there is in every one of the five cities a need for some rudimentary housing regulation. There is an amusing yet sardonic tale of the time when the presidents of the United States and Mexico were to meet at the Rio Grande. It was discovered that a most irreverent, unreasonable and utterly miserable group of so-called houses bordered the line of progress, and refused to hide itself. What easier than to hide it with a huge fence! That is the logic which El Paso used. Visiting physicians affirm that only the climate has saved it from desolating scourges. But even the climate cannot avert all disease, and the worst of the adobes have been responsible for the spread of indigenous tuberculosis. Nevertheless, adobes built lately have been better, and work for mothers and babies carried on by the Woman's Charity Association last summer gives promise that El Paso will slowly awaken to the need of cleaning house. More definite word has come to us in a recent dispatch from El Paso, that the city physician, W. H. Anderson, has recommended the destruction of 1,500 shacks for the protection of the health of the city. The City Council ordered him to begin to destroy the worst ones, and to force sewer connections in those that are habitable.

This habit of setting apart ugly facts by themselves is not confined to El Paso. In San Antonio, for instance, the news-

MANUFACTURE IS ON THE INCREASE IN FT. WORTH.

Back yards of Swift and Armour packing plants.

papers viewed with suspicion and alarm a little description of a visit paid to some picturesque horse corrals which thrifty property owners had transformed into "model dwelling houses." Imagine a hollow oblong, pointed on three sides, with a continuous row of corrals, more or less partitioned off, and housing, apparently, fifty families or more. Incredible as it may seem, there was even danger from fire because of the possibility of the one single and narrow place of egress being blocked with people and household belongings. Certainly the sanitary arrangements had the virtue of being plain and above board. Nothing was concealed—a few common privies, a common pump or two, everything deliciously Arcadian and odorous. The cheerful Mexican families, one newspaper assured us, positively joyed in these simple houses. There was, too, a link which tied these peaceful retreats to busy downtown, for here the pecan nut workers were getting their wares ready. In a city in which the use of the word "tuberculosis" by the Associated Charities secretary in her newspaper articles was resented, it is not to be wondered that it was considered quite bad form to speak of corrals. When they were mentioned, nothing would do but to send a reporter to about the best one of the lot, to bring his impressions back, enriched by the rosy hues of an active imagination.

But despite its land boom and tourist boom and hotel boom and all, San Antonio is beginning to awaken to the need of cleaning up its back yards. Curiously enough a city beautiful movement has been started in San Antonio, but its leaders evidently were not taking housing into their program. Their talk was of beautifying the two banks of the canal which runs through the city, and such like. Imagine a beautiful canal and man corrals in the background! It has remained for the owner of one piece of corral property to improve it, and since then there are the evidences of the beginning of a social conscience. A campaign will be waged this coming season.

It is only because of the somewhat picturesque side of the housing problems of these two cities that they have been so specifically mentioned. There are sores in the other cities as well. The housing problem is already part of the program of the newly organized Central Council of Social Agencies in Dallas, and there

should be a corresponding movement in all of the cities of the state. All in all the conditions are pretty bad.

So this leviathan commonwealth is beginning to find itself. In age not so young, in youthfulness very, very young, but big, it is like some boy giant of sixteen, all bulging and bursting out of his outgrown clothes, awkward and ungainly. Whilst harking back to the pioneer days, cities have been growing and growing, railroads have been invading, the hordes of well and ill have been encroaching, the social problems have come, most insistent of all—not only those spoken of, but others.

DOORYARD OF A MEXICAN HOME, EL PASO.

What will be the outcome? If the writer mistakes not, there will be some mighty interesting tussles down there in the Lone Star State—sharp and pointed and fruitful encounters! It would be invidious to mention the strong men and women to be found in the Associated Charities of the different cities, the Mothers' Congress, the Women's Federation, the Conference of Education, the Labor Council, and the settdements, or to single out those men in the university who are helping in the socializing of the schools, and in gathering and furnishing data for penal reform, for state civil service, for every progressive movement. There is something of the pioneer strength and doggedness about those who have already enlisted; they are always eminently practical save in one point—state legislation.

A most interesting illustration of this is given by the Women's Club in Dallas. It could count upon a small amount of money to use each year in encouraging new social work. Therefore it induced the city authorities to create the office of matron in the jail if the club would pay her salary for six months or a year. It had a hand in the selection of the matron, and of course when the agreed upon time expired, no one would hear of abolishing the position. The matron had made herself too useful and she was put on the city pay roll. In the same way the club for a time paid for a probation officer. Now the county pays him, and he is a good officer. Next came a

PLAYGROUND AND BATH HOUSE AT DALLAS.

The Women's Club secured the playground, a paid probation office and a jail matron.

playground director, and, if not already a city employe, he soon will be. Thus in about three years, by attending strictly to one thing at a time, the club has three most helpful social agencies at work.

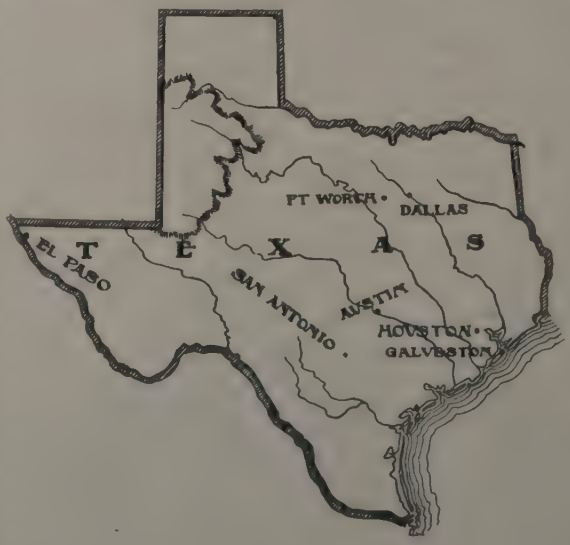
Not always, but sometimes, as we have indicated, there has been lack of wisdom in state legislation. We believe this is due as much as anything else to the isolation forced by the unending miles which seem to separate city and city. There has not been sufficient exchange of views, sufficient understanding, sufficient criticism, between different groups, different cities.

It is for this reason that the formation of a state conference of charities and correction has been urged. It is plainly and apparently one of the chief needs of the state. The unending miles must be overcome.

In both city and state there seems to be one other handicap to overcome. Many of the business men of the state have seen their business grow, without relieving themselves of the details which could be entrusted to able subordinates. They have become slaves to detail, and have not allowed themselves the margin necessary for interests outside the walls of their own offices. A few have come to realize how inevitably this leads to a slowing down in their purely routine work, as well as in the evolution of those larger plans which only a stimulated business imagination can produce. These men have become intensely interested in one or another phase of social development, and have realized the moralities involved. Ethics, something more than personal ethics, is undoubtedly receiving more and more attention, and the fruition will come when more men refuse longer to be mere machines of addition and subtraction.

It is true that some complain of inadequate support of voluntary work. But adequate support is dependent upon the vitality of the interest in any particular work. It is true that the habit of subscribing liberally may not be present; but it can only come when men actually make sacrifices, and they do that when a social activity has become as much a reality to them as their own business.

That outlook upon a little of the center of Texas and at one of its edges, with its teeming acres, its horizon-confined pastures, its desert splendor, its wide-flowing rivers, its magnificent vastnesses, its fascinating cities, its vigorous peoples, convinces the observer of one thing: it is to no mean destiny that this princely state is tending. And in that destiny social progress, if one may judge by what has been forthcoming even in these earlier days of isolation and lack of cohesion, will play no mean part.



Not Mexico, but preventable disease and the curing of social and individual ills—this is the fight in which the Lone Star State will engage with all that matchless vigor and audacity with which it waged warfare in those never-to-be-forgotten days of the fifties.

November 19, 1910.

THE HOUSING AWAKENING

I.

LAWRENCE VEILLER
SECRETARY NATIONAL HOUSING ASSOCIATION

America has at last awakened to the consciousness of her slums. Throughout the land a new sense of social and civic responsibility is stirring. The "new view" of charity has brought with it a new sense of values. Social workers are now seriously asking themselves what shall it profit a man to go to the hospital if he must soon return to some vile slum.

It is now the rare person who does not immediately assent to the view that prevention is better than cure, and there is a growing conviction in all our cities that poverty is curable and even preventable. That bad environment is responsible for many of the ills of the body social and the body politic, is denied by few.

Ignorance, folly, vice, sin, and other forms of human weakness will not altogether disappear from our horizon, but we are beginning to see, as never before, the blighting effects of adverse circumstance upon both the weak and the strong. We refuse longer to believe in the innate depravity of the human race and seek outside of the individual for the causes of human frailty.

We are rightly charging to our travesties of homes, the responsibility for much of poverty, crime, insanity, disease, industrial inefficiency, political degradation. The shame of the cities is upon us, and we are feeling, as never before, the moral responsibility for the continued existence of our slums.

These sentiments, moreover, are confined to no one section of the country—from ocean to ocean, the country is aroused. North, South, East and West share in this awakened conscience.

Nor are these views by any means limited to social workers. Editors, magazine writers, public officials, conservative business men, nurses, physicians—all are awake to their responsibilities.

Mirabile dictu, these beliefs are being translated into action. Here and there a social worker, overborne with the sense of the futility of the old methods of relief work, is pointing out to his associates and directors that it is more important to have adequate sanitary inspection in the homes of the poor than it is to provide coal and clothing—that instructive visiting nursing may be better than grocery tickets, that the city itself had better spend its money to strengthen its health department, than to supply outdoor relief.

It is not strange that we should have awakened to the dangers of our slums, for they have forced themselves on our attention with an insistence that could not be disregarded. Their coming has in most cases been associated with the advent of new races of immigrants, and, like most imported articles, they are costing us dear. No tariff wall has been high enough to keep them out. Few cities have been immune from the slum invasion. Staid New England college towns like New Haven have awakened with a start to find that one-third of their population is of recent foreign importation, that they have not only slums but a serious housing problem. Aristocratic Baltimore has discovered that she has heretofore been "barbarous Baltimore", and now rises in her wrath determined to slay the hydra-headed monster that has been sapping her vitality.

Indiana, stirred to its depths by one woman's recital of the wrongs of the poor, has determined to do away with her slums, and taken the first step towards that important end.

Milwaukee, a younger city of the Middle West, stimulated by its new socialist leaders, is going not only to stamp out its slums, but purposes to build for its workingmen new homes on the city's outskirts.

On the Pacific coast, the stirrings of the new ferment have been profoundly felt. Los Angeles, the city of most things good, is wiping out its small slum nucleus, and through its capable woman sanitary expert is affording the whole country an object lesson in the possibili-

ties of reform through "teaching the tenant." San Francisco, risen from its ashes, is unfortunately rearing for itself future plague-spots—but here, too, public-spirited men and women are alert and on guard.

Ohio is aroused and militant. Cleveland, city of civic spirit, and Cincinnati of civic shame, are joining hands with Columbus in sounding the death-knell of the slum.

Philadelphia, rightly famed as the "city of homes", is anew affording the country an object lesson, showing how two million people are being housed in individual small houses.

Buffalo, which for years has been the admiration of housing reformers, with its miles and miles of small houses, now shows that what has seemed so fair, may be most foul; and how the problem of room overcrowding is inseparably bound up with problems of race, in her "city of huddled Poles."

Chicago, with her miles of alleys and her magnificent distances, offers an example to the whole country in her wise standards of height limitation for new buildings; Detroit, with its sudden extraordinary growth and marvellous industrial development, has not escaped the common lot of other cities and is now fighting her incipient slums, determined to nip the evil in the bud. St. Louis, partly aroused, is at work, seeking relief from many intolerable conditions.

In the South, Kentucky has led the way and has passed the best housing law in the country, due to the public-spirited work of a few men and women in Louisville.

Washington, the nation's capital, whose blind alleys have for years been the nation's shame, is soon to show the country how a city may deal with its plague-spots and make them into gardens of delight.

Hartford, unduly burdened for a city of her size, has at last determined to throw off the reproach of her bad housing conditions, and has evolved a plan for building model houses for her workingmen in the outskirts of the city, combining this with a plan of industrial development.

New York, distinguished for having the worst housing conditions in the world, but long the leader in housing reform in America, continues that leadership. Her 7,000 privies are now a thing of the past, and her 100,000 windowless bedrooms are fast disappearing.

Even Boston, where housing reform has been "in cold storage" for the past twenty years, seems at last to have been stung out of its self-satisfaction and complacency, and, though prophecy is dangerous, it may translate thought into action.

The Russell Sage Foundation through its interesting and valuable researches is about to demonstrate in outward and visible form the possibilities of cheap concrete construction through the "poured house."

Finally, the National Housing Association has come, to focus attention on the problem, to tie together the scattered threads of effort throughout the country, to stimulate and encourage, to place its experience at the service of those who need and desire it.

What strikes the observer about all these cities is the similarity of the problems. Disease-breeding privies, neglected alleys, filthy out-premises, lack of water supply, room overcrowding, defective drainage, windowless rooms, insufficient ventilation, dilapidation, neglectful landlords, and inadequate attention by the health authorities seem to be the common lot.

The outlook for the future is hopeful. The old idea that the housing problem could be solved by building a "model tenement" is fast disappearing. In its place, one finds emphasis laid upon housing laws which will control the situation for all time; on efficient and vigilant sanitary inspection; on Garden Cities and model small houses in place of huge tenements; on instructive visitation of our immigrant population, and the teaching of the elements of hygiene in the public schools and in the home. The country, though awake and aroused, does not yet sufficiently realize its obligations—does not yet quite appreciate that eternal vigilance is the price of liberty and that when it enlists in the cause of housing reform it must enlist for life.

FRANCES PIMM STRICKLAND

HARRIS ELY ADRIANCE
CHAIRMAN YORKVILLE DISTRICT COMMITTEE, NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

Death has again deprived the Charity Organization Society of one of its oldest and most efficient workers, and in the sudden passing away of Mrs. Strickland, the Yorkville District finds itself bereaved of its faithful secretary. On Sunday afternoon, November 6, as she was about to enter a friend's home, Mrs. Strickland was smitten with apoplexy and fell unconscious at the threshold. She was taken to the Presbyterian Hospital and lay in a state of coma until Tuesday afternoon, when she fell asleep.

It was in 1890 that Mrs. Strickland first connected herself with the Charity Organization Society, as a clerk in the Registration Bureau and a general visitor. As she familiarized herself with the duties that fell to her lot to discharge, she gained in resourcefulness and vision, until in 1897 she was appointed superintendent of the Joint Application Bureau, which office she capably filled for seven years, passing in 1904 to the oversight of the Yorkville District. Here she labored until she was smitten, as it were, on the "firing line," and fell in the fullness of her powers.

It is as a social worker that the writer knew Mrs. Strickland, and in passing her life in review it is simply fitting to chronicle those features of it, that within such lines made the deepest impression.

Mrs. Strickland was a devoted woman. Some tasks, as we all know, become in process of time almost mechanical in their performance. They are done, to be sure, but done because they have to be done, and the grinding of the machinery is ever in evidence. When human lives are the materials with which one is working, the mechanical mode of effort is deplorable. How far removed Mrs. Strickland was from this chilly mode! Despite the fact that her duties were most exacting and ever drew upon vital forces not over strong, she never lowered her standard, but kept nobly at the level of love and sympathy. On the records of the society there stand cases that testify to her devotion. She bore with the stubborn, she patiently strove with the ignorant, she instructed the simple-minded and won back to health and service the plague-smitten life. In the heat of summer and through the stormy days of winter she clung to her duties, though ofttimes at the risk of her own well-begin.

Mrs. Strickland was discerning. Discernment is a prize requisite in charitable work, and she possessed it to a marked degree. The ability to discriminate as between the false and the true, to sift statements, to strike a just balance, and to minister relief accordingly, is the fruit of earnest and untiring effort. Again and again in the final discussion of difficult cases the committee sought the opinion of its district secretary, and her ideas prevailed in its ultimate conclusion.

In fact, it simply remains to be said that Mrs. Strickland was a wise woman. Her words to a new worker bear witness to this. The keynote of her service lay in the advice she modestly gave to the friend, "Always when you are inclined by your head, listen to your heart." Could there be a clearer or safer motto for one who must face and unravel the tangled tales of distress and want? To know that head could not do all and that heart must guide as well, is to mingle kindness with sane judgment, and so this good woman did.

And now her work is done.

> Others shall sing the song,
> Others shall right the wrong,
> Finish what I begin,
> And all I fail to win.
> What matter, I or they,
> Mine or another's day,
> So the right word be said,
> And life the sweeter made.

"Faithful unto death" is the simple tribute worthy of inscription above her resting place.

EYE-STRAIN AND THE TEN-CENT STORE

LILLA A. GREENE

Last winter I visited fifteen five- and ten-cent stores in Manhattan, in each of which I bought or tried to buy glasses just as any other purchaser would. My first two visits were rather unsuccessful because I had not yet learned how to ask questions and consequently left without much information. In the first store the clerk sent me to the manager, who naturally declined to state how many pairs of glasses the store sold each day. Two months later, however, I returned to those two stores and had all of my questions answered.

The fifteen stores are not entirely under the one management best known, but include others as well. They are situated in all parts of the city, the lower East Side, Fourteenth street, Third, Sixth and Eighth avenues, 125th street, Columbus and Amsterdam avenues. It is not only the poor who buy cheap glasses at the ten-cent stores.

Sometimes I went into the store without my own glasses—much to my own discomfort, because I was barely able to find the counter—while at other times I wore them and asked for magnifying lenses or some glasses that would ease my headaches. Various were the attempts to fit me, either with or without a test card. The card which is used for testing is quite different from even the ordinary card used by an oculist. It contains lines of type, the largest at the top and gradually diminishing in size towards the bottom. Opposite each line is a number, which does not correspond to any scientific prescription for lenses but merely represents the numbers pasted on the glasses. The "patient" reads down the type, holding the card fourteen inches from the eyes, until he reaches the finest type that he can read without glasses; then the spectacles corresponding to the number opposite the line, are the pair which he needs. This is crude testing in comparison with the method of the best oculists, which involves several visits, "drops" in the eyes to dilate the pupils, and sometimes hours of "fitting" until the right lenses are obtained. Out of 150 pairs of glasses I tried on, there was not one which I could even see through. I cannot see across the street without my own glasses; with these I could not see the clerk. Although my sight without glasses is not very satisfactory for reading, with these I could not read nearly so well. I shall have to forbear testing for myself the statements of those who say that they find them a great help in preserving the sight.

In thirteen of the stores I bought the glasses which, according either to the test-card or the clerk, my eyes required, and afterwards these glasses were examined by a competent oculist and their measurements noted. The results were as follows:

Store	Stock number of glasses bought	Description of these lenses in terms of an oculist's prescription
1	5	+6.75
2	10	+1.25
3	18	+2.25
4	24	+1.62
5	24	+1.62
6	32	+1.25
7	34	+1.0
8	38	Right +.87 cyl. +.25 ax 155 Left +1.25
9	44	+.87
10	48	+.75
11	50	+.87
12	60	Right +.62 Left +.37
13	70	+.50

Note how the numbers vary in the glasses with which I was fitted. The lowest numbers are supposed to be the strongest lenses, the lenses gradually becoming weaker as the numbers grow higher. The measurements do not confirm this theory, except in a general way. No. 5 was the strongest lens. We should expect +2.25 to come next, but it is third; while the lens which comes third in actual strength (+1.62) is numbered 24. No. 10 and No. 32 both measured +1.25; No. 44 and No. 50, both +.87. The complicated measurement of No. 38 is due to the fact that the pieces of glass were so poorly ground that they represented one thing in one spot and something quite different in another. It is noteworthy that in two of the stores, 4 and 5, the same "prescription" was

given me, glasses No. 24, and these two pairs of No. 24 turned out to have the same lenses.

Compare now, with the glasses in the table above, the prescription for the lenses which really fit my eyes:

	Spherical	Cyl.	Axis
Right eye.....	—2.37	—0.75	30°
Left eye.....	—2.37	—0.25	40°

With + .75 added to each for near work.

All the glasses that I tried on were for far-sighted eyes; mine are for near-sighted. They are mostly plain spheres, while mine are rather complicated. Both lenses are the same for both eyes, while mine are quite different. Perhaps I am not a fit subject to buy ten-cent store glasses, because of a complication of defects, "unsymmetrical myopic astigmatism with sub-normal accommodation." Probably, however, many near-sighted people like myself try to fit themselves with these far-sighted lenses. As a matter of fact, these particular lenses would not be apt to fit anyone correctly and are just so many waste pieces of glass.

It is surprising to learn how many such glasses are sold. The statements of the clerks cannot be relied on absolutely, but nearly all emphatically stated that they sold "lots of them." A crowded store in one of the best business sections averaged six dozen a day. In a lower East Side store, when I told the clerk that some stores sold as many as five dozen a day, she answered: "We seldom sell more than two dozen. They might sell more in some places but not in this district." The least number given was from half a dozen to a dozen pairs a day, in a small store situated on a street where few people pass by. One clerk said that "people come in almost every minute"; another that "most everybody that passes the counter buys a pair, if only to rest the eyes." If the estimates can be depended on, in the thirteen stores about thirty-five dozen glasses are sold each day—thirty-five dozen glasses which cannot but cause a vast amount of injury, because neither the clerk nor the purchaser has any idea as to whether the lenses are the ones needed. It is safe to say that nine out of every ten are wrong, causing strain, although perhaps each individual thinks that he can "see better."

Fortunately children and young people do not buy them much. At one place the girl said that children came for them only when they wanted "grandfather glasses" for parties. I know one girl who as a child bought greenish-blue glasses at a candy store for a penny and wore them "just for fun" when her mother did not know it. She wore them so often that serious injury resulted, and this is probably due to the fact that the glasses were cheap and where she could easily get them. Almost everywhere I was told that most of the customers were "elderly" people. I do not agree with the *Ladies' Home Journal*[1] that "men know better than to buy these cheap glasses," because I have seen more men than women buying them. In the first store that I visited a man came to the counter and began looking over the glasses. He said that he had worn three or four pairs from the ten-cent stores and liked them. When I remarked that they were harmful, he admitted it and left the store, probably to go into another one nearby, as there are three in the same block. One of the men whom I saw buying glasses tilted his head nearly to his shoulder in order to read. When I asked a clerk who was wearing glasses whether they were the kind that she was selling, she said, quite indignantly, "O no, I got mine from a doctor!" Another clerk said that people told her that the glasses which she sold were "better than the ones they pay eight or nine dollars for." This particular girl was wearing a seven dollar pair which she did not consider much better than the ones she was selling, "except of course mine are gold." While I was in this same store a woman came in to buy a pair because she had left her "near ones" at home. She often bought them, for they were just as good as the ones for which she had paid eight dollars. She often puts them on in the evening, but supposes if she wore them much they might perhaps hurt her eyes. "The truth is," she liked her ten-cent glasses so well that she sent in a friend, who had expensive glasses but now wears the others. This woman was remark-

[1] October, 1909.

ably well-dressed and of good appearance, but her face showed the effects of eye-strain. Still another clerk remarked that "lots of people like them better than four or five dollar ones. They usually have been wearing them before and know what number they want." One man with whom I talked said he had several pairs in his pocket. These he interchanged when his eyes tired of one pair.

There were two other stores at which I bought no glasses. At one the entire stock consisted of a few pairs of Nos. 5, 12, 16, and 30. They had sold all the others. The clerk did not consider that any of these were suitable so I went away without a pair. The other store was a small independent one. The proprietor himself waited on me. I told him that my eyes were bothering me and I wanted to rest them, which was the truth. He thought that I needed about No. 30 because I was young. When I could not see anything through them, nor through No. 5, nor No. 12, he asked me, "Have ye astigmatism?" I told him that I had. "Well, don't believe it. There are a lot of fakirs who just tell you that to get you to buy their glasses." He thought his glasses helped people—"they are fine for some people." Then he tried on my own glasses to see what they were like and removed them very quickly with the remark, "I guess your eyes are pretty bad; perhaps my glasses would make them worse. As much as I want to sell them to you, I advise ye, lady, not to take them."

The five- and ten-cent stores are not the only places to be criticised on this score. There are the street peddlers of Canal and Grand streets, who charge twenty or twenty-five cents, and the department stores, where it is possible to get eyes examined and a pair of spectacles for a dollar. There are many places where eyes are tested free and high prices charged for worthless lenses. In all of these places a vast amount of misery is being manufactured. Legislation is needed to restrict the sale to opticians who fill the prescriptions of oculists. There are poor oculists, of course, who are doing harm, but these girls and men "test" eyes and "prescribe" glasses without the slightest knowledge of opthalmology or optometry.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

WILD OATS. By James Oppenheim. B. W. Huebsch. New York, 1910 Pp. 261. Price $1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.29.

The seventh commandment, in breach or observance, is not a new theme for a novel, but never before have we had fiction written to teach the facts regarding venereal disease. The wild oats sown by a careless boy are harvested in his baby's sightless eyes and his wife's broken health—this is the gist of the little book, which is written with Mr. Oppenheim's characteristic charm and grace. The story is good and Dr. Rast's reappearance will be widely welcomed. Much of the interest comes from the author's intimate and colorful knowledge of the East Side, where the scene is laid. But the romance, the first glimpse into a new and wonderful world which comes to his lovers, holds good the world over. All through the book carries in clear, convincing terms a message which has hitherto been confined to the writings of sober, statistical folk. It grows in importance from the everyday likeness to us all of the heroine and the young man she marries. It is a good book for young boys and girls and for all who have to do with them, parents and teachers and club leaders. The past summer it was read aloud in several boys' camps, for which its wholesome frankness and its strong suggestion of clean living are particularly valuable. That it has sold into a second edition in a short time promises that the author's brave purpose is bearing fruit.

THE SCIENCE OF LIVING OR THE ART OF KEEPING WELL. By William S. Sadler, M.D. A. C. McClurg and Company. Chicago. 1910. Pp. 420. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

This is a very good book on medicine for popular education. Perhaps its most important portions are the chapters on digestion, nutrition, and the chemical composition of foods, which take up about one-third of the book, but all other aspects of personal hygiene also are well discussed.

Some anatomy and physiology is included, but to what purpose is not clear, since it is not essential to the practical instruction given. Too many scientific terms are introduced, and

the attempts to astonish the reader (*e. g.*, by the total number of cells in the body and other incomprehensible numbers which even the medical student never comes across) are too apparent.

The author is to be congratulated on being true to his religious colors in emphasizing that what patients need today is not "psychotherapy" but a practical demonstration of their professed Christian faith.

THE FRESH-AIR BOOK. By J. P. Müller. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. 1910. Pp. 152. Price $.85; by mail of THE SURVEY $.91.

This little book is a very personal presentation of the writer's opinions on fresh air. He would reduce all clothing to a minimum, and that limit for him is almost zero: no hat, no stockings, only sandals, or better still nothing, on the feet, no night clothes, and when possible "air baths," and gymnastics according to "my method." He seems to belong, however, to those non-medical hygienists who cannot recognize that there is a difference between a disease and susceptibility to that disease, and his comments on appendicitis, rheumatism, gout, and so on, are correspondingly unfortunate. If air baths combined with gymnastics so raise a person's resistance that he is not susceptible to a given disease,—splendid! But that throws little light on the nature of the disease itself.

THE MORPHIA HABIT AND ITS VOLUNTARY RENUNCIATION, By Oscar Jennings, M.D. (Paris). William Wood and Company. New York. 1909. Pp. 502. Price $2; by mail of THE SURVEY, $2.10.

This book purports to be the story of the voluntary suppression of the morphia habit after twenty-five years' addiction as recorded in the diary of the patient. By far the greater part of the book, however, is a description of the author's method of handling these unfortunate cases, and has the tone of an advertisement. Much condensed it would make an excellent article for a medical journal.

HEALTH AND SUGGESTION. THE DIETETICS OF THE MIND. By Ernest von Feuchtersleben (sometime professor of medicine in the University of Vienna). Translated and edited by Ludwig Lewisohn, M.A. B. W. Huebsch, New York. 1910. Pp. 168. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.06.

The American reading public may well congratulate itself that this little German classic has been translated. We are too apt to speak of the mental medicine of which we now hear so much as "new thought", when as a matter of fact it is not at all new. We have not yet appropriated all that was well known over sixty years ago, when this book was written.

This book has passed through many editions in Germany, and has been included in several of those series of very inexpensive publications so popular there, which means that it has reached a large part of the German reading public. It is a classsic but it cannot now serve as a text book of mental therapy. Written at a time when psychology was unborn, and when that part of philosophy which might serve the practical purposes of the therapeutist was little developed, the author must of necessity preface each topic by introductory paragraphs explaining the philosophical basis of the practical lessons he wishes to teach. The college graduate of today who has studied psychology, and who remembers it, will see here much that is familiar and perhaps some to which he must take exception. Again, pathology, as a serious medical subject, began its existence after this book was in print, and those trained in the subject will not agree to some of the medical premises which our author states: for intance, that melancholia is merely, or chiefly, due to faulty mental habits. But the lessons Feuchtersleben tried to teach are just as valid today as during his lifetime, and it might be added, as valid as during the lifetime of those who wrote the New Testament, where these same lessons are taught with even more emphasis.

It is our ignorance of what other nations and other generations talked about which makes us speak of the present movement as "modern." This was not the only book on mental therapy written during the first half of the nineteenth century and perhaps not the most important, but perhaps the most popular. It is very important as well as interesting that the movement towards mental therapy then was headed by physicians, rather than by clergymen and other laymen as today; that is, by men who were well trained in observing the effect of various kinds of therapeutics. This may be one reason why their writings have lived so long.

A MESSAGE TO THE WELL, AND OTHER ESSAYS AND LETTERS ON THE ART OF HEALTH. By Horatio W. Dresser. G. P. Putnam's Sons. New York and London. 1910. Pp. 204. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.35.

This book is one of a series of fifteen on this and kindred subjects by this author, and is one of the great number of books now appearing on mental medicine. The author, like most who are now writing on this general subject, is not a doctor. He is a lecturer on philosophy. From the medical point of view the two illustrations of the success of mental therapy given on pages 117 and 118 are almost ludicrously unconvincing. It is hardly possible to diagnosticate "tumour on the brain" certainly before operation or autopsy. One may suspect it strongly but is never sure until he has looked within that firm, bony, closed cavity of the skull. Eminent medical men have made the diagnosis in cases which presented all the classical symptoms, only to find that the trouble was—in one case, for instance, Bright's disease, and in another, simple eye-strain. The second case is funnier yet. This patient, who recovered

under mental treatment, was "incurably ill with tuberculosis."

While these points are relatively unimportant, they show the wisdom of allowing a physician to read such a manuscript before it goes to press. Most of the book is excellent. We have read nowhere else so good an historical sketch of the movement which it represents, and of kindred movements, while the messages to the well and to the sick, to the clergyman, to the student, and to all, cannot be read without profit.

THE TRUTH ABOUT TUBERCULOSIS AND ITS ONLY CURE. Written and published by J. V. Moore. Royal Oak, Md. Pp. 64. Price, $.25; by mail of The Survey, $.28.

This is similar in plan and purpose to the pamphlet issued a few months ago by Will M. Ross, both of them being written by patients, who have thus given valuable contributions to the literature on tuberculosis.

Mr. Moore's book conveys but one message: that the cure of tuberculosis depends entirely upon the patient, and that no amount of medicine, care, or treatment will produce a cure unless the patient himself co-operates fully. The tone is perhaps a little too positive in some places, for while all reputable physicians are in perfect accord on the essentials in the cure of tuberculosis, there are many minor details (such as "forced feeding," the use of some drugs, such as creosote, or the value of tuberculins) upon which there is still dispute. Mr. Moore's dogmatic statements on some of these points may easily discredit him with some physicians. On the whole, however, the little book is one from which any tuberculosis patient will receive great help and inspiration, and its price is a good feature.

THE CONQUEST OF CONSUMPTION. By Woods Hutchinson. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston. 1910. Pp. 138. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.08.

This book is particularly adapted for gaining adherents to the tuberculosis movement. It is especially recommended, therefore, to everyone who is not already interested in the subject.

COMMUNICATIONS

TRANSPLANT THE JUVENILE COURT

TO THE EDITOR:

At the last meeting of our Social Service Club in Seattle, the topic for discussion was The Juvenile Court. Judge A. W. Frater was the principal speaker. A lively discussion followed, engaged in by teachers, nurses, probation officers, clergymen and others. At the close of the meeting I met Prof. Edward O. Sisson of the University of Washington. He had spoken of the use of the psychological clinic for juvenile offenders. I took him by the hand and said: "Do you know what ought to be done? The whole work of the juvenile court should be taken bodily out of the judiciary, have its name changed and be set down in the educational department of the municipal life." He exclaimed, "Why, I was thinking tonight of that very thing."

The thought may not be new. To us it was new. It seemed to be exactly the culmination of the trend of thought in the treatment of delinquent and defective children. All have observed that the delinquent boy, ten years ago, was treated as a criminal. Very swiftly, however, public opinion has changed. The judge is gradually assuming a parental aspect. The whole treatment is fast becoming an educational problem. Why not put it then where it can be best solved—in the educational department?

There would be many advantages. The juvenile delinquent would thus escape the taint of criminality. The public school board is generally better equipped to handle the boys and girls. The modern treatment of the "bad boy" could thus be applied to small towns all of which have rather efficient school boards. It would eliminate the discord, now existing, between the several societies that each wish "to have a finger" in the treatment of the boy or girl. The public schools are nearest the people and may safely be relied upon to exercise the paternal function. The policeman would be largely eliminated and the great work of treating the defective and delinquent would be placed just where it belongs —in the bureau of education.

SYDNEY STRONG.
Pastor Queen Anne Congregational Church, Seattle.

TO THE EDITOR:

The suggestion in Dr. Strong's communication is not new. Aside from grave legal difficulties in the way of accomplishing the proposed change, the reasons urged in favor of it do not seem conclusive.

The courts that treat the child before them as a criminal do violence both to the letter and spirit of the law. Is not the remedy here to socialize the court so as to bring it into harmony with accepted methods, rather than attempt the doubtful expedient of taking the whole matter out of the court's hands? It is quite possible—even in modern juvenile court laws—to go a step further than has been done toward eliminating from the law all evidence from adherence to the criminal law. Instead of saying, as we do now, that a "delinquent child" or a "wayward child" or the "juvenile delinquent" is one who violates any law of the state, etc., it would be better to say any child who violates any law of the state or city, or

who is within any of the things set out in the statute, shall be deemed to be a child in need of the care and protection of the state, and the judgment would follow the original definition and merely adjudge the child to be in need of the care and protection of the state. The new bill creating a juvenile court for Rochester, N. Y., is framed along the lines indicated here.

It is by no means certain that the whole subject would be better handled by the department of education than by the court, even were it possible to place it there. The policeman is eliminated, serious efforts are made to reach the real cause back of the child's appearance in court, the court itself is brought into close working relationship with the school, church, and with every social and preventive agency in the community in all courts where the chancery idea prevails and an effort is made to carry out the spirit of the law.

Advocates of the suggestion made by Dr. Strong overlook an insurmountable difficulty in the effort to take away from the courts the question of determining the liberty of the child in cases where it is necessary to disturb the child's custody. Nowhere in our jurisprudence do we find so much power and a power of such delicate nature as that lodged in the judge of the juvenile court, and a real danger lies, it seems to me, in minimizing the importance of the legal phases of the court's work. Instead of taking the jurisdiction away from the court, it would seem better to attempt to draw to the court lawyers with real legal training and social ideals.

BERNARD FLEXNER.

Louisville.

ASSERTION—STERILE AND CREATIVE

TO THE EDITOR:

If you call a cow's tail a leg how many legs has a cow? That seems to be the fundamental question in many social problems at the present time.

I have just read, for instance, that the feeding of school children in England at public expense was adopted partly because "it was generally agreed to be undesirable that the meals should be regarded as charitable relief." The English Board of Education says that the act permitting public feeding "is primarily of an educational character." The dining halls in London "are so arranged that the entire effect shall be educative." This is done by having them "painted and furnished in light colors," providing white table cloths and flowers and plants. One would think some nutritive effect would still creep in unless the meals consist wholly in contemplation of these correct and desirable surroundings. In Italy, it is said, the work of free feeding "is regarded as distinctly educational and not as a charity." While we are in the *regarding* business why not regard it as religious? Why not regard it as a solution of all moral and economic problems, as comprising the whole duty of man? Or why not select anything else we do—joy-riding for example—and regard it in the same way? Perhaps it is in some such direction that the solution of all our difficulties is to be found.

For my part, however, I have a sneaking suspicion that the cold fact will get us in the end. I think in the long last of it money paid, or money's worth furnished, to a child or man, not because it has been earned, but because of physical need, will appear, not as what we may choose to call it—whether "educative", "reward of merit, or of motherhood" or "living wage"—but as what it is, simply public charitable relief; and I think that what it is, rather than what we call it, will determine its effect.

Not but that I believe there is a place for asserting things, and a way of asserting them, that makes them true. "Creative assertion" is indeed a hobby of mine. You can, for example, so assert a man's true self that he shall be convinced of it—if you are enough of a man yourself—and souls are saved in that way every day. But the thing must be within the power of action to effect, in order to be so created. You cannot by assertion alter a matter of cold fact nor make a relation something other than it is.

My answer is—the cow has four legs, and only four (at most), whatever you may choose to call her tail.

JOSEPH LEE.

Boston.

P. S.—Your editorial glorifying the minority report of the English Poor Law Commission, which has come since the above was written, is a case in point. You speak of "the minority, true to their principle of avoiding a duplication of agencies brought to bear on any individual," putting the children entirely under the education authorities, the aged under the pension office and the sick under the health department. If a sick person is thus prevented from growing old or an old person from getting sick, and if a child has no parents or the treatment of his parents has no bearing on the child, then this plan must work to admiration. Otherwise it would seem indeed to avoid duplication but only by making triplication the rule.

Your editorial says that the minority would "search out destitution and prevent it in its incipient stages," largely by pensions to the unemployed and others, and by whatever other care was necessary.

The pensions, etc., are to come from sources "not associated with the reproach of pauperism" and so "the social disease which produces a pauper class can ultimately be eliminated."

Incidentally this searching out of an existing disease and then preventing instead of merely curing it indicates in a striking form, the new omnipotence of labels. It beats Joshua at his own game by making the sun go backwards. Hitherto the past has been secure even against omnipotence itself.

But the method of the prevention used is equally striking and important. You are going to prevent pauperism—which as a fact, apart from calling names, is the condition of receiving public money because of poverty—by searching out incipient cases of poverty and handing out public money to them. Or, if we look below the outer fact, at the moral condition that pauperism characteristically presents, you will cure the disposition to give up in the battle for economic independence by multiplying the temptations to such surrender. Will these words "prevent", "cure", etc., win in the end or will the actual conditions govern in spite of labels?

ENGLISH FOR IMMIGRANTS

To the Editor:

Permit me to point out certain facts in response to your article, Classes in English for Immigrants.

The Immigration Commission estimates that "$275,000,000 was sent abroad from the United States in 1907" not taking into account "the large sums carried abroad by returning immigrants." Statistics published by the Bureau of Immigration show that almost forty per cent of all arrivals return from here.

Immigrants who have saved funds re-migrate; the thriftless do not re-migrate, they remain here. This process of removing the fittest is accomplished artificially. The Immigration Commission reports: ". . . . there are in this country at least 2,625 concerns doing an immigrant banking business" exclusive of the multitude of those who "in a quiet way" export the savings of our immigrants. "Of the estimated number New York state leads by far with one thousand banks . . . in New York city there are known to be as many as five hundred." "In only two of the states have any laws that curbed these hybrid institutions been of any effect." While our laws provide regulation and supervision for legally constituted banks, the "banks" which solicit and receive the cash savings of immigrants are unmolested in the United States excepting Massachusetts and New Jersey. Congress and the Legislature should enact corrective measures to improve this condition.

Our farming is decadent because the natives forsake the farms for life in the cities, and because the peasant immigrants who are hungry for land are denied information of our agricultural opportunities of which they might avail themselves. If peasant immigrants were informed of the enormous difference between the price of tillable land here and in the old countries, if they could find out that no thirty-three per cent of farm products has to be paid away in taxes in this country, that no years of compulsory military service in time of peace are inflicted upon them in this country, if they knew of the benefits of American markets for farm products, facilities, institutions and the thousands of details which they do not find out in the coal mines, labor camps, and at construction or factory work—information of which is almost systematically kept away from them—they surely would stop exporting their savings, they would purchase farms here and settle down for good.

Our government should disseminate information among peasant immigrants, in the languages which they understand, of our agricultural opportunities, of our banking, of our educational facilities, of our methods and institutions, of the ways and means of becoming Americanized. To conduct such an educational campaign would involve an expenditure comparatively small in amount, and would result in keeping here large parts of the three hundred million dollars which are exported each year by immigrants, and the best of our immigrants would thus find it possible to stay here and augment American prosperity.

Chapter 514, laws of New York, 1910, and section 40 of the federal immigration act of 1907, make it practicable, if not compulsory, to perform this work.

Lajos Steiner.

Bronx.

IN THE NIGHT COURT

To the Editor:

I should like to describe a scene that I saw in the Night Court for Women the evening of October 27. A girl was brought in who, having been medically examined the night before, had been awaiting sentence. Standing in front of the judge, at some little distance from him and conspicuously elevated in full view of the whole court room, one-half of which was filled solidly with men spectators, this unfortunate had to hear the following sentence, pronounced in a sonorous and penetrating voice fully audible in the furthest part of the audience room:

"——— ——— (the girl's true name being pronounced) the report is that you have an infectious and communicable disease called gonorrhoea, and I hereby sentence you to the hospital for a minimum of two months and a maximum of three."

In full sight of everyone the girl turned away to fulfill her sentence.

I ask the supporters of the Page clause, is this humane? is it decent? is it civilized? And one more question: Suppose that women had the power and had so used it as to compel men to submit to such a procedure—what would men think of it?

Lavinia L. Dock, R.N.

New York.

To the Editor:

Will you kindly allow the Woman's Municipal League to make through your columns a short statement in regard to its attitude on clause 79 of the inferior courts bill?

Because the league has not joined in protests by other women's organizations, it has

been stated that the league was in favor of the clause in question. As a matter of fact, the chairman of the legislative committee has attended protest meetings during the summer and has kept her committee fully advised. We feel, however, that the clause has not yet had a fair trial and we also feel that we do not as yet know enough of the subject to go on record concerning it. On October 27, a large conference of representative women met at the league to discuss the best method of observing the workings of clause 79. When our president, Mrs. Hewitt, asked the women assembled how many had read clause 79, only six hands were raised, and yet many of these women had been present at meetings where resolutions condemning clause 79 had been passed.

A committee is now being organized with the object of keeping a competent investigator in the Night Court, working for a house of detention, and to do work among the inmates when the promised house of detention becomes a realized fact.

We wish it distinctly understood that the league approaches this subject in a perfectly open-minded way. Shall it develop as a result of our investigation that we need to work for repeal or amendment of clause 79, we shall then be in a position to do so intelligently and effectively.

Such a radical departure in our criminal procedure could not but arouse active opposition, and we feel that THE SURVEY, by publishing so many letters on both sides, has done much to educate thoughtful persons in regard to it.

ALIDA B. HAZARD.
(MRS. BARCLAY HAZARD.)

New York.

NEW JERSEY'S TRUNK SEWER

TO THE EDITOR:

I am surprised that you published Miss Leupp's article on the sewerage question in New York harbor without examining the other side of the case.

The twenty-five municipalities that will use the Passaic River Valley trunk sewer, now discharge raw sewage directly into the Passaic river, all of which is delivered by the ebb tide in New York bay, through the Kills, right at Robins Reef lighthouse. The proposal is to intercept all of this matter, confine it in a trunk sewer, and after careful and expensive treatment by sedimentation and filtration, to discharge it, as a colorless, harmless effluent, at exactly the same spot.

The United States government has declared the proposed plan to be satisfactory after a long and thorough investigation. The trunk sewer will discharge in New Jersey waters, and affect New Jersey shores as much as those of New York.

The South Brooklyn sewer, discharging at the opposite side of the bay, will serve a large population, and yet the city of New York does not propose to make the slightest attempt at filtration or purification. The same applies to the proposed Bronx sewer with its outlet in the Hudson. Newtown creek and Gowanus creek discharge almost a saturated solution of sewage into New York bay.

In a word, New Jersey proposes to take the first step, and a long and expensive one, toward relieving New York harbor and its own river and shore frontage. New York proposes to do nothing, but to prevent New Jersey from taking this step. If the matter comes to the United States Supreme Court, the first answer of the court will be that New York must come with "clean hands" if she desires relief from the government.

Two propositions confront New York: 1. An intercepting sewer, without screening or sedimentation basins, discharging into the ocean at a cost of over $50,000,000; 2. A screening and sedimentation system costing over $100,000,000 besides maintenance.

All talk of "disposal" of sewage, under our present circumstances, is futile. It is not possible to point to a successful example of it anywhere, and with no unoccupied area of waste land to be found in this neighborhood, it is not to be thought of.

The Metropolitan Sewerage Commission must find a better plan before it condemns ours.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

Orange, N. J.

[The arguments advanced by Mr. Holmes are so current in New Jersey that we welcome this discussion of them. The Metropolitan Sewerage Commission of New York has given them long and scientific study.

It does not find justification for the claim that all sewage which would be discharged by the proposed Passaic Valley Sewer at Robbins Reef now reaches the same point via the Kills. The following are, in brief, its answers to the points raised by Mr. Holmes. The sewage discharged into the Passaic river now undergoes change and dispersion—in fact sedimentation, oxidation and septic action in the long passage down the river through Newark bay and the Kill Von Kull or Arthur Kill. Under the proposed plan all of this would be discharged at one place from a trunk sewer and the proposed treatment consists of sedimentation and screening, but not filtration. The sedimentation proposed is for a short period and the ineffectiveness of the screening process may be judged from the fact that the screen openings would be four-tenths of an inch in the clear. Far from converting the sewage into a colorless and harmless effluent, this treatment would not remove the harmful bacteria or the discoloring properties.

It is true that the trunk sewer would discharge in New Jersey waters and affect New Jersey shores as truly as it would New York, but the Jersey shore of upper New York bay is much shorter than the New York shore and the two are put to entirely different uses.

New York would suffer infinitely greater injury than New Jersey.

With regard to the South Brooklyn sewer, it should be remembered that it was made very large in order to carry storm water as well as house drainage, while the Passaic sewer would accommodate only house drainage and manufacturing waste. The Brooklyn sewer, moreover, was built before New York had begun its restrictive measures.

As to the Bronx sewer, the same objections have been urged against it by the commission as against the Passaic Valley sewer. Each has been made the subject of a special study and fully described in a special printed report, copies of which may be obtained at the office of the commission, 17 Battery place, New York.

The need for purifying the Passaic and Bronx valleys has never been questioned by the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission. It is only the proposed methods of accomplishing this with which it takes issue. In each case the trunk sewer would benefit some communities at the expense of others. In neither is the discharge of crude or practically crude sewage into the harbor necessary—there are other ways of dealing with the problem and, the commission asks, if the sewage of the Passaic Valley is to be adequately purified, why not discharge it directly into Newark bay in Jersey waters, and save the expense of a tunnel from Newark to Robbins Reef?

The alternatives mentioned as confronting New York are new. No trustworthy estimates of fifty million dollars or one hundred million dollars or any other sums for such work have been made.

The statement that there is no successful example of sewage purification anywhere is an error. References to the experience of cities on this subject can be found in many books of which the following are a few: Sewage Disposal Works, by Raiks, 1908; Sewage Disposal, by Kinnicutt, 1910; Principles of Sewage Treatment, Dunbar and Culbert, 1908.Ed.]

FIGHTING FOREST FIRES

To the Editor:

In view of the recent disastrous forest fires, which have occurred in all parts of the country, and which seem to be handled in a primitive and inadequate manner, I offer a suggestion which may be of some use.

There are on the market a number of so called fire destroying powders, known as "Kilfyre," "Pyricide," &c. These are furnished in various convenient shapes for handling and on demonstration have proved very effective in a small way.

Is it not perfectly feasible to use these powders, which I understand are not very expensive, in a larger way, for the prevention of the spread of such conflagrations as have recently devastated large areas of country? It is conceivable that they could be laid in packages in the advancing track of a forest fire, or even that they could be thrown from considerable distances by mortars or other artillery. Again, they could readily be placed in rockets which are thrown from a considerable distance, and safely handled in a holder made of a section of tin pipe.

In view of the great interests at stake, including the preservation of human life, experiments on the above lines should surely be undertaken by both our state and national officials.

Not only the forest service, but our army and militia would be well employed in such an undertaking.

Joseph D. Holmes.

Orange, N. J.

SOLITARY CONFINEMENT

To the Editor:

The terrible ending of Luccheni, who murdered the Austrian Empress Elizabeth twelve years ago and has just died in Geneva, is only another proof, if proof there need be in this our day of advanced knowledge, how fiendish it is to condemn any man to solitary confinement for life. It is mistaken humanity to consider it preferable to death. One of the editors of the New York *Times* thus comments upon it: "Prolonged solitary confinement, however mitigated, is a terrible, indeed a horrible, thing, and that it should be inflicted upon any criminal, no matter how atrocious, in a country that recoils from capital punishment as intolerably barbarous is only another evidence of how inconsistent sentiment can be when it turns into sentimentality. Capital punishment can be defended fairly well as either necessary or expedient, but solitary confinement is a return to the days of torture and disgraces those who impose it even upon a Luccheni."

I copy textually the statements made above and I give them my unqualified endorsement. I hope and pray that any such punishment may soon be unheard of in New York or elsewhere in the United States.

Beverly Robinson, M.D.

New York.

THE SURVEY BARRED

To the Editor:

After receiving your package of sample copies I could not consistently place them on our state fair literature table as I discovered it advocated the dance. Our purity books on the table did not. The samples you first sent contained nothing discordant to our work or I should not have ordered others.

Mrs. ———.

———, South Dakota.

JOTTINGS

Buffalo Children's Aid Work.—The Buffalo Children's Aid Society founded in 1872, which has confined its work hitherto chiefly to a newsboys' and bootblacks' home, now in a beautiful new building on Delaware avenue in charge of W. A. Cleaver, began on October 1 to do the usual sort of aid work for children in their homes, under the direction of Arthur Folks, who was made general secretary. In some ways work for children has been backward in Buffalo, but public opinion is intelligent and ready and it is expected that Mr. Folks will develop a strong society. For two years he has been secretary of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society. He was born at Pulaski, Mich., in 1881, was graduated from Albion College in 1904 and was a public school superintendent until 1907 when he entered the New York School of Philanthropy. He is a son of Charles Folks ,a prominent member of the Michigan Legislature for a number of years, and a nephew of Homer Folks of the New York State Charities Aid Association.

ARTHUR FOLKS.

* * *

Miss Baylor Goes to California.—Margaret Baylor, well known for her work in Cincinnati at the Associated Charities, the Union Bethel, and as superintendent of the Anna Louise Inn—the home for business girls which was run without rules—has recently become head worker of Neighborhood House, Santa Barbara, Cal. The settlement has recently acquired an adobe house which will be restored in the style of the early Spanish residences. It opened the first free bath house for sea bathing on the Pacific coast.

* * *

New Jewish Workers in Baltimore.—Mr. and Mrs. Max Carton, formerly head workers of the Council Educational Alliance of Cleveland, O., are now head workers of the Jewish Educational Alliance of Baltimore.

* * *

Chief Probation Officer, St. Louis.—As a result of a competitive examination, the general session of the Circuit Court has appointed Hugh M. Fullerton, chief probation officer of the St. Louis Juvenile Court, to succeed Roger N. Baldwin who resigned to become secretary of the Civic League. By his experience as deputy probation officer and by university preparation and keen interest in the work, he is well qualified for the place.

Conferences on Dependence.—Four conferences on social service will be held this year at the Free Synagogue, New York, of which Stephen S. Wise is rabbi. The general subject will be Phases of Life in Relation to Dependence. The first meeting at which Lee K. Frankel presided, was on Industry and Dependence; John Martin and Owen R. Lovejoy gave papers. On January 3, the subject will be Housing and Dependence, with Henry Morgenthau presiding and papers by Tenement House Commissioner Murphy and J. A. Cantor, former president of the Borough of Manhattan. On March 7, the subject will be Sickness and Dependence, with Dr. G. G. Fischlowitz presiding and papers by Dr. James Alexander Miller of Bellevue and Rabbi Sidney E. Goldstein. On May 3, Dr. A. M. Alder will preside at a meeting on Delinquency and Dependence, with papers by Secretary Robert W. Hebberd of the State Board of Charities and Secretary O. F. Lewis of the New York Prison Association.

* * *

Maine Prison Legislation.—The Maine Prison Association will present to the incoming Legislature a bill embodying the principles of the Juvenile Court in a form consistent with existing statutes. The bill has been drafted at the request of the association and the Maine Conference of Charities and Corrections by George E. Fogg of Portland, after consultation with Judge Ben B. Lindsey, Bernard Flexner and Hastings H. Hart, as well as with local judges in Maine. The Maine Prison Association, now in its third year, has caused the introduction and extension of the probation system in Maine and been instrumental in numerous reforms in county jails. It is at present engaged in a campaign of education for county farms for inebriates, a state reformatory for women and a state reformatory for young men, as well as for the adoption of the indeterminate sentence.

* * *

Ireland's Death Rate Lower.—At a recent meeting of the Women's National Health Association of Ireland, the Countess of Aberdeen announced that the death rate from tuberculosis, which remained stationary during 1905, 1906 and 1907, showed a slight fall in 1908, and a still more decided decrease in 1909. According to advance figures from the registrar general, the total of deaths from all forms of tuberculosis in 1909 was 10,594, as against 11,293 in 1908, and 11,679 in 1907, a decrease in the two years of 1,085. The death rate per 1,000 in 1907 was 2.7, in 1908, 2.6 and in 1909, 2.4. The 1909 rate is the lowest recorded rate for Ireland in thirty-five years. The fact that an energetic campaign for health has been carried on in the last five years seems to account for the fall in the death rate.

Is Crime Increasing?—An investigation of the number of criminals, mental defectives, epileptics and degenerates is being conducted in Massachusetts by a commission appointed by Governor Draper. Dr. W. E. Fernald is chairman and the other members are Capt. H. M. Blackstone, Dr. Everett Flood, Gen. B. F. Bridges and Dr. E. V. Scribner, secretary. A report will be presented to the Legislature not later than January 15. The commission has collected what statistics are available and has begun an inquiry concerning the relative frequency of crime, pauperism and insanity now and twenty and forty years ago. The money appropriated by the Legislature for the investigation does not permit of extensive field work.

* * *

Anti-Cigarette League in New York.—The Anti-Cigarette League of America has recently begun work in New York with Judge Leroy B. Crane as chairman of a committee of one hundred in charge and the Rev. Manfred P. Welcher, 156 Fifth avenue, as field secretary and lecturer. The usual propaganda work will be carried on, with a "million club" pledged not to use tobacco, as the first goal. Mr. Welcher announces that new legislation will be sought later, including a state prohibitory law. The laws of 1889 made it a misdemeanor to sell or furnish tobacco to a child under 16. In 1890 a new clause was added by which the child himself is guilty of a misdemeanor if he uses tobacco in a public place.

* * *

Not Built on the Sand.—It is not without significance that the Presbyterian Church of the Sea and Land, New York, has recently completed a new church house on the site of its old Sunday school house at 61 Henry street. It means that although there may be a movement on the part of many churches away from the crowded districts of the lower East Side, this church is definitely committing itself to work there for many years to come. The building contains a gymnasium, first aid room for the use of the district nurse, a room for the cooking classes, a kindergarten room, a large assembly room for such purposes as prayer meetings, Sunday schools, lectures, sewing schools, separate club rooms for men, boys, and girls, a settlement floor for the women workers of the church, and a roof garden.

* * *

Baby Clinics in Texas.—The Woman's Charity Association of El Paso, Tex., has been successfully conducting a "baby clinic" and classes for mothers. Miss Franklin, the secretary, has done similar work with the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor in New York and has found it possible to utilize that society's methods in this southwestern community. The infant death rate was excessive, especially among the Mexicans. El Paso is near the border and has a large Mexican population who are living under most unsanitary conditions. Comparatively little interest has been taken in improving conditions among them. The visiting nurse who works with the clinic has a chance to visit the homes and instruct the mothers how to improve their general standards of living as well as how properly to care for the babies. This work has the co-operation of the city medical authorities as well as the support of the public.

* * *

Economic Prizes.—For the seventh year prizes of $1,000, $500, $300 and $200 are offered for the four best studies in the economic field on topics relating to commerce and industry. The two largest prizes are open to all contestants and the two smaller prizes to undergraduates of American colleges. The committee in charge is composed of Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin of the University of Chicago, chairman, and Professors J. B. Clark of Columbia, Henry C. Adams of Michigan, Edwin F. Gay of Harvard, and Horace White of New York. A list of the subjects and conditions—the contest closes June 1—may be secured from Professor Laughlin. The money for the prizes is furnished by Hart, Schaffner and Marx, Chicago.

* * *

Unitarians Appoint Commission on Social Reform.—The American Unitarian Association at its annual meeting last May authorized the appointment of a commission on the church and the social question. The president of the association, Rev. Dr. Samuel A. Eliot of Cambridge, has recently selected the fifteen members. The list is headed by the name of ex-Congressman Horace Davis of San Francisco, and includes among others Prof. Francis G. Peabody of Cambridge, former Mayor Thomas M. Osborne of Auburn, N. Y., president of the George Junior Republic; Judge Reuben E. Walker of Concord, N. H., of the New Hampshire Supreme Court; Rev. Grover G. Mills of Watertown, mover of the resolution under which the commission is appointed; Edwin D. Mead of Boston, Dr. John Graham Brooks of Cambridge, William H. Sayward of Dorchester, secretary of the Master Builders Association; Henry Abrahams of Boston, secretary of the Cigarmakers' Union, and Frederic Almy of Buffalo, secretary of the Charity Organization Society. Rev. Elmer S. Forbes of the department of social and public service of the association will act as secretary of the commission.

GENTLEMAN desires position in this city with some association engaged in philanthropic work or social betterment. Business experience. Also has devoted years to friendly visiting, charitable aid and similar activities. Address

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GARDEN CITY PLATTED BY RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION

The Russell Sage Foundation announced this week the early opening of a garden city, similar in design to the English types which are being copied all over Europe. It will be called Forest Hills Gardens, and will be at Forest Hills station, near Jamaica, nine miles in distance and thirteen minutes in time from the Pennsylvania Terminal at Seventh avenue and Thirty-fourth street, New York, by a new line of the Long Island Railroad through the East river tunnels. It will combine one- and two-story houses in blocks with detached houses, most attractively laid out with parking and trees, designed to meet the needs of families on moderate salaries whose homes in New York are restricted to the dreary discomfort and homeliness of the typical "flat," midway between the tenement and the higher-priced apartment.

The following outline of the Foundation's plans is taken from a statement issued by Robert W. deForest, the vice-chairman:

"Forest Hills Gardens is a business investment of the Russell Sage Foundation. It will be conducted on strictly business principles, for a fair profit. Houses will be built, sold and rented. Lots will be sold under protective restrictions intended to ensure to their owners and to adjacent owners the residential advantages of the neighborhood. In its business purpose Forest Hills Gardens does not differ materially from other Long Island real estate enterprises. It is not a charity. It will not be managed as a charity. Whoever deals with it, whether as tenant or purchaser, will be expected to pay fair value for everything received.

"Notwithstanding this emphasis on the business side of the enterprise, a distinct educational purpose exists. Not but that the Russell Sage Foundation might wisely and properly make a pure business investment of this character, but that a business investment with an educational purpose is more appropriate.

"Mrs. Russell Sage, and those whom she has associated with her in the Foundation, have been profoundly impressed with the need of better and more attractive housing facilities in the suburbs for persons of modest means, who could pay from twenty-five dollars a month upward in the purchase of a home. They have thought that homes could be supplied like those in the garden cities of England, with some greenery and flowers around them, with accessible playgrounds and recreation facilities, and at no appreciably greater cost than is now paid for the same roof-room in bare city streets. They have abhorred the constant repetition of the rectangular block in suburban localities where land contours invite other street lines. They have thought, too, that buildings of tasteful design, constructed of brick, cement or other permanent material, even though of somewhat greater initial cost, were really more economical in their durability and lesser repair bills than the repulsive, cheaply built structures which are too often the type of New York's outlying districts. They

Donahey in Cleveland *Plain Dealer*.

have hoped that people of moderate income and good taste, who appreciate sympathetic surroundings but are tied close to the city by the nature of their occupation, might find some country air and country life within striking distance of the active centers of New York.

"If these expectations can be realized at Forest Hills Gardens the Sage Foundation will accomplish several objects. It will provide more healthful and more attractive homes to many people. It will demonstrate that more tasteful surroundings and open spaces pay in suburban development, and thereby encourage imitation. It will encourage more economical methods of marketing land. It will secure an attractive income for the Foundation.

"Forest Hills Gardens is a tract of 142 acres. It has been laid out by Frederick Law Olmsted, as landscape architect. Its architectural development is in charge of Grosvenor Atterbury. Its adviser on the practical business side is William E. Harmon of Wood, Harmon and Company. Edward H. Bouton, president of the Roland Park Company of Baltimore, is its vice-president and general manager. Associated with these gentlemen on the development committee are John M. Glenn, general director of the Sage Foundation, Alfred T. White and myself, two of its trustees. Careful and comprehensive initial layout; attractive, substantial, durable building; experienced management, are the keynotes of the enterprise. No initial outlay has been spared on roads, water supply, sewers and other fundamental features which make little show above ground.

"Lots of various sizes and variously located on paved, sewered and tree-planted streets will be placed on private sale as early in 1911 as possible, on which buyers may build their own houses in harmony with the general plan of development."

CIVIC ADVANCE IN CHICAGO ELECTION

Men not only, but measures of large civic importance, were put to the test of popular approval when the ballots were cast last week in Chicago and Illinois. THE SURVEY has pointed out[1] that the struggle of citizens to purge the state Legislature of corruption invoked not only a fight against the "jackpotters" who ran as candidates, but a campaign of education in support of the three questions of public policy proposed by the Peoria conference and put to referendum vote. Other propositions submitted to referendum vote in Chicago or in Cook county involved significant steps in social betterment.

So far as legislative condidates are concerned, the election resulted in the defeat of nine men who voted for Lorimer for United States senator. These, added to the twenty-four who were beaten at the primaries and the thirty-one who did not run, constitute a large proportion of the 108 who voted for Lorimer; nevertheless three were re-elected of those named in the criminal prosecutions as participants in the bribery.

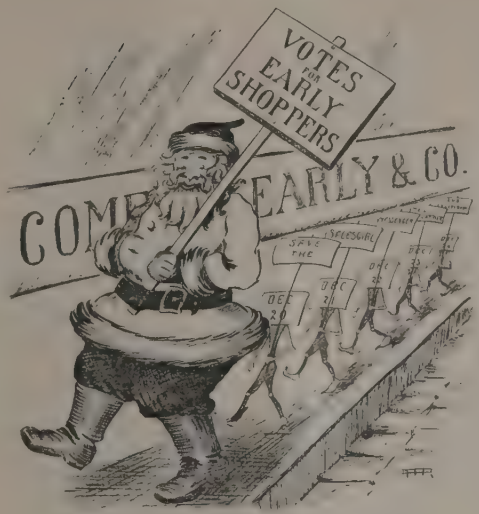
Widespread satisfaction is expressed at the sweeping victory for the three propositions urged by the committee of seven of the Peoria conference—the extension of the merit system in civil service, a corrupt practices act, and the initiative and referendum. On the basis of returns still incomplete it appears that the favorable vote was in the proportion of about four to one. The civil service reform associations of Chicago and Illinois have already started to prepare two bills, one covering the state and the other Cook county. Thirty-two state departments, offices, commissions and institutions will be affected, including all the penal institutions, the free employment offices, the factory inspection department, the Board of Health, and the park commissions. The bills dealing with corrupt practices and the initiative and referendum are also receiving careful attention.

In Cook county a bond issue of $3,000,000 was voted for the rebuilding of Cook County Hospital. This will mark an advance in the care of unfortunates not less important than the provision several years ago of an up-to-date hos-

[1] See THE SURVEY for September 3 and October 1.

pital for the county's insane and of a new infirmary for the poor which is nearing completion at the present time.

Three or four new recreation centers in Chicago were assured through the affirmative vote on the $1,000,000 bond issue proposed by the West Chicago Park Commission, which is already maintaining three recreation centers established by a previous bond issue of $1,000,000. This increase of the recreation facilities on the west side will do much to bring small parks of the type which has been developed by the South Park Commission to the section of the city which needs them most.



Drawn for THE SURVEY by A. A. Root.

The great outer parkway and forest preserve, originally proposed in the Metropolitan Park Commission report of 1904 and an important part of the Chicago Plan formulated by Daniel H. Burnham and presented to the city by the Commercial Club, was brought one step nearer realization by the election. By the overwhelming vote of 120,818 to 39,496 Cook county becomes a forest preserve district, and an official commission is created under the state law passed in 1909. The five members are to be appointed by the president of the county board for a four-year term, and no more than three of them may be of the same political party. It will have the power to issue bonds up to one per cent of the assessed valuation of property in the county, and to levy taxes up to one mill on the dollar of assessed valuation.

An injunction suit, challenging the constitutionality of the forest preserve law has been brought by "a citizen and a tax payer," who is also a saloon keeper. He contends that the law allows the authorities too much latitude. It is generally believed that his suit is merely a piece of politics. The present republican president of the Board of Cook County Commissioners, having failed of re-election, goes out of office on December 5, giving way to a democratic successor. As the president of the county board is authorized to appoint the forest preserve commissioners, it is more than likely that the real purpose of the injunction suit is to delay matters so that the appointments can be made by the incoming democratic president. In any event the constitutionality of the law will have to be tested in the courts before bonds can be sold.

In Grand Rapids, Mich., a bond issue of $200,000 for playgrounds was carried by a good majority after a vigorous campaign which involved many meetings and the enlistment of newsboys. Cincinnati voted for bonds of one million dollars for parks and playgrounds.

THE "YES" VOTE ON THE HARRIMAN PARK

The people of New York state acted favorably at the recent election upon the question submitted to them, authorizing a state appropriation of $2,500,000 for the proposed park along the Hudson and in the Highlands, and thus securing the gifts of Mrs. E. H. Harriman and of other philanthropists. While this had been expected, there is a peculiar significance in the fact that the vote was overwhelmingly favorable and no open opposition was expressed. There was a time when the proposition to expend such a vast sum of money for a public park, apparently remote, would have been laughed at and rejected, or at least would have fought its difficult way against the

opposition of those who cried "economy."

One of the strong appeals made by the successful party in the last campaign in New York state was for a more economical expenditure of money, but while the candidate was urged to state in what ways greater economy could be secured, at no time was mention made of the fact that $2,500,000 could be saved to the state by closing the park. In short, the vote was new proof that the people have reached a point where they appreciate park properties. While this special domain, royal in its nature, becomes property of the state very largely through the instrumentality of Mrs. Harriman, it foreshadows a time soon to come in the development of park interest, when the initiative for securing such property shall no longer come from private philanthropists, but entirely through the people themselves. As to whether such an interest shall be speedily awakened or not depends largely upon the use made of the park, now happily assured.

In a city the size of New York, with more than 4,000,000 people, there is a very large number of families on small salaries, fond of outdoor life, careful of their surroundings, and appreciative of opportunities for healthful enjoyment during the summer. A few of this type find their summer outing in the city park system at Pelham Bay Park, where a most successful camping colony has been located for a number of years. This group was never more appreciative than during last summer under the administration of Commissioner Higgins. Where one family secured the much coveted permit, however, a hundred were refused for lack of accommodation. Should part of the development of the huge state park be especially adapted for this class of citizens, there would be no question about its value as a social agency or of its endorsement by people at large, or of the desire for similar parks near other large cities.

It is to be noted also that the state is gradually acquiring a very considerable park area, its reservations greatly varying in size, scattered through different sections of the state. Not more than one or two further gifts or acquisitions will bring prominently before the people the necessity of forming a state park department or bureau.

It is understood that plans are already under way for developing the properties so as to give largest service to the public in Harriman Park.

NEWSBOYS ELECT THEIR OWN JUDGE

During 1909, three hundred Boston newsboys were brought before the Juvenile Court for violation of license regulations. With 4,000 other cases already on its hands the troubles of the newsboys added greatly to the burden of the court, and last June the boys themselves petitioned the School Committee to establish a Newsboys' Court to deal with all infractions against the regulations governing their trade. The School Committee ordered that the plan be put into effect, and on the very day their elders were voting for governor and congressmen the "newsies" were balloting for juvenile judges who, with the assistance of two adults, will act as a trial board for all cases of infraction of newsboy licenses. The judges elected by the boys are Harry Hornstein, Jacob Rosen and Louis Gray. With them will sit Mitchell Freiman as chief judge and Alexander J. Peckham, secretary of the Boston Newsboys' Club, which is chiefly responsible for the new board. Both of the adult judges were appointed by the School Committee.

The election by the boys will be held annually and all licensed newsboys attending the public schools are qualified electors. The board has power to investigate, make findings and recommendations to the School Committee for all violations of newsboy licenses. The supervisor of licensed minors, Philip W. Davis, can at his discretion bring complaints before this board instead of before the Juvenile Court. The police commissioner will instruct the officer now specially detailed for these offenses to co-operate so far as possible with the new trial board, which has jurisdiction over all

newsboys attending Boston public schools. The newsboy judges will receive a salary of fifty cents for each session of the court.

HEINSHEIMER BEQUEST TO NEW YORK FOUNDATION

The New York Foundation, chartered to "promote charitable, educational and philanthropic enterprises," has been endowed by Alfred M. Heinsheimer with the gift of one million dollars which reverted to him from the estate of his brother Louis when the Jewish Charities of New York failed to federate and secure it under the terms of Louis Heinsheimer's will. The board of trustees consists at the start of Morris Loeb, president; Alfred M. Heinsheimer, vice-president; Paul M. Warburg, secretary-treasurer; Jacob H. Schiff and Isaac N. Seligman.

The trustees announce that "the income can be expended for the promotion of any educational or charitable objects that commend themselves to the trustees, preferably in co-operation with established institutions, but they are not expected to extinguish deficits due to a failure of the public to supply the running expenses of societies which should properly depend upon membership dues or annual contributions. No application for appropriation will be considered by the board unless made in writing, over the signature of a responsible officer of the organization in question, and addressed to the president of the New York Foundation, 52 William street."

SETTLEMENT OF EXPRESS STRIKE

After one rejection of the terms offered them by the express companies, the New Jersey expressmen have, on a second vote, ratified the New York men's acceptance of the concessions obtained through the mediation of Mayors Gaynor and Wittpenn and Henry R. Towne, president of the Merchants' Association of New York.

The terms were, briefly, the open shop with no discrimination against union men except those who have been guilty of inciting to violence during the strike. Wages and hours are to continue as before until December 1, after which a committee of the men is to meet with a committee of the express companies and arrange a new scale of hours and pay. In case of inability to agree on terms the question will be referred to the present arbitration board, consisting of the two mayors and Mr. Towne.

STATE COMMISSION ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION

One of the last acts of Governor Hughes before leaving Albany for Washington was the appointment of an unpaid commission of twelve members to study methods of distributing population in New York state. The members are Adelbert Moot of Buffalo, chairman; V. Everit Macy, treasurer; Prof. Liberty H. Bailey, dean of the State Agricultural College; Lewis Stuyvesant Chanler of Barrytown; John Mitchell, W. N. Giles, secretary of the State Grange; Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League; Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch, head of Greenwich House; Dr. Antonio Stella, president of the Italian Immigrants' Aid Society; Cyrus L. Sulzberger, president of the United Hebrew Charities, and Rabbi Stephen S. Wise of the Free Synagogue; Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary.

The commission has held a preliminary meeting for organization. Each member has taken a subject to study and will report at the next meeting, to be held in New York on December 6, what lines of investigation will be feasible. The scope of the work is indicated by these inquiries:

Nature and permanency of employment in small towns and country districts, including seasonal trades, and the need for a state employment bureau;

Living conditions, housing accommodations, rent and ownership of homes; educational conditions in cities and country districts; length of school term; nature of instruction—especially agricultural and industrial; physical conditions of schools; recreational and social opportunities;

Standard of living in various localities;

Feasible methods of distributing factories;

Roads, transportation, and communication;

Immigration, and distribution on racial lines;

The removable influences which hold people in congested districts; sweated industries; municipal and private charities;

Foreign methods of distributing population.

Albert Sudekum, a member of the German Reichstag, who is in this country for a few months, is making a report for the commission on foreign methods of distributing population.

The report of the commission, necessarily a preliminary one, will be made to the Legislature by February 1.

HEALTH CONFERENCE FOR WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA

A Western Pennsylvania Health Conference will be held for three days, November 29 to December 1, in Soldiers' Memorial Hall, Pittsburgh. The lines along which it is conceived and the practical application as the program proceeds of the principles and methods under discussion to the conditions and needs of city and district mark it as unique among hygienic conferences. It follows the example of the successful conference on the treatment of dependent children, which was conducted in April, 1909, by the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh. The present conference is held under the same auspices but with a special promotion committee numbering about 300 persons, of which Dr. William H. Murcer is chairman and Charles F. Weller, secretary. Among the out-of-town speakers will be Dr. Richard C. Cabot of Boston, Adelaide Nutting, director of Nursing and Health, Teachers College, William H. Allen of the Bureau of Municipal Research, Dr. Charles P. Emerson of Clifton Springs Sanitarium, Dr. Samuel B. Dixon, state superintendent of public health in Pennsylvania, Dr. W. A. Evans, commissioner of health, Chicago, and Dr. Sidney E. Goldstein, formerly of the staff of Mt. Sinai Hospital, New York.

People identified with hospitals, nursing associations and public health matters in neighboring cities and states could make no better investment than to attend these meetings. But it is in its local aspects that the conference has special significance. It is a concerted effort to bring together for co-operation, for the exchange of experience and for the possible crystallization of systematic schemes of service, representatives of all the hospitals, nursing associations, dispensaries, anti-tuberculosis forces, health departments and other agencies which deal with sickness and promote health in the Pittsburgh district. This is illustrated at the very outset of the conference, for the opening session will take up the question of the hospital equipment of the greater city—such points as, what funds are necessary for the support of all the hospitals of the Pittsburgh district, what beds are now provided for the various types of cases and how these provisions compare with usual needs; what are the present operations of the ambulance service in Pittsburgh; what is the need for differentiation of hospitals as to territory covered or cases treated; what the need for conference or agreements as to rates to be charged; for what charity cases is it especially hard, or impossible, to secure care.

It will be seen that these questions, if answered in the concrete, will be bound to transfer the basis of judgment from the individual success or service of a particular hospital to the relation of that service to the needs of the whole community. Other sessions will take up the dispensaries, the development of social service in connection with hospitals and health agencies, the relation between the work of specialized nurses and visiting district nurses, infant mortality and children's health agencies, the investigation and after-care of charity cases, and the education of the community in public health matters. When it is remembered that in the past there has been no effective co-operation between the hospitals of Pittsburgh, no co-ordination of visiting nurse work, no systematic mapping out of the ambulance service of the city, the constructive elements in the mere formulation of such a conference program, in which the health and hospital forces of the district are seen to be co-operating heartily, are plain.

HOSPITAL CO-OPERATION, EFFICIENCY, FINANCE

Moreover, the questions raised by this Pittsburgh Health Conference are questions which apply to every city in the country. As put forward on the program, they are so specific and pertinent that two series of them may well be published here—the session on Hospital Co-operation and that on Efficiency and Finance. Each theme is to be presented in a formal paper to be followed by a general discussion of each of the sub-topics.

General subject: Hospital Co-operation.

Theme: To what Extent is it Desirable and Practicable to Develop Means and Habits of Co-operation Between the Hospitals in the Purchase of Supplies, Relations with Employes, Admission of Charity Cases, Publication of Needs Encountered and Work Accomplished, and in the Holding of Conferences as to Common Problems?

Address:

Would it be Advisable to Develop Some Central Purchasing Agency for the Buying of Hospital Supplies or the Securing of Bids?

Could Common Agreements be Developed as to Standards of Efficiency to be Observed and Compensation Paid to Employed Workers?

Should it be Possible to Learn Through a Central Agency at Any Time what Beds are Available, Where, for What Classes of Cases?

Should Joint Methods of Publicity be Developed to Help in Securing Adequate Public Interest and Support for all Needed Health Agencies and to Publish the Social Lessons Learned or Social Needs Observed?

Should Conferences be Held in which Representatives will Discuss (Without Any Formal Action Binding upon the Constituent Health Agencies) Difficulties, Problems and Successes Which Should Concern All?

Should Charity Cases be Confidentially Registered with a Central Office Through Which Information Essential to the Patients' Welfare May be Exchanged ?

General Subject: Efficiency and Finance.

Theme: By What Standards or Tests Should the Work of Hospitals, Dispensaries and Nursing Agencies be Measured?

To What Extent and Under what Supervision should Financial Support be Provided from Public Funds?

Discussion:

Should the State Board of Charities or Some Other Agency Learn, Record and Publish the Essential Facts Concerning the Work of Hospitals and Other Health Agencies?

To What Extent and in What Way Should Public Supervision Accompany the Gift of Public Funds to Hospitals and Health Agencies?

Should State, County or City Appropriations for the Current Expenses of Privately Managed Hospitals and Agencies be Paid for Per Capita Care or Other Measured Service?

To What Extent and in What Way Should Public Authorities Determine the Admission of Cases to be Cared for at Public Expense?

How Should the Diverting of Funds to Unnecessary or Incompetent Health Agencies be Prevented?

How Should Adequate Financial Support be Secured for the Essential Hospitals and Health Agencies?

Milk and Ice Association.

Hospital Wards for Children.

Obstetrical Conditions and Their Improvement.

Sex Education and Hygiene.

The Prevention of Blindness.

PUT RESPONSIBILITY ON THE RIGHT SHOULDERS

LILLIAN D. WALD
Henry Street, (The Nurses) Settlement, New York

Out of the discussion that recently centered about Mr. Straus's determination to close his milk stations in New York has come a great deal of education. Many people, for the first time, have become aware of the significance of clean milk for babies.

The subject of milk supply has been brought into the open, and a very much needed discussion of the question of the life and health of the babies of the poor in the city, has focused attention upon a basic principle—namely, the fixing of responsibility for infant mortality.

The budget appropriation of $40,000 to the Department of Health (in excess of the regular appropriation) for the purpose of establishing fifteen infant milk depots, with equipment and machinery for distribution, nurses and physicians for instruction and supervision, is an im-

portant step, and at last begins to meet the question of where the responsibility belongs.

The city owes a great debt to the good people who have brought this question to the front, and there is now a conviction on the part of many that in the light of full knowledge, there is no justification in the willingness of the community as such to permit individuals to assume longer the responsibility for its infants' milk supply and logically, therefore, for its infant mortality. Indeed there is a grave ethical question involved and the city, in making its appropriation, has taken its proper and dignified position. This is the beneficent result of the milk agitation which began in the unfortunate and wholly unjustifiable criticism to which Nathan Straus had been exposed. Through his milk stations, the New York Milk Committee and the Diet-Kitchen depots, almost 5,000 quarts a day are distributed; and its demonstrated usefulness has been given wide attention by the discussion.

Commissioner Lederle of the Department of Health has not yet completed his arrangements for the municipal milk stations, but his plan is said to be to place the stations in the various boroughs of the city of New York and to permit under his guarantee the sale of milk suitable for babies. Numerous private individuals are said to stand ready to supply the 1,500 quarts which could be used by the new stations under the administration of the Department of Health. Whether this milk comes at first through the efforts of altruistic private individuals or from the dealers in milk, the first important step has thus been taken to fix the responsibility where it properly belongs—namely, upon the city. Whether these sources of milk will prove permanently satisfactory or not, need not now concern the public. The policy has been established of holding the city responsible for the quality of the milk which its babies drink, and if it should follow that neither the altruistic private individual nor the honorable milk dealer can permanently or adequately meet this need, the city may have to produce its own milk as it now produces its vaccine and its anti-toxin.

The city has long since held its Department of Health responsible for providing clean water that its citizens may be guaranteed against typhoid and diseases traceable to an impure supply. Infant mortality, through diarrhoeal diseases, can be as definitely controlled by guaranteeing the milk supply, as typhoid fever mortality can be diminished or eliminated through pure drinking water.

In conjunction with the bureau of child hygiene of the Health Department, the distribution of milk in these stations can be perfected. Whether the milk sold in the municipal milk stations is provided by private individuals or business concerns, it must be supplemented by instruction and supervision in the homes and preferably by the city's representatives.

At one milk station in New York where the milk is known to be pure, one nurse took care of 240 babies under two years of age from January 1 to November 1, 1910, teaching the modification or the pasteurization in the homes according to the individual formula prescribed by the physician for each child. Once a week the mothers and babies have been in conference with the physicians at the settlement which has charge of this dispensary. Though those who received the milk were the undernourished, the underweight, and the marasmus infants, there were only two deaths from diarrhoeal diseases in ten months.

The city of New York will learn that it is less expensive to save the babies than to let them die. Such has been the experience in Rochester, at Copenhagen and the various communities in Europe and America which have carried out a responsible policy concerning their infants' milk supply.

November 26, 1910.

RECENT CONFERENCES

SAVING THE BABIES

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

Out of a maelstrom of enthusiasm and erudition, the first annual meeting of the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality issued with a largely increased membership and a fairly definite program for the work of the coming year. I doubt whether many delegates to the meeting perceived the dim evolution of that program through the rushing succession of papers that, session after session, left even the most eager spirits dazed and exhausted. With the refreshing exception of Hastings H. Hart's section on philanthropic prevention of infant mortality — which Dr. Hart wisely limited to two papers in addition to the chairman's address, with the delightful result that the speakers presented their subjects without nervousness, and the discussion from the floor was animated and effective—the programs were seriously overcrowded, and therefore, in spite of their intrinsic excellence, confusing rather than constructively helpful. There was, nevertheless, a central drift to the meeting, which took permanent form in a body of five resolutions, to the execution of which the association will direct its energies during the coming year.

The first of these deals with the establishment of a national department of health. In the opening session Prof. Irving Fisher described the sinister commercial influences that are hypocritically hampering the establishment of the national department under the pretense of safeguarding "medical freedom," and showed how such a branch of the federal government might become a supremely efficient instrument in the promotion of all those matters of public hygiene and legal enactment upon which the reduction of infant mortality depends. The association went unanimously on record as "endorsing the movement for a national department of health, in the belief that the establishment of such a department will lead to great reduction in infant mortality, not only through improved regulation of interstate commerce in milk, infant foods, and medicines, but also through wider dissemination of information upon the causes of infant mortality and their prevention."

The second resolution was inspired by Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur's admirable report of the committee on birth registration. The Bureau of the Census at Washington, of which Dr. Wilbur is chief statistician, displayed exemplary interest in the work of the association by having ready for distribution Bulletin 108, embracing the infant mortality statistics for 1909, the precise subject and matter of the committee's report. This bulletin reveals the gross deficiencies in our American methods of registering births and deaths, and makes it clear that without a comprehensive and scientific system of "human bookkeeping" our efforts to locate and attack the causes of infant mortality must remain scattered and abortive. Dr. Wilbur cited the Pennsylvania law and its enforcement by the Pennsylvania authorities as worthy of emulation, declaring at the same time that the system of registration in Baltimore was probably the worst in the civilized world—with those of Chicago, St. Louis, New Orleans and most other American cities close seconds in the unenviable competition. The association pledged itself to the promotion of the "model law for the registration of births and deaths as recommended by the American Medical Association, the American Public Health Association, and the United States Bureau of the Census, and the enforcement of registration laws by the officials charged with their execution, and the prosecution of physicians and midwives who neglect their duty to their clients and to the public health by neglecting to register births as required by law."

In this connection it should be remarked that the medical men attending the meeting, whose judgment was voiced by Dr. William H. Welch, president of the American Medical Association, were

unanimous in declaring that the midwife must be recognized as an established American institution, and that the traditional folly of ignoring her presence and failing to provide for her suitable education and supervision must be made an end of. This vigorous action was provoked principally by the interesting report of Carolyn C. Van Blarcom, of the committee on the prevention of blindness of the New York Association for the Blind, revealing the extent to which the delivery of children is in the hands of midwives not only in our cities, but also in the rural districts, and showing the dire consequences of our characteristic American shiftlessness in this matter. To formulate a definite policy upon the subject of midwifery, the association created a special committee, with power to act during the coming year and with instructions to report upon its work next November.

The third resolution, like the first two, looks to the co-operation of a federal department. It is addressed to the secretary of agriculture, upon whom it urges the establishment of official standards for milk "branded as certified, inspected, or pasteurized" and the enforcement of such standards in interstate commerce.

The two remaining resolutions incorporated the gist of much that was most illuminating in the discussions of the association. Thanks chiefly to the women who addressed the convention, the subject of sex instruction in the public schools and in normal schools and colleges received due consideration. The central theme of the convention was the need of safeguarding mothers from economic and industrial pressure, and of instructing them in the principles of healthy parenthood. What the public schools can contribute to this end was exhilaratingly suggested by Prof. Jessie Phelps of the department of biology in the Michigan State Normal College. Her paper was typical of the entire discussion, and accordingly I am going to quote briefly from my notes upon it:

> How is the Michigan State Normal College fitting its students to establish, through the public schools, better practices in hygiene and sanitation and higher ideals of parenthood?

Our student body, like that of most colleges, and normal schools, comes to us unaware of the existence even of the problems of parenthood, infant mortality and health conservation.

To enlighten them we have established three regular courses, one on infant diet, another on general hygiene, and a third on special physiology for women. We give sex instruction a broad scientific basis; we give it a biological and evolutionary setting; we make it natural. Such topics as masturbation, prostitution, syphilis and gonorrhea are handled briefly but frankly. Courtship, marriage, home-keeping, dress, women's work, the rights of children, and methods of instructing children in the fundamentals of sex life are considered. It goes without saying that all this work is presented without excuse or apology. We believe that if a child is early and correctly taught, he is much less likely than otherwise to fall into wrong practices. The old method of letting a child alone in his life explorations usually results in his finding, and that right early, only the distorted and untrue concerning matters of sex. Toward the close of the course in special physiology, a few round-table discussions are held, in which the young women eagerly take part, relating what they have seen in the classroom among the children, how they themselves were instructed in matters of sex, what they consider the proper attitude of lovers, married people, parents, children. As much time as possible is given to private personal conferences.

Two hundred and fifty-one students have elected these courses, and nearly all are teaching. Many write me of what they are doing to instruct mothers and children. Some have established parents' meetings, and all from whom I have heard—some hundred—say that they are glad of their training in sex physiology; that they find constant use for it in school and society; that it has made for better personal hygiene and saner social relations. They declare that they are better guardians of children than they could have been without it.

The resolutions following upon this discussion were as follows: That the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality urges (I) "Boards licensing teachers for public schools to give as detailed tests in elementary hygiene, sanitation and biology as are given in mathematics or in language," and (II) "State boards of education, together with state boards of health to provide, in the rural schools, for conferences of mothers, and for home instruction, in connection with these conferences, of mothers and expectant mothers in maternal and infant hygiene."

The association will hold its second annual meeting in Chicago under the presidency of Prof. Charles Richmond Henderson of the University of Chicago. Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur of the United States Bureau of the Census is president-elect for the year 1911-1912. The third annual meeting will probably be held in Cleveland.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

MEYER BLOOMFIELD

Two conventions held in Boston during the week past were of more than passing interest. The first National Conference on Vocational Guidance, called by the Boston Chamber of Commerce and the Vocation Bureau of Boston, opened its two days' sessions November 15 with nearly three hundred people crowding the room, and with delegates from thirty-five cities.

President Bernard J. Rothwell of the chamber told the company of the business man's interest in the conservation of youth's energies by expert vocational counselling at the critical period before boys and girls leave school for work.

Prof. Paul H. Hanus, head of the department of education in Harvard, outlined the foundations on which proper vocational guidance must rest. "This movement", he said, "has nothing to do with phrenology or psychology, but deals with its problems in a practical, common sense way. One large aim in vocational guidance, he pointed out, is to develop the methods and material by which the public schools may help fit their individual graduates for the work they are likely to do, and in this effort to use all the spiritual, economic, educational and other agencies which may co-operate to bring about the fullest information and the best suggestions. He warned against "prescribing" vocations, and the curtailing of the child's privilege to enjoy the most liberal opportunities for growth and happiness that the schools can provide. Nevertheless it has become necessary to face the future problems of thousands of boys and girls who must leave school at fourteen, and the time has come for the establishment of a service that would help parent, teacher, and child in wisely planning for a life work, and for making demands upon commerce and industry in the direction of a better investment of youth's powers in the field of wage-earning.

Mayor John F. Fitzgerald spoke on the need of making education definite enough to inspire an interest in efficient life work, "not merely for the few who go to high school or college, but for the vast majority whose school life ends and whose working life begins at fourteen or fifteen."

President Emeritus Eliot's address was on the adjustment needed in the common school education to stimulate the life career motive.

> School life should enable the boy to say, "I can." In the higher institutions of learning where formerly students listened to lectures by the hour, doing nothing, they now spend their time in laboratory work. So the elements of many trades should be brought into the elementary schools—not to train for a particular calling, but to train and develop the mind in a broader sense. This will cost a great deal of money, for no education is so cheap as book education. Get the children to work because of their interest in work. The old idea that all that children got out of work was discipline is, I am happy to say, passing away. Vocational guidance must be developed on a large scale. It is not new. Benjamin Franklin's father took him around to the different industries of Boston and asked him what he liked best. He chose the printer's trade at the age of eleven—a fortunate thing for him and others. Something of this kind must be done in this plan of vocational guidance.

At the evening session Felix Adler, Charles Zueblin, and the director of the Vocation Bureau explained the significance of vocational guidance, and its ethical and economic implications. Dr. Adler said:

> The whole of life is vocational training. There is not a single culture study that you could not teach with art as an incentive. The whole system of our education will be changed for the better if this vocational motive takes root. Whenever a pupil shows a particular aptitude in one direction he should be given every opportunity to work along that line.

The addresses next day, by Prof. Chas. R. Richards, Samuel McCune Lindsay, F. P. Fish, Robert A. Woods, E. W.

Weaver of the Brooklyn High School for Boys, Supt. Stratton D. Brooks of the Boston schools, David Snedden, Florence Marshall, William Pear and others, added important contributions to the principles and practical steps in vocational guidance. A large audience was present at every session. Suggestions for a further conference and organization were made and the discussion of methods which arose received valuable assistance from Alice P. Barrows of the Russell Sage Foundation committee on women's work, Elsie Cole of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, Paul Abelson and Henry Moskowitz of New York, and Jesse B. Davis of Grand Rapids. The closing address of Pres. Richard C. Maclaurin of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology at the final session fittingly confirmed the social vision, the educational insight, and the practical suggestions of the address with which Professor Hanus opened the conference. Said Dr. Maclaurin:

> Vocational guidance, as I see it, is to be of inestimable value because it will disclose what we need in vocational schools. It should drive out the undesirable in industry just as we drive out the undesirable citizen. We must make modern industry a part of the liberal education so as to give it a basis for vocational choice. Vocational guidance will react on all our educational systems, the industrial quite as much as the non-industrial.

The fourth annual convention of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education was opened November 17 by the president, Charles R. Richards of Cooper Union, New York, with a paper on the growth of the industrial education movement and the significant demand now made upon the society for practical suggestions as to the best organization of this needed education. The first day's discussion was on the training of girls for stores and the trades, and the training of teachers for girls' schools. A summary of the papers read by Susan Kingsbury of Simmons College, David Edwards of the Chamber of Commerce, formerly the educational director of William Filene and Sons; Lucinda Prince of the Union School for Salesmanship, Edith M. Howes of the Girls' Trade Education League, Mary S. Woolman, and Florence Marshall, would do injustice to the closely reasoned and thoroughly practical contents of these valuable contributions. The national society will later publish them in full, and they will doubtless become a guide to those who are promoting the trade education of women.

The evening banquet at the Hotel Somerset was attended by more than four hundred men and women. Ex-Governor Curtis Guild, Jr., was toastmaster, and in addition to the notable list of speakers, including Pres. F. A. Delano of the Wabash Railroad, Acting-governor Louis A. Frothingham, Governor-elect Eugene N. Foss, C. H. Winslow, official delegate from the American Federation of Labor; F. P. Fish and the mayor of Boston, there were seated at the guest table George Kerschensteiner of Munich, ex-Comptroller Herman Metz of New York, Henry M. Leipziger, Prof. Paul H. Hanus, A. Lincoln Filene and Professor Richards. The keynote of all the dinner speeches was that the emphasis was laid on the boy to be trained quite as much as on the industry to be served by a system of industrial education. The Friday sessions of the convention were given over to papers on types of apprenticeship schools in large industrial corporations, the methods of training assistants and mechanics for railroad and similar enterprises, and the co-operative plans between the high schools of various cities and the leading industries of those cities by which boys can "earn and learn" at the same time, receiving a practical training in part-time shop work, and the necessary theoretical foundations in part-time school instruction.

On Friday evening Dr. Kerschensteiner spoke to a large audience on the Munich system of continuation schools. A city, the size almost of "proper Boston," as Dr. Kerschensteiner put it, was spending $400,000 annually to fit boys and girls for larger efficiency in the work by which they were earning their livelihood.

> The final aim of all schools maintained from public sources is to educate the pupil so that

he shall become a useful citizen, who by his own work directly and indirectly contributes to the attainment of the objects of the state. These objects are to regulate civic relations according to equity and justice and to afford to all citizens the possibilities of an active life in realizing ideals of moral value. The schools for the majority of citizens cease their work precisely where education through and in a particular trade begins, and therefore cannot promote trade efficiency and love of one's own profession in any way. Moral education is impossible where trade efficiency and love of work are absent.

Dr. Kerschensteiner's civic conception of industrial education was remarkably re-enforced by the addresses at the closing session on Saturday morning, when James P. Munroe, executive director of Boston-1915, Prof. Thomas Carver of Harvard, Elizabeth B. Butler of New York, and Howell Cheney, a prominent manufacturer from Connecticut, spoke on the Social Significance of Industrial Education.

Very properly, at the annual election of officers held by the national society, James P. Munroe was elected president for the ensuing year. His election is consistent with the tenor of the discussions throughout the sessions of the convention. From the opening remark by Professor Richards to the inspired and inspiring address of Mr. Cheney, a realization was present that industrial education would prosper best where the community needs and the social interests of the workers were included in the plan for securing more industrial efficiency. High-minded employers have joined hands with the educator, the social worker, and the representative of organized labor, in giving vocational training a social horizon. The two vocational conventions just closed have done much to clear misconceptions, from which no group has been wholly free, and to point out the way for future co-operation and development. The movements for vocational guidance and industrial education promise well, not because these enterprises are based on necessary individual service, but mainly because they are at one with the social philosophy of our day, which regards preventive work and social conservation the supreme duty of the enlightened citizen.

NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE

ARTHUR W. TOWNE
ALBANY

The value of a state conference of charities was never better demonstrated than by the eleventh New York conference which met in Rochester last week. The attendance was good, the topics timely, the papers and discussions earnest, suggestive and full of encouragement. Education, prevention and thoroughness were the watchwords.

At the opening session George A. Lewis of Buffalo, the president, made a thoughtful and inspiring address on recent progress and the outlook for social work in the state. He sketched the wide range of movements in which the conference from year to year has been interested, referring, among others, to the development of state institutions for defectives, the necessity of public playgrounds, the boy scout movement, and the benefits promised through the formation of societies for sanitary and moral prophylaxis.

In speaking of the campaign against tuberculosis, Mr. Lewis declared that "victory all along the line, and the end of the struggle within twenty years, seem a measurably safe prediction." He praised the improvements in the humane and rational treatment of convicts in state prisons, citing the better sanitation of prisons, the abolition of stripes and the lockstep, and various other reforms. He commended the great progress made in training juvenile delinquents committed to the institutions at Hudson and Industry and said that in our attitude toward the delinquent child we have accomplished "some of the most radical and efficient reforms realized in any group of subjects in the past decade. The public has awakened to the fact that saving and sheltering of child life is the salvation and preservation of society."

While all of the sessions were well attended and characterized by keen interest, the two meetings probably to be remembered longest were those on congestion of population and on the social evil.

The report of the committee on sanitary and moral prophylaxis, of which Dr. W. M. Polk, dean of Cornell Medical College, was chairman, was reserved for the last evening. Dr. F. W. Sears of Syracuse declared it inconsistent to placard a house in which there is a case of German measles, and to refuse practically to do anything to protect the public from the ravages of syphilis and gonorrhea. It is wrong, he said, for the public to disregard debauchery among men, since it is such a prolific cause of suffering among innocent women and children. He urged that physicians endeavor to prevent young men who have venereal disease from marrying. The principal weapon he would use against the black plague, however, is education, and he would make the attack first of all through the home. The spirit of chivalry toward the other sex should be inculcated on boys. Dr. Sears also severely arraigned the practice of abortion, which according to his estimate occurs in two or three out of every ten pregnancies. This not only weakens the moral sense of women and produces invalidism, but causes about 6,000 deaths in the United States annually. Dr. T. H. Halstead, also of Syracuse, went a step further by advocating that physicians be required to report cases of venereal diseases to the public health authorities for registration. This would facilitate surveillance over those having these diseases, would secure valuable statistics, and the knowledge that venereal diseases are reportable would act as a strong deterrent, he said. The great majority of the victims of these diseases could have no just grounds for objecting to registration, for, as a rule, they contract the diseases through debauchery. Dr. Halstead advocated also that persons applying for a marriage license be required to present a certificate showing their freedom from venereal disease.

Mgr. William J. White of Brooklyn and the Rev. A. M. O'Neill of Rochester spoke on the moral and social aspects of the black plague, aud urged that the church unite with the medical profession and laymen in a systematic, persistent campaign against prostitution. The former suggested short illustrated talks in factories during the noon hour, and pointed out, as did Dr. Polk, that overcrowding in tenement houses encourages this evil. Section 79 of the Page law, which provides for the medical inspection of convicted prostitutes, was defended by Robert W. Hebberd and Lawrence Veiller. Attention was called by the former to the fact that the number of beds set apart for cases of venereal diseases in the hospitals of New York city is inadequate.

On Wednesday evening the report of the committee and the papers on congestion of population provoked a lively discussion. Mrs. V. G. Simkhovitch, chairman of the committee, discussed the evils of congestion and the difficulty of relieving them. Cities and communities which do not yet have this problem to deal with should adopt proper preventive measures, she said. Following the report of the committee, Secretary Hebberd of the State Board of Charities read a paper on the work of the State Commission on Distribution of Population, in which he advocated improving the social conditions in rural communities as an inducement to families to remove from crowded city tenements in the city to rural places. Both Mr. Hebberd and Benjamin C. Marsh discussed the subject in its relation to land values and taxation, and recommended that New York be divided into zones, with appropriate restrictions concerning building in each zone.

Mrs. Florence Kelley directed her attack upon sweatshops and the existence of extensive charitable institutions in New York. She showed that the existence of sweatshops in crowded portions of the city encourages those working for the sweatshop to live in its immediate vicinity in order to save carfare and time, and that this results in overcrowding. She pointed out that many of the charitable institutions in New York occupy extensive tracts of valuable land which is needed for housing and other purposes. Her recommendations were the removal of factories and charitable institutions to places outside New York.

The positions taken by these speakers

were vigorously challenged by Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the National Housing Association, who thought that the evils under discussion were due not so much to having large numbers of people dwelling in a given area, as to improper planning and construction of the tenements and to the racial habits of the people. He argued that the previous speakers had not properly defined what congestion is, for there is a wide difference between acreage congestion and room congestion. He doubted the efficacy of removing factories and charitable institutions, and of trying to distribute population, because the people tend to follow the factory. John Martin made the closing address on the relations between congestion and rapid transit and summed up the evening's discussion.

In the session devoted to public institutions and public co-operation, Prof. Frank A. Fetter of the State Board of Charities explained why the almshouse lags behind in the forward march of our charitable institutions. The almshouse, he said, is "the black sheep in the philanthropic flock." The two principal explanations advanced were that the almshouse is not sufficiently specialized as to classification of inmates, and that it is conducted by the county, which is itself unprogressive. Among the measures suggested for improving conditions were:

> Extension of civil service rules to all counties; appointment of superintendents of the poor instead of their election; centralizing responsibility upon a single superintendent of the poor in each county; continued development of state care for defective classes; changing almshouses into hospitals and homes for the aged; replacing county almshouses by state district institutions; development of a system of state social insurance for the working classes to cover sickness, accident, invalidism and old age.

Dr. Sidney E. Goldstein, speaking on social service in hospitals, pointed out that the patients are more than "cases," and that they need friendly sympathy. The Social Side of Psychiatry was presented by Dr. August Hoch, who called special attention to the need of discovering and treating mental disorders in their early stages.

At the meeting given over to the care and relief of the poor, Anna B. Fox of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, presented a strong plea for bringing about co-operation among charitable societies and other agencies in maintaining local registration bureaus, where confidential information may be kept concerning local dependents, delinquents and defectives. At the same session Francis H. McLean and John A. Kingsbury spoke on the dangers and difficulties of the home treatment of tuberculosis, and Mary Breed of Albany read a paper on the different methods that should be employed in the charitable treatment of widows and deserted wives. The last paper was discussed by Roy S. Wallace of Philadelphia.

The problem of widowhood was also dealt with at the session on children, when Mrs. William Einstein of New York strongly championed public pensions for widows with small children. Mrs. Einstein's paper, which aroused vigorous debate, contended that the widow may justly demand relief from the state as a civil right, for she has rendered service to the state by becoming a mother and she continues to render a social service by caring for her children. It is better to board-in children with their mothers than to board-out children with their foster mothers. Such relief, however, should be given not as charity, but, as is done in certain other countries, in the form of scholarships for the children. Frederic Almy, dissenting from this theory, claimed that pensions should be given from private funds, and urged that the relief be accompanied by a plan of treatment adjusted to the individual needs, and by friendly visiting.

Edmond J. Butler, for the committee on the care of children, made an appeal for preserving home life intact, even should this entail greater expense than would be incurred by supporting the dependent child in an institution. When a child must be removed to an institution, his surroundings should be as similar as possible to those of a normal home. Dr. Charles F. McKenna took the press severely to task for endangering the morals of children by publishing exciting and suggestive accounts of vice and crime.

Homer Folks pointed out the value of the juvenile court as a laboratory for studying juvenile delinquency.

Thursday morning was spent in considering, under the head of public health, the problems of preventing blindness and dealing scientifically and humanely with drunkenness. Dr. Winfred H. Smith, superintendent of the Department of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, chairman of the committee, pointed out the duty of public hospitals to provide proper treatment for drunkards, and recommended the establishment of farm colonies for chronic cases. Dr. Menas S. Gregory of Bellevue read an able paper on Alcoholism as a Disease. This paper, which was discussed by Bailey B. Burritt, concluded as follows:

> The masses should be educated to the fact that inebriety is not a simple habit or depravity. It is essentially a disease—a disease of the mind; that the restricted sale of alcohol, the most deadly enemy of human mind and body, the most fruitful source of misery and poverty, is not an encroachment on personal liberty; that the so-called common drinker, although not a diseased alcoholic, nevertheless is gradually impairing his working capacity, lowering his resistance to disease and hastening the onset of premature old age.
>
> There is no disease that will so amply repay a large expenditure of money in the beginning. While the money spent in our charitable institutions for the mentally diseased, the weak-minded, the epileptic and the wayward, not to say the criminal, is well spent, yet I venture to say that if one-half were spent in the treatment of alcoholics and in preventive measures by enlightened methods, the necessity for the treatment of the insane, the epileptic, the imbecile and the criminal would be reduced to a minimum.

Samuel E. Elliott, secretary of the committee on blindness of the Russell Sage Foundation, spoke of the necessity for public education and co-operation among social workers in preventing blindness. Carolyn C. Van Blarcom showed the origin of infantile blindness in the germ of ophthalmia neonatorum, and stated that from forty to seventy-five per cent of all such cases are where the births are attended by midwives. She urged that the practice of midwives be surrounded with proper regulations to ensure cleanliness.

Resolutions were adopted by the conference calling for the appointment of three special committees—one to urge upon the governor and the Legislature the establishment of farm colonies for vagrants; one to urge that the state take over the control of county jails and penitentiaries; and another to urge appropriations for the completion of Letchworth Village and the New York State Training School for Boys.

The exhibits contained a number of interesting features and attracted the usual inspection. The Rochester State Hospital had an exhibit of special interest, as did also the Polish Survey of Buffalo. The Rochester citizens showed their accustomed hospitality, and arranged a very enjoyable reception at the Hotel Seneca on the opening evening.

The next conference will be held at Watertown, November 14-16, 1911, unless the executive committee finds it desirable to change the date. The next president is the Rev. Dr. Max Landsberg of Rochester, and the vice-presidents are Stanley Hunting of Watertown, Alexander J. McKinny of Brooklyn, and Mrs. Milo M. Acker of Hornell. Frank E. Wade of Buffalo was unable to accept another term as secretary and was succeeded by John A. Kingsbury of New York. Frank Tucker is continued as treasurer. The committees and their chairmen for the next conference are as follows: Housing, Lawrence Veiller, New York; public institutions, Rev. William J. White, Brooklyn; public health, Dr. George W. Goler, Rochester; child labor, Mrs. Florence Kelley, New York; care and relief of the poor in their homes, Anna B. Pratt, Elmira; care of children, Dr. Ludwig B. Bernstein, New York; exhibits, Richard Wallace, Albany.

PROBATION CONFERENCE AT ROCHESTER

The third annual State Conference of Probation Officers, held at Rochester on Tuesday and Wednesday of last week under the auspices of the State Probation Commission, was marked by a record attendance of a little over one hundred

persons. It was a real conference. Practically all the time was given to informal discussion in which more than half of those present participated.

President Homer Folks of the State Commission sounded in his opening remarks what proved to be the dominant note—the importance of carefully studying each case and of exercising a nicety of judgment and firmness of execution which will enable the work of the probation officers to stand the test of cold analysis. County Judge John B. M. Stephens of Monroe county, who welcomed the delegates to Rochester, emphasized that the position of probation officer is not a job, but a ministry.

The most animated discussions related to the methods of securing employment for adult probationers; the importance of using every means in cases of violation of the probationary conditions, by either children or adults, to avoid the necessity of returning delinquents to court; the value of medical and mental examinations of juvenile defendants, and the desirability of keeping the names of children brought to court from being published in the newspapers. County Probation Officer Edwin J. Cooley of Erie county, who opened the discussion of the first of these topics, provoked a division of opinion as to whether probation officers should inform prospective employers that probationers, recommended by probation officers for positions, are on probation. The consensus of opinion was that probation officers should exercise caution and discretion lest they unduly jeopardize the welfare of the probationers.

Anne V. Roome, probation officer in the Brooklyn Domestic Relations Court, and Minnie S. Fisher, a volunteer probation officer in the Syracuse Children's Court, pointed out that probation officers, as a rule, should not return probationers to court for minor violations of the probationary conditions, but first should endeavor to deal with them as effectively as possible through other means. Discussions concerning preliminary investigations and the improvement of home conditions were led by Probation Officers Frederick W. Pfeiffer of the Buffalo Children's Court, Richard A. Wallace of the Auburn Recorder's Court, and William A. Killip of the Rochester Children's Court.

Beside probation officers and representatives of probation associations, representatives of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children and of the Big Brothers Movement were present. Rufus De L. Putney, secretary of the Big Brothers Movement of New York City, told of the work of that organization. The next conference will probably be held at Watertown in November, 1911. The State Probation Commission expects to publish the proceedings of the Rochester conference.

BOSTON CIVIC ADVANCE CAMPAIGN

Not since the Chapman religious revivals of 1909 has the entire metropolitan district of Boston been addressed as it has through the Civic Advance Campaign of Boston-1915 which opened with a conference of New England mayors and city officials.

The purpose of the campaign, to enlist the services of Greater Boston in municipal advance, stands in strong contrast to the political campaign which came to a close only two days before the mayors' conference. New England, and particularly Massachusetts, had been engaged in a bitter partisan struggle which involved the tariff, reciprocity with Canada, the high cost of living and a hundred other issues that sharply marked party lines. Fresh from this political struggle, forty mayors and city officials representing every state and every political party in New England, met and discussed—not Foss nor Lodge nor the chances of another election — but the city's inspection of its milk supply and old age pensions. The delegates met in the aldermanic chamber of the City Hall under the chairmanship of Mayor Fitzgerald. Dr. Thomas F. Maloney of Fall River and Prof. William T. Sedgwick of Massachusetts Institute of Technology spoke on milk inspection, and Prof. F.

Spencer Baldwin and H. LaRue Brown discussed old age pensions.

At other sessions, Dr. Richard C. Cabot spoke on Common Colds and Preventable Illness; Edward F. McSweeney on Tuberculosis; Dr. M. G. Overlock on the Worcester Manufacturers' Movement; Dr. Charles W. Eliot on Sex Diseases; George B. Ford on The Influence of City Planning upon the City Budget; Mayor James Logan of Worcester on the Public Service Corporation and the City, and George A. McAneny, president of the Borough of Manhattan, on Giving the Taxpayer his Money's Worth.

At the final session a permanent organization of New England mayors was effected to meet annually and discuss the problems of New England city administration. Mayor Fitzgerald of Boston was elected president and representatives from each of the New England states were appointed to frame a constitution. This New England organization of mayors is the second of its kind in the United States, the first being formed last spring at Schenectady by the mayors of second class cities of New York state.

The mayors attended the first performance of the dramatic civic pageant, picturesquely christened Cave Life to City Life, which packed the Boston Arena at each of four performances.[1]

After the mayors had adjourned, the Civic Advance Campaign continued in a series of civic rallies throughout the metropolitan district. Meetings in thirty of the towns surrounding Boston, were addressed by leaders in social and civic work from Boston and other cities of the country. Among those from outside the city were: Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League; Henry B. F. Macfarland, ex-commissioner of the District of Columbia; Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee; Paul U. Kellogg of THE SURVEY; George E. Johnson, superintendent of the Playground Association of Pittsburgh; Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League; Herman A. Metz, ex-comptroller of New York, and Prof. Henry C. Suzzallo of Columbia University.

There were still other meetings. The young people's religious organizations of Greater Boston discussed Opportunities for Young People's Work in Civic Righteousness with addresses by the Rev. O. P. Gifford, the Rev. Samuel McChord Crothers, Guy A. Ham and Dr. C. A. Vincent. The Oath of Loyalty taken by the young citizens of Athens was explained and administered by Judge Robert F. Raymond as follows:

> We will never bring disgrace to this, our city, by any act of dishonesty or cowardice, nor ever desert our suffering comrades in the ranks.
>
> We will fight for the ideals and sacred things of the city, both singly and together. We will revere and obey the city's laws and do our best to incite a like respect and reverence in those above us who are prone to annul them or set them at naught.
>
> We will strive unceasingly to quicken the public's sense of civic duty. Thus in all these ways we will transmit this city not only not less, but greater, better and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us.

The Central Labor Union conducted a meeting the evening of the same day at Faneuil Hall, at which Mrs. Florence Kelley, Edward A. Filene and Paul U. Kellogg spoke. The final meeting of the campaign in Tremont Temple was addressed by Governor-elect Foss, President Charles F. Thwing of Western Reserve University, Rabbi Stephen S. Wise of New York and others.

PHILADELPHIA INSTITUTIONS FOR CHILDREN

The Philadelphia institutions for dependent white children began on November 9 a series of round table discussions on problems of child-saving that promise to have far-reaching effects on the children's work of the city. Early in the fall a rough draft of what might be discussed in a series of meetings between the institutions was submitted and acted upon. Invitations were sent to some forty agencies and acceptances received from about thirty-five.

[1] In a later issue, THE SURVEY will report the Boston-1915 pageant, the largest of its kind in this country.

Three years ago it was suggested that a series of informal meetings be held to discuss better standards of work and better methods of care. The subject was again taken up last winter and it was tacitly understood that action should be deferred until this season. This offered an opportunity to study the success of a similar series of meetings conducted by the institutions for colored children. These resulted in a redivision of the field of care and a better and more interesting method of work. Their success removed the last objection to meetings among the white institutions.

In the last few years some ten institutions, including Girard College under its new president, Prof. Cheesman A. Herrick, have undergone great changes. Emphasis is placed upon the newer methods of work. The proposed discussions are expected to bring about more specialization. A large number of the institutions are now committed to careful inquiries preliminary to the acceptance of any child and to careful registration with some central agency to prevent duplication of work. With many of the institutions, as in the Jewish Foster Home, the inquiry is made by different members of the admission committee and the work is very efficiently done. Owing to the great increase in applications, however, and the feeling that a social survey of a family is the task of an expert, this institution, as well as many others, is thinking of having a trained investigator to control the acceptance and discharge of children.

Each meeting will be largely under the direction of the institution where it is held. The papers submitted will be brief, in order to give ample opportunity for discussion.

The seven fortnightly meetings, all to be held at different institutions, will be on the following subjects: History of Child Helping Agencies, Present Day Methods, Institution Organization, Physical Care of Children in Institutions, Training and Supervision, Placing Out, and a résumé of the conferences of the winter.

Protestant, Catholic, Jewish and nonsectarian institutions of all types will be represented. The bringing about of closer relations between the institutions and the placing-out societies, primarily, and of all social organizations, secondly, is looked for as one of the big results.

The following institutions and agencies will participate:

Baptist Orphanage, Bethesda Home, Burd Orphan Asylum, Church Home for Children, Friends' Home for Children, Haddock Memorial, Home for Infants, Hospital of the Good Shepherd, Howard Institution, Methodist Episcopal Orphanage, Northern Home, Odd Fellows' Home, Orphan Asylum of Philadelphia, Presbyterian Orphanage, Southern Home, Western Home for Poor Children, Catholic Home for Destitute Girls, Christ Home, Girard College, Home for Hebrew Orphans, Jewish Foster Home, Lincoln Institute, Lutheran Home, Masonic Orphanage, Orange Home, St. John's Male Orphan Asylum, St. John's Female Orphan Asylum, St. Martin's College, St. Vincent's Home, St. Vincent's Home and Hospital, St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Western Temporary Home, St. Joseph's Female Orphan Asylum and Gonzago Memorial, St. Joseph's House, Children's Aid Society, Seybert Institution, Children's Bureau and the Society to Protect Children from Cruelty, Home Missionary Society, Foster Home, Foulke and Long Institution, and Society for Organizing Charity.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

INTERNATIONAL (NEW).

International Congress on the Judicial Settlement of International Disputes, December 15-17, 1910. Washington, D. C. Corresponding officer, Tunstall Smith, The Preston, Baltimore, Md.

International Association for Labor Legislation, September, 1912. Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basle, Switzerland.

INTERNATIONAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

International Congress on Tuberculosis. September 24-30. Rome, Italy. Secretary-general, Professor Ascoli, Via Lucina, Rome, Italy.

International Prison Congress (Quinquennial). London, 1915. Secretary, F. Simon van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

NATIONAL (NEW)

National Convention of the Methodist Federation of Social Service, November 29-December 1, 1910. Chicago, Ill. Secretary, W. M. Balch, 625 Central avenue, Dover, N. H.

American Road Builders Association. December 6-9, 1910. Indianapolis, Md. Secretary, E. L. Powers, 150 Nassau street, New York city.

American Civic Association. December 14-16, 1910. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Richard B. Watrous, Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

American Statistical Association, December 27-30, 1910. St Louis, Mo. Secretary, C. W. Doten, 491 Boylston street, Boston, Mass.

American Political Science Association. December 27-30, 1910. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, W. W. Willoughby, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

National Civic Federation. January 12-14. New York city. Secretary, D. L. Cease, 1 Madison avenue, New York city.

Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, January 17-19. Washington, D. C. Corresponding secretary, E. B. Sanford, D.D., 81 Bible House, New York city.

Federated Boys' Clubs, Annual Meeting February 15. Fall River, Mass. Executive secretary, Arthur B. Leach, Room 308, 35 Congress street, Boston, Mass. Annual Conference, June, Brookline, Mass.

Religious Education Association, February 14-16. Providence, R. I. Secretary, Henry F. Cope, 193 Michigan avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Convention of the Young Women's Christian Association of America, April 19-27. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, Lois J. Viele, 125 East Twenty-seventh street, New York city.

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, J. T. Exnicios, 914 G street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children. June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.

National Conference of Poor Law Officials, June 7. Boston, Mass. President, Dr. Robert W. Hill, State Board of Charities, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, October 10-13. Milwaukee, Wis. Secretary, Cornelius H. Patten, 14 Beacon street, Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Catholic Charities, September, 1912. Washington, D. C. Secretary, William J. Kerby, D.D., Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

National (Previously Announced)

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Second Thursday in December, February, and April. New York, N. Y. Corresponding officer, James Pedersen, M.D., 29 West Forty-second street, New York city.

American Academy of Medicine, Midyear meeting, December 1-2, 1910, Buffalo, N. Y. Annual meeting, June 24-26, Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, Charles McIntire, M.D., 52 North Fourth street, Easton, Pa. Subject of both meetings: Medical Sociology.

American Sanatorium Association, December 10, 1910. Lake Kushaqua, N. Y. Secretary, Dr. Harry Lee Barnes, Lake Wallum, N. Y.

American Civic Association, December 14-16, 1910. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Richard B. Watrous, R. 913 Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

American Sociological Society, December 27-31, 1910. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, Alvan A. Tenney, Columbia University, New York city.

American Association for Labor Legislation, December 27-31, 1910. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, John B. Andrews, Metropolitan Tower, New York city.

American Association of Home Economics, December 27-31, 1910. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, B. R. Andrews, Teachers College, New York city.

American Economic Association, December 27-31, 1910. St. Louis, Mo. Secretary, T. N. Carver, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

American Historical Association, December 27-31, 1910. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, W. G. Leland, 500 Bond Building, Washington, D. C.

National Child Labor Committee, March. Birmingham, Ala. Corresponding officer, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, March or April. New York city. Corresponding officer, Waldemar Groszmann, Plainfield, N. J.

American Federation of Arts, May. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Leila Mechlin, 1741 New York avenue, Washington, D. C.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, June 7-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Alexander Johnston, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

National Probation Officers' Association, June 5-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Roger N. Baldwin, 903 Security Building, St. Louis, Mo.

National Women's Trade Union League, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer, Mrs. D. W. Kefler, 5,273 McPherson avenue, St. Louis, Mo.

American Medical Association, June 27. Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, George H. Simmons, M.D., 535 Dearborn avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Education Association of the United States, July. San Francisco, Cal. Secretary, Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

National Fraternal Congress, August 21. Mackinac Island, Mich. Secretary, C. A. Gower, Lansing, Mich.

American Hospital Association, September 19-22. New York city. Secretary, J. N. E. Brown, M.D., Toronto General Hospital, Can.

American Prison Association, September. Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Joseph P. Byers, 18 Central avenue, Newark, N. J.

State (New)

Southern Education Conference on Religion and Morals in Public Schools, December 28, 1910. Chattanooga, Tenn. Secretary, Henry F. Cope, 193 Michigan avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Colorado State Association for the Prevention and Control of Tuberculosis, January 15. Denver, Colo. Secretary, S. Poulterer Morris, Room 29, State House, Denver, Colo.

Alabama Conference of Charities and Correction, March. Birmingham, Ala. Secretary, Maurice Willows, Birmingham, Ala.

Connecticut Conference of Charities and Correction. March or April. New Haven, Conn. Secretary, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn.

Sagamore Sociological Conference, June 27-29. Sagamore Beach, Mass. President, George W. Coleman, 348 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

Stony Brook Assembly, August. Stony Brook, L. I. Director, J. W. Jenks, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Toledo, Ohio. Secretary, H. H. Shirer, 805 Harrison Building, 21 S. High street, Columbus, Ohio.

State (Previously Announced)

Iowa Conference of Charities and Correction, December 4-7, 1910. Des Moines, Ia. Secretary, George Mogridge, M.D., Institute for Feeble-Minded Children, Glenwood, Ia.

South Carolina Conference of Charities and Correction, December 8-19, 1910. Florence, S. C. President, A. T. Jamison, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood, S. C.

Michigan Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis, December 9, 1910. Ann Arbor, Mich. Secretary, A. S. Warthin, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Virginia Anti-Tuberculosis Association, December 15-16, 1910. Richmond, Va. Executive secretary, Douglas S. Freeman, M.D., Richmond, Va.

New York Child Welfare Exhibit, January 18-February 12. New York city. Secretary, Roy Smith Wallace. Room 5,105 Metropolitan Building, New York city.

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, April. Princeton, N. J. Secretary, J. Byron Deacon, Room 417 Roger Williams Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Arizona Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Bisbee, Ariz. Secretary, John W. Flinn, Prescott, Ariz.

Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction, May 8-12. Hamilton, Ont. Secretary, F. M. Nicholson, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, Ont.

New England Conference on Street Cleaning. June. Springfield, Mass. Corresponding officer, Carol Aronovici, 55 Eddy street, Providence, R. I.

Northern Baptist Convention, June 13. Philadelphia, Pa. President, Emory W. Hunt, Denison University, Granville, O.

Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities, October 10-12. Indiana, Pa. Secretary, L. C. Colborn, Somerset, Pa.

GENTLEMAN desires position in this city with some association engaged in philanthropic work or social betterment. Business experience. Also has devoted years to friendly visiting, charitable aid and similar activities. Address

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THE COMMON WELFARE

ONCE AGAIN SHOP EARLY!

With this first December issue THE SURVEY reminds its readers for the fifth time, in what is now a familiar phrase: "Shop early. That will be your best Christmas present—to the girls behind the counters and boys on the delivery carts."

It may almost be assumed that no reader of THE SURVEY now buys presents after December 15. The campaign begun by the New York City Consumers' League, and conducted over the entire country by the National Consumers' League and Charities Publication Committee, has caught on wonderfully. When the notice was sent out last year it was found that merchants had already begun to use the shop-early card in their advertisements, some newspapers had printed early reminders and hundreds of others stood ready to give generously of their space to THE SURVEY's articles and cartoons. There is in the very spirit of Christmas a prompting to help in so good a cause. Grateful acknowledgment is here made to thousands of merchants and hundreds of editors who have borne a hand. They are offered this year as special features a story of a shop girl, contributed by James Oppenheim, author of Dr. Rast and Wild Oats, and a series of cartoons, some of which are reproduced in this issue.

Beyond the humane motive—the Christmas spirit manifested so directly in the easing of heavy burdens—evidence accumulates of a growing appreciation of the personal advantages of early shopping. There is good, hard common sense in buying from full stocks before the best goods have been snapped up by the early birds, and there is great gain in personal comfort in avoiding the rush.

Literally millions of people have seen the articles, the cartoons and the advertisements but, with the best intention in the world, buy their presents late. Readers of THE SURVEY can help not only by good example, but by the timely hint, in the words of a prime advertiser, that "this means you." There is a good suggestion in the practice of a busy New York office which gives each of its employes a shopping half holiday *in the morning* between December 1 and December. 15. The Brooklyn tuberculosis committee has donated to the campaign the temporary use of the back of the street car transfers for announcements. The New York Consumers' League has strung across a main shopping street a huge shop-early banner, such as is used in political campaigns. Other ways of reaching shoppers will suggest themselves—and THE SURVEY will be glad to hear of them, whether tried or untried—but none is more effective than the word in time. The word is early and the time is now.

Donahey in Cleveland *Plain Dealer*.

THE TARDY SHOPPER.

Donahey in Cleveland *Plain Dealer*.

JUVENILE COURT IS OUT OF JAIL

Early in September the people in Pittsburgh interested in the Juvenile Court accomplished a significant change in the machinery for handling the boys and girls of Allegheny county who come before the law. By action of the county authorities, the detention rooms of the court have been removed from the county jail to a small separate building in the immediate neighborhood. The basement and first floor are used for purposes of detention. The Juvenile Court room, formerly also in the county jail, is in the building used as a detention home. In the basement are lavatories, a bath room and a room for preparing meals. Hitherto meals have been sent to the detention home from the county jail, but it is proposed later to discontinue this arrangement and prepare meals in the home itself.

The administration of the detention rooms, formerly under the warden of the jail, is now transferred to the superintendent of county buildings and a superintendent is in charge of the detention rooms.

Probation officers, leaders in the Juvenile Court Association, the Civic Club of Allegheny County, the Associated Charities, and others, have long urged that however capable the jail administration might be—and Warden Lewis is a man of high standards—the barred doors, bridge of sighs and high stone walls of the county lock-up were no place for juvenile delinquents. The unsuccessful effort of the county commissioners to purchase adjoining school property on which to erect additional buildings has been a factor in the delay. The old structures now thrown into commission are by no means a permanent solution of the problem. What is needed is a modern and especially equipped home for the juvenile court, or at least for its wards. But the present change is felt to be a big step forward, and directly in the spirit of modern juvenile court administration.

O'Loughlin in Salt Lake City *Telegram*.

Donahey in Cleveland *Plain Dealer.*

TEN-HOUR LAW FOR ALL WOMEN

A movement to widen the application of the Illinois ten-hour law governing women's work has been started by the Women's Trade Union League. The law, which went into effect July 1, 1909, and was held constitutional by the Supreme Court of Illinois on April 21, 1910, after arguments by Louis D. Brandeis and other distinguished public lawyers,[1] applies only to women working in factories, laundries or mechanical establishments. At the time of the legislative struggle for this "girls' bill"[2] there was discussion as to whether department stores and other establishments should be included, and those who opposed the bill because it affected the industries in which they were employers made much of the point that the law would be unfair unless it applied to all work by women. This contention was, perhaps, made in the hope that if a broader law were urged the combination of business interests affected would be strong enough to defeat the whole bill—and for this reason the Women's Trade Union League framed the bill so as to include only factories, laundries and mechanical establishments. If the foregoing argument was made in good faith by the opponents of the bill, they now have an opportunity to assist the Women's Trade Union League in making the law extend "fairly" to other lines of work in which women are employed, for if the amendment proposed is enacted at the next session of the Legislature the law will read:

> That no female shall be employed in any manufacturing, mercantile or mechanical establishment, laundry, hotel or restaurant, telegraph or telephone establishment, express or transportation company, or as park attendant, more than ten hours in any one day or more than fifty-four hours in any one week.

In proposing this amendment, the league has asked the co-operation of the following bodies:

Illinois State Federation of Labor, National Council of Women, American Association for Labor Legislation, Consumers' League, Federation of Young Women's Clubs, Socialist Women's Organization, Illinois State Suffrage Association, Illinois State Federation of Women's Clubs, Young Women's Christian Association, Women's Colleges of Illinois, Federation of Settlements.

A legislative committee has

Walker in Rockford *Republican.*

[1] See THE SURVEY for April 3, 1910.

[2] See THE SURVEY for July 3, 1909.

been formed with seven members, five from Chicago and two from Springfield, where a branch of the National Women's Trade Union League is strategically located to help in bringing pressure to bear upon the Legislature.

The campaign for the amendment is being vigorously pushed throughout the state, and many meetings are to be held. The State Federation of Labor at its recent meeting in Rock Island voted to give its full support. A poster has been printed showing by roll call just how each member of the last Legislature stood on the women's ten-hour bill.

The poster was used effectively in November against the re-election of members of the last Legislature who opposed the ten-hour bill. As a result of this opposition by the league in co-operation with other civic bodies, a number of candidates were defeated on their record. Moreover, every legislative candidate was specifically asked whether he would favor the proposed amendment, and affirmative replies were received from most of the candidates who were elected on November 8, so that there is promise of success for the bill in the next session.

SIX-DAY WORK IN STATE LAWS

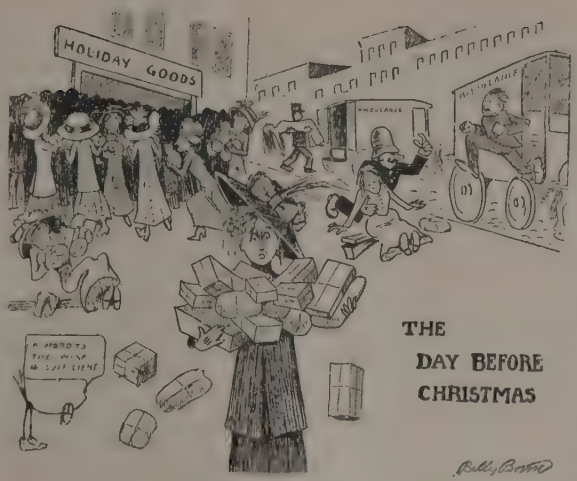
In the September *Bulletin of the New York State Department of Labor* John A. Fitch considers legislation throughout the United States for the prevention of seven-day labor. Forty-five states, Alaska, Hawaii and Porto Rico have laws forbidding Sunday labor, and with the single exception of the California Supreme Court (*ex parte* Newman, 9 Calif., 502, 1858, ground of religious discrimination), wherever cases under these laws have come up they have been declared constitutional by both state and federal courts.

Up to 1844 the grounds for these court decisions were religious; between 1844 and 1864 the point of view was gradually changing from "other-worldliness" to "this worldliness"—the protection of the health of the laborer by allowing him a reasonable amount of leisure—and since 1866 the ground taken has been exclusively the police power of the state to protect health.

In spite of this legislation Sunday labor exists practically throughout the Union in blast furnaces, iron and steel works, telegraph and telephone lines, heat, light and power plants, newspapers, hotels and restaurants and on railroads and street railways. In certain localities ten other industries are carried on during seven days in the week. In 1907 the Massachusetts Legislature reported 221,989 men employed on Sundays in that state. The reasons are not far to seek. In the first place, the religious origin of Sunday laws has made them in practically every state a part of the penal law, and the Department of Labor, which alone is concerned with the protection of the health of workers, has no power to enforce them. In the second place, there is this fundamental objection to all Sunday laws, that it is impracticable under modern conditions for certain industries to shut down entirely on one day in the week. In some cases, like the railroads, public necessity; in

Harding in Brooklyn *Eagle*.

others, like blast furnaces, technical peculiarities which would cause great waste; in others, like canneries, the seasonal character of the work and dependence on the weather; and in still others emergencies demand seven-day labor. In order to meet these necessities of modern industry, practically every state has made exceptions to the Sunday law so broad in scope as "to protect all continuous industries against enforced inactivity one day in the week, and to afford no protection to the workmen against enforced activity seven days in the week."



Asheville *Citizen.*

The Sunday laws, then, have failed of both their religious and their hygienic purpose and some other and more practicable law must take their place. Such a law exists in the rest-day legislation of Massachusetts and California. The Massachusetts law provides that, except in emergencies or at the request of the employe or in the case of farm or personal servants, druggists, watchmen, superintendents or managers, janitors or persons engaged in the transportation, sale or delivery of milk, food or newspapers, no employe can be required to work on Sunday unless he is allowed twenty-four consecutive hours without labor during the other six days in the week. The California law is more sweeping than the Massachusetts statute, covering all work except that necessitated by emergencies. Furthermore, it avoids the charge of religious discrimination—the ground of the adverse decision of the California Supreme Court referred to above—by requiring simply that every employe shall be given twenty-four consecutive hours' rest after six days' labor.

The principle of such rest-day legislation is thus outlined by Mr. Fitch:

> While it may be necessary for an industry to operate continuously, every day in the week, it is not therefore necessary for workmen to labor every day in the week. Accordingly, it may be required that those industries which have to be in operation on Sunday, shall allow every employe at work on that day a full day of rest on some other day. Under such a law, either the industry will have to stop one day a week or else the working force will have to be increased one-seventh and the employes receive their rest period on different days by rotation through the week; that is, one group of employes would have Sunday as a rest day, another Monday, and so on through the week. Thus the full quota of workmen would always be employed and the industry would not suffer, but every man would have a day of rest. Such a law protects both the industry and the workmen, and it naturally tends to protect the Sabbath much more than the laws now in existence. It penalizes continuous operation by requiring the addition of one-seventh to the working force and hence to the pay-roll. Accordingly, the seven-day industries that are not necessarily continuous would tend to go back to a six-day schedule, and the day of rest would naturally be Sunday.

Two states have passed laws based on this principle; two others require rest periods in certain industries. Practically all Sunday decisions for the last forty years have been based on the police power of the state, a principle which in all states would apply equally well to rest-day legislation.

The *Bulletin* contains the full text of legal decisions and Sunday and rest-day laws throughout the United States.

FORTY VOLUMES ON IMMIGRATION

On December 4, the Federal Immigration Commission, created by the act of February 20, 1907, goes out of existence.

During the past fortnight, the commission has been holding sessions in Washington drafting its recommendations which, together with a summary volume of its findings, will be presented at the opening of Congress in December. This initial instalment will be the precursor of no less than forty volumes, some of which are already in press, which will be issued from the government printing office in the next six months. They will make up the most extensive series of governmental reports on social and economic topics (the United States Census excepted) since the Federal Industrial Commission of 1900.

At the outset of its work, the commission faced two possible lines of activity, —one, that of bringing existing data together in a new form; and the second, while utilizing existing data, to invest its energies and funds in original inquiries. The second plan was adopted and, after the first month all the lines of investigation were co-ordinated under the central office in Washington. The field work was practically concluded on July 1, 1909, and the compilation of data and preparation of reports have employed a large office force for the greater part of the past two years. The January magazine number of THE SURVEY will largely be given over to an interpretation of this work and a presentation of the gist of the findings, by some of those who have been most closely identified with it. The extent of the undertaking is indicated by the fact that the expenditures will reach over $700,000 and the data represent original information secured for more than 3,000,000 individuals. What is, perhaps, of even more far-reaching significance is that by an amendment to the census bill of 1910 the traditional method of recording the population of the United States by country or place of birth, which has been in force since 1850, has been modified so as to provide for the enumeration of the foreign-born according to their "nationality or mother tongue." This was in line with the departure of the Bureau of Immigration in 1899, which since then has gathered statistics by race as well as by the country of last permanent residence.

The Immigration Committee adopted practically the same classification of races or peoples as the administrative bureau, and therefore these three sources of governmental statistics will be comparable: the Immigration Commission's report will itself be a setting for the even more inclusive data gathered by the census enumerators the past year,

Besides the summary volume already referred to, the immigration report will include volumes interpreting conditions in the countries from which people emigrate, the history of earlier European immigration, a statistical history of immigration from 1820 on, the distribution of immigrants from 1850 to 1900, the immigration situation in other countries which occupy somewhat the same position toward Europe as the United States (Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Argentina, Brazil), the occupations of immigrants, the fecundity of their women, and, a unique feature and one likely to prove of service throughout the United States, a dictionary of races or peoples. Another special volume, a digest of which, together with several of the other special reports, was presented to Congress at its last session, is a treatise on the changes in the bodily form of decendants of immigrants. This is the work of Prof. Franz Boas and analyzes such indications as can be scientifically determined as to the fundamental effect of the merging and mingling of varied ethnic stocks in this new country.

Other volumes will deal with steerage conditions, immigrant homes and aid societies, the importation of women for immoral purposes, contract labor, the *padrone* system, immigrant banks, peonage. These will cover, therefore, not merely special institutions and phenomena which have grown up with the incoming of strangers, but their relation to existing social institutions, and to charity, crime, insanity and public relief.

Two volumes each will be given up to the discussion of immigrants in the Pacific coast and Rocky mountain states, immigrants in cities, immigrants in agriculture, and the children of immigrants in schools; a full dozen volumes will deal with immigrants in the industries. These include bituminous coal mining, iron and

steel, cotton goods manufacturing in the North Atlantic states, woolen and worsted goods, silk and dyeing, clothing, collar, cuff and shirt manufacturing, leather, boot and shoe manufacturing, gloves, slaughtering and meat packing, sugar refining, glass, agricultural implements and vehicles, cigars and tobacco, furniture, copper, mining and smelting, iron ore mining, anthracite coal mining, oil refining and diversified industries; concluding with a section on the floating immigrant labor supply.

TOLSTOI AND IMMIGRATION

How the world touches hands is illustrated in this number of THE SURVEY. The cover presents a portrait of Leo Tolstoi in peasant's blouse and, while the articles were not gathered with such an end in view, several of them bear a striking relationship to the life of the great Russian who died the past month. The exception is the essay on Tolstoi's Resurrection by E. A. Goldenweiser of Kiev, a leader of the Russian bar, who was an unofficial delegate to the recent International Prison Congress in Washington, and to whose mind this novel transcends mere criticism of the Siberian penal system and ranks with Mrs. Stowe's Uncle Tom's Cabin; to him it is a universal protest against a social institution which has outlived its usefulness—namely, our present system of criminal trial and punishment. Graham Taylor reviews Miss Addams's Twenty Years at Hull House, the tribute of one great settlement leader of Chicago to another. It will be remembered that Tolstoi gave the proceeds from The Resurrection to the Doukhobors, the Russian peasant sect which adopted his doctrines, to enable them to make their pilgrimage to northern Canada, perhaps the most picturesque feature of the immigration movement to this country in our generation. The balance left over from this fund was contributed to Hull House as the first neighborhood center to interpret the conditions and aspirations of the foreign colonies which have grown up in our American cities. The Boston pageant in November, From Cave Life to City Life, brought out in picturesque cast not only the evolution, but the polyglot character, of our urban centers. Announcement is made in another column of the forty volumes in which will be embodied the findings of the Federal Immigration Commission and the leading article of this issue is an interpretation of the Westmoreland strike, which has been going on for six months in western Pennsylvania, practically unheard of so far as the outside world is concerned, but in reality a widespread Slavic insurrection in the bituminous coal fields.

THREE RADICALS GO TO CONGRESS

From the standpoint of social theory, the three most interesting figures in the new Congress elected in November are Victor Berger of Wisconsin, Henry George, Jr., of New York and William Kent of California. Three sketches outlining what these men stand for by men thoroughly in sympathy with the men and their measures are presented in the following columns. The writers of the sketches are no less interesting than the men described. John Spargo, author of Socialism, Karl Marx and many other writings interpretive of socialist theory to Americans, writes of Victor Berger. Mr. Spargo worked as a lad in the coal mines of England and brought with him to this country in the nineties, as one of his most prized possessions, a series of resolutions signed by Keir Hardy and other members of the English laborite group with whom he had worked shoulder to shoulder in the days before their parliamentary successes. His best known practical work in this country was the institution of the People's Forum at Yonkers, a platform for popular discussion used by the working people of this large industrial suburb of New York. Henry George, Jr., also has been an active campaigner in the English elections as well as in American politics. His work is described by Louis Post, editor of the *Public* of Chicago, the trenchant exponent of the single tax movement in this country. William Kent, less than ten years ago an independent alderman fighting corruption and franchise graft in the Chi-

cago City Councils, and perhaps better known as the donor of the Muir Woods to the United States government, ran this fall on what was distinctly a conservation platform as a republican insurgent in California. He is appraised by Ben B. Lindsey, the democratic judge of Denver, who has made the American Juvenile Court a national institution, and whose book, The Beast, has been the most daring exposure we have had in this country of bi-partisan corporation control in municipal government.

A HENRY GEORGE IN CONGRESS

LOUIS F. POST
Editor of the Public

Henry George, Jr., is "the son of his father" in every sense but one. He is not dependent upon his father's name for his own career.

His father's ideals, however, and his father's life work, are his own ideals and the work of his own life. Not as a servile imitator, but as one of those men in all parts of the world who have seen the star his father saw, he has carved a career for himself as a world leader in spreading the gospel of liberty and brotherhood, industrial as well as political. His object, as it was his father's and is that of all his father's following, is to abolish the exploitation of labor; and to this end his energies are concentrated upon the abolition of privilege.

There is no lack of constructive work in his career. Some of it he did as his father's associate; but most of it, except part of the work of personal preparation, he has done independently. Should any of it seem non-constructive to the unthinking, let them take note that "the erection of a tower begins, constructively, not with building up, but with clearing away and digging down."

It must also be noted that fussy work is not necessarily constructive. Neither is mere work though not fussy and though good in itself. To care for the victims of dangerous sidewalks is good work in itself, but the true constructive work would be work that leads to the making of new and safe sidewalks, so that there may be no more victims. This is the kind of work to which Henry George, Jr., is especially devoted.

He is the author of a book, The Menace of Privilege, which impressively describes the development of privilege in our democratic country and the cumulative wreckage it strews along its devastating pathway. This exposure of privilege he has followed with a romance, John Bainbridge, in which American life is pictured in the setting of economic privilege and labor exploitation. Meanwhile, as newspaper worker, from reporter to managing editor, as a contributor to the newspapers and magazines of Great Britain as well as here, and in lectures and speeches in the United States, England and Scotland, Ireland, Japan and Germany, he has contributed his share to the breaking down of those barriers of legal privilege that hold workers within economic corrals where the privileged may exploit them easier than heartless herdsmen brand cattle or gentle shepherds shear sheep.

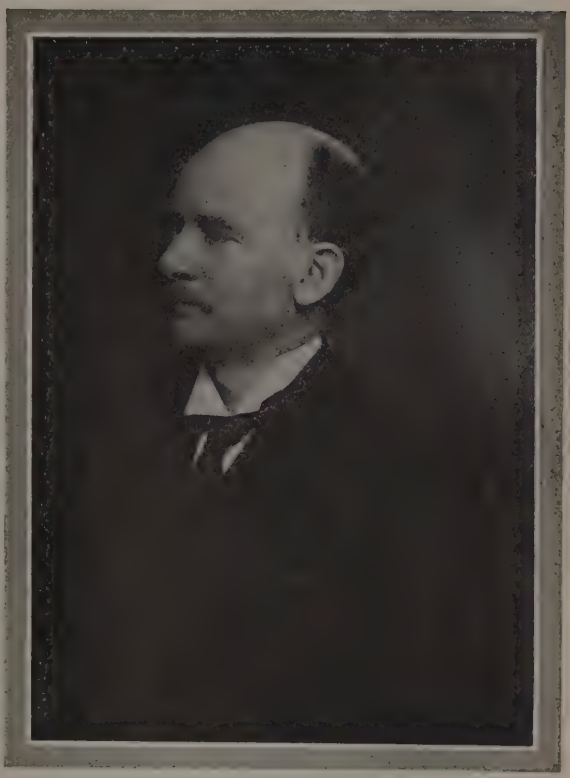
But make no mistake, dreamy enthusiast or robust doer of things to do! The new congressman from the seventeenth New York district is no "dreamer of dreams" except as the great Joseph was. If he dreams of an ideal, his common sense tells him how to get it. He knows that you cannot abolish the exploitation of labor with any magic "presto," nor dissipate privilege with zephyrs. He knows that idealistic conception, though this come first in the order of development, must be realized by practical construction; and that construction consists less in drawing picturesque front elevations than in the commonplace and laborious work, sometimes as iconoclastic as tearing away obstructive "shacks," of monotonously doing one blessed thing after another.

That is what one might call Henry George's congressional platform if one had the right to speak for him. To abolish the exploitation of labor, privilege must be abolished. Every part of privilege abolished is thus far toward its total destruction. Customs tariffs

are our bulwarks of privilege, nationally. Consequently, every bit of congressional legislation destructive to the tariff wall is a deadly blow at the privileged, and therefore a champion's shot for the workers.

So might one expect Henry George, Jr., in Congress, to cooperate his own powers with the powers of the largest numbers moving in his general direction, for securing the highest degree of free trade presently possible. And in addition to congressional issues rising out of the tariff question, one might expect him to be aligned with the congressional forces that support the Pinchot movement for conservation of natural resources; for in the privileges which that movement assails, the very heart's core of all privilege lurks.

What particular policies Congressman George will adopt or adhere to, no one can say but himself. Even he may hardly know in advance of the emergencies that throw them up to the surface of congressional controversy. But the congressman who hold's this man's convictions and has his common sense and courage, can be trusted to decide upon official details from time to time as they arise to challenge official attention.



HENRY GEORGE, Jr.
Congressman-elect from New York: A leading exponent of the single-tax, here and abroad.

THE FIRST SOCIALIST CONGRESSMAN

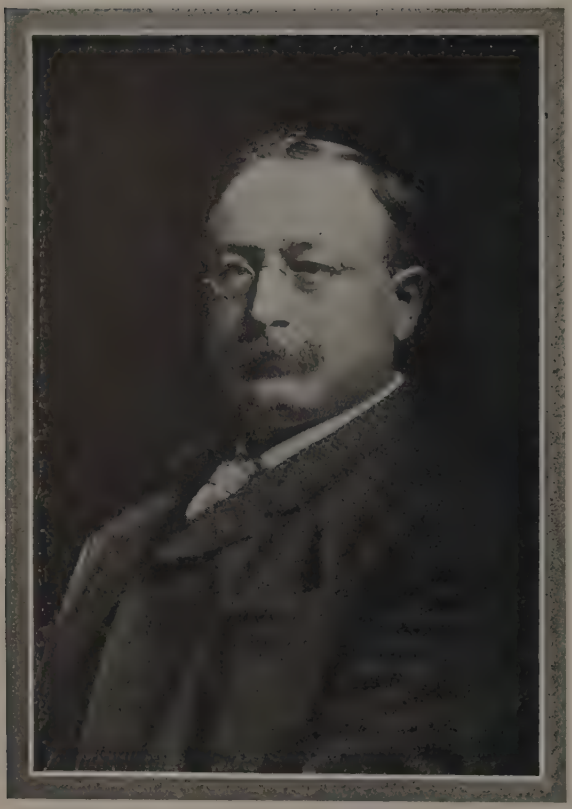
JOHN SPARGO
Author Karl Marx, His Life and Work[1]

For the first time in the history of the nation a socialist has been elected to Congress. Not a near-socialist, mind you, nor a socialist who avoided the name, nor one who uses a compound title in which the word "socialist" is qualified and modified.

No, Victor Berger, the man elected, is a real socialist. He wears the red flag as an emblem of his faith and his party. He is a member of the national executive committee of the Socialist Party, and was one of its eight elected delegates to the International Socialist Congress at Copenhagen recently. In short, he is a thoroughly representative socialist. When he takes his seat in Congress he will be the representative of the actual socialist movement.

So there will be a third party in Congress, a tiny minority of one, with one vote in a total of 392. It will not be an insignificant minority, however, but one to be reckoned with. Those disposed to sneer at this minority party of one may be reminded of the old fable: "Only one", sneered the mouse at the lioness fondly licking her cub. "Yes, only one, but that one a lion," answered the mother. The socialists will have only one representative in Congress—but that one will be Victor Berger, a lion.

[1]Karl Marx, His Life and Work. By John Spargo. B. W. Huebsch. New York. 1910. Pages 359. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $2.70.



VICTOR BERGER.
Congressman-elect from Wisconsin. The first socialist to be elected a member of the national legislature of the United States.

For Victor L. Berger is a big man from every point of view. He is big physically; he is big intellectually, and he is big spiritually. In any assembly of men of acknowledged greatness he would command attention and respect.

Berger is fifty. His hair is gray and thinner than it was, but that is the only sign of departed youth about him. His healthy, pink cheeks, his eyes radiant with gladness, and the quick, eager movement of his body bear witness to the youthfulness of his spirit. The boy still lives in the man.

Yet for more than half his life Berger has borne heavy burdens which would have crushed most men. For almost thirty years he has been fighting against terrible odds, often alone and unaided. For the sake of his ideals he has endured a life of martyrdom. Last April, when the socialists made such a "clean sweep" in the Milwaukee municipal elections, he said to me: "For twenty-six years I have seen this victory before my eyes. It has been my goal, the object of my life. Now, my life must justify the trust reposed in us."

It was characteristic of the man, that quick transition from the purely personal to the collective concept of the great victory. Berger's personality is said to dominate the socialist movement in Wisconsin, but that is only true because he sinks his personality in the movement—was it not written of old that "he who loses his life shall find it"?

Berger has lived in Milwaukee for thirty-two years, ever since he came to this country with his parents. Born in a German province of Austria, and educated in the best schools of his native land, he became a teacher of German in the Milwaukee public schools, an occupation which he followed for years, until his radical ideas led him to the difficult and thorny paths of socialist journalism.

When you meet Berger for the first time you soon discover that he worships his wife. Those of us who know him intimately know how idyllic is the life he lives in his modest home with his wife and children, and we marvel that through all the years his passion for the socialist movement and his passion for his wife have not interfered with each other. Perhaps it is because Mrs. Berger, who was his pupil, then became herself a teacher, and is now a member of the Milwaukee School Board has long been quite as good a socialist as her husband. Be that how it may, despite the fact that during many years Berger has been bitterly assailed and vilified, no word of reproach has been brought against his personal life.

Always a close student, especially of history and economics, Berger is not only one of the best scholars in the American

socialist movement, but it is safe to say that in the next Congress there will be few, if any, better educated men than he. He is by no means a "boss" of the vulgar type, as his enemies often assert. On the contrary, he is one of the great intellectual leaders of the socialist movement.

He is no doctrinaire, however. He has thoroughly learned the terminology of socialist literature—and wisely discarded it. He cares for theories only in so far as they relate to life and help in the solution of its problems. He never addresses working men upon such themes as the Marxian theory of value, or the materialistic conception of history, though no man could do it better. "Dear madam, how will you pay the butcher's bill?" or "Brother, why should you live in a hovel?"—such themes as these inspire his trenchant pen. He is not an orator. His pen is his weapon. Few journalists in America command a better, more effective style. When he speaks his German accent is apt to obscure the fact that his English is singularly pure, but when he writes there is no accent, and his terse, crisp sentences bear witness to his perfect mastery of the language. His style is direct, simple and powerful, like Bunyan's.

In Congress Victor Berger's influence will be felt. As in Milwaukee, it will always be cast on the side of decency and progress. He knows that the social millennium will never be brought about by one supreme stroke, even if the Socialist Party should so far progress as to send three hundred other representatives to join him. He will voice the great social challenge of the age with wisdom and courage — for he is a consummate politician.

When news of his election reached me I telegraphed him that I regarded the event as being as important as the first election of Lincoln to the presidency. I believe that history will confirm that message.

A CONSERVATION CONGRESSMAN

BEN B. LINDSEY
Judge of the Denver Juvenile Court

With each new election, it is becoming

By the courtesy of the American Magazine.

WILLIAM KENT.

The insurgent-conservationist-congressman-elect from California, who gave the Muir Woods to the Nation.

this country is not so much between the parties as within the parties; between certain great interests seeking privilege through the use and manipulation of both parties on the one hand, and on the other, clear visioned, earnest men in each party in behalf of the people firmly resisting their encroachments.

This struggle has long been acute in California. There, the chief use made of the Republican Party has been as an asset to the business interests of the Southern Pacific Railroad. To rescue it from such uses a strong insurgent movement within that party began to take shape several years ago. It culminated in a magnificent victory at the primary elections which preceded the recent regular elections, when under the leadership of men like William Kent, Hiram Johnson and Francis J. Heney, the Southern Pacific crowd were routed as never before in the political history of the state.

An important part of this great struggle, to which the victory was in a large measure due, was the great race for Congress made by William Kent in the Sacramento district, so long represented by Congressman McKinlay—a reaction-

Canon régime. McKinlay, despite his stand-pat record, is an able and brilliant man, a skilled politician with all the great power of the interests in an "interest" state back of him. He was no mean adversary even for William Kent. But after a terrific primary election campaign, in which men like Gifford Pinchot traveled all the way to California to take part, and which was only equalled in intensity and interest by the fight for the nomination for governor of the insurgent Hiram Johnson, Kent won out—as he is in the habit of doing. A desperate effort was made to get progressive democrats like Senator Gore and others to go to the rescue of Kent's stand-pat democratic opponent, but the efforts failed, for such progressive democrats are likely to be, as they ought to be, more interested in the success of a progressive republican than of a reactionary democrat and it would be a very sordid partisanship that would seek to make party capital out of enmities which an insurgent republican is sure to make in his party ranks when he puts up his fight right there to wrest them from the strangle hold of the privilege grabbers.

The very embodiment of those qualities necessary to the effective reformer—sincerity, enthusiasm, courage, honesty, perseverance and common sense—it is not strange that Kent should be endowed with a passion for service. His career, all too modest, has yet been an inspiration to others in more than one city. I recall years ago a very well to do young business man of Denver, who entered enthusiastically into the work of a Municipal Voters' League for our city, after he had returned from Chicago fairly inoculated with Kent's ideas. For Kent's first important work was done in Chicago. There it was he went shortly after his graduation from Yale in 1887 to enter enthusiastically into the fight to redeem the great city from the grip of graft. There it was he learned from first hand experience, from going down in the midst of politics learning, knowing, understanding a political gang—as in a children's court we would understand the boys' gang—that our greatest governmental problem is one that should not concern political parties at all—but does—is, as he puts it, the problem of governing our cities honestly and in the interest of all their law-abiding citizens."

His deeds, and philanthropies, perhaps even more than his words, have given eloquent expression to the truth he preached about the city.

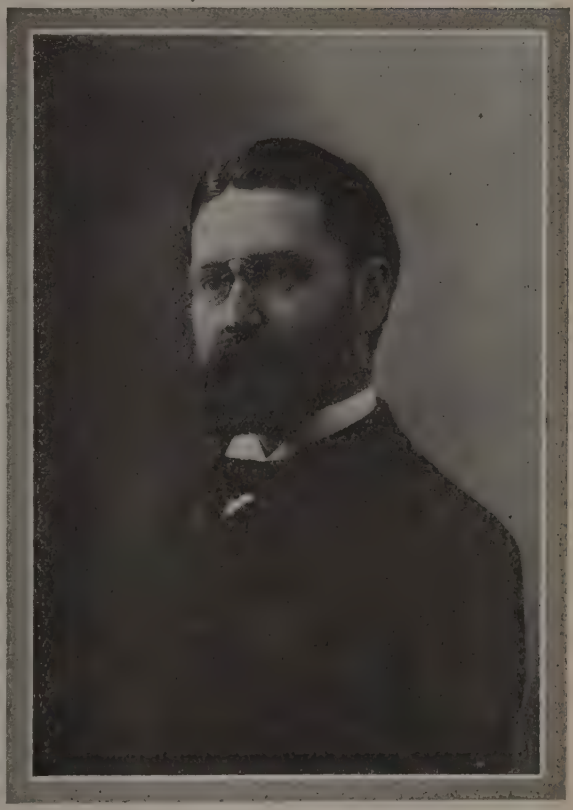
"It is," he has written, "only for a short period that we have seen what the city means. We now know it to be the highest social expression. We now know of the incalculable wealth produced by the labor saving device of propinquity, and are vaguely conscious that the community should retain what the community has created."

Is it only to be expected that a vision which sees clearly "that the community should retain what the community has created," is sure to sympathize with the national appeal for the conservation of our national resources. And in the solution of such problems as those growing out of the great issue of property rights *vs.* human rights there need be no anxiety as to where Congressman Kent will stand. It is impossible to imagine him the kind of a republican who would be bound by a caucus rather than by his conscience. It is men like Kent who can and, I believe, will, more than likely succeed in making the Republican Party so insurgent and progressive that it will in time become the live active radical party, which with the prestige of its name may become in the shortest time the most effective weapon in the hands of the people for the welding of their will into law. There are grave signs—unless there shall be a change—that the Democratic Party may become the conservative party of the country; and if so the hope of the young men of the nation especially, who want to help do things, will be best expressed in the leadership of men like this new California congressman.

Kent's first offense to the powers of privilege dated from the time he quietly determined to run for alderman in Chicago in order more effectively to fight the "gray wolves" as certain local aldermen were then called. He was one of the founders and afterward the presi-

dent, of the Municipal Voters' League. This organization did not content itself with polite generalities about civic honesty, but prodded up the real crooks and "bawled them out" by name, and with his aldermanic admission to what was then more or less a den of thieves, we had the beginning of a record that was at once as refreshing and result producing as it was admirable and (at that period) unusual.

That Mr. Kent was a young man of independent fortune has made his case all the more refreshing. Neither is a man so situated—giving freely of his time and labor—likely to be spared deeped drafts on his pocketbook than he has any right to make or the public to expect. To such philanthropies as the Hull House playground in Chicago Mr. Kent had added the great 300 acre park of noble redwood forest, but even Muir woods, however valuable, does not begin to compare with his contribution of the man himself. There is no estimating in material things the value of a real man to the state.



EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN.
Whose quarter-century as scholar, teacher and citizen was observe in New York the past month.

A NOTABLE CIVIC DEMONSTRATION

HENRY R. SEAGER
Columbia University

Dinners in honor of distinguished citizens are sufficiently common in New York. As a rule they signalize some notable achievement, like the discovery of the North Pole, or the close of a long life of devotion to a special object. The dinner given to Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman at the Hotel Astor on November 12 was unique because it was not occasioned by any single achievement on his part and because he is still in the prime of life. It was to commemorate the completion of his first twenty-five years of public service as scholar, teacher and citizen. Started as an expression of the honor and affection in which he is held by his colleagues and students at Columbia, the celebration grew, almost of its own momentum, until it assumed the dimensions of a veritable civic demonstration. The invitations were sent out in the name of a distinguished committee. Nearly 250 acceptances were received and when the evening arrived quite two hundred persons, representing, besides his colleagues and students, economists from other universities, federal and state officials and leading citizens of New York came together to do Professor Seligman honor.

The speakers for the occasion were carefully chosen to illustrate the wide range of interests which for him have characterized these busy twenty-five years. R. Fulton Cutting, associated with the guest of honor in the Bureau of Municipal Research, acted as toastmaster.

President Butler spoke for the university and portrayed in happy phrases the blending of scholarship and social service which is the Columbia ideal and which Professor Seligman so well represents. Dean Burgess, with real emotion, claimed Seligman as his personal discovery and described in a most interesting way their joint labors in bringing the School of Political Science to its present high standard. President James of the University of Illinois and Professor Dewey of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology characterized Seligman's work as an economist and as one of the charter members of the American Economic Association. Dr. Adler spoke for the Ethical Culture Society, of which Professor Seligman is president, and emphasized the value of his economic speculations in giving greater precision to ethical concepts and ideals. As a representative of the city government, President McAneny of Manhattan borough, after acknowledging the city's debt to the guest of honor, drew an inspiring picture of the New York of the future. Professor Emery, chairman of the Tariff Board, recalled some amusing incidents of the period when he was a student of economics at Columbia, and Gaylord White indicated what the social settlement movement in New York has owed to this university man's sympathetic appreciation of its aims and difficulties. Finally, Professor Ripley of Harvard, "the oldest living graduate," added his tribute of gratitude and appreciation to Professor Seligman, the teacher, and concluded the list of addresses by presenting him with the medal designed for the occasion by Mowbray Clark. Notable as were these addresses, Professor Seligman's reply was easily the event of the evening. With characteristic modesty he turned attention from himself to the conditions that had made his work possible. His summing up of the debt that the scholar owes to his co-workers, the teacher to his pupils, and the citizen to his fellows will long linger in the memory of those who heard him. Altogether this spontaneous tribute to an unusual career was eloquent of the increasing appreciation with which disinterested social service is coming to be regarded.

STAGE CHILDREN

JANE ADDAMS

In the recent discussion concerning the appearance of children upon the stage, there has evidently arisen a confusion between the educational value of dramatic training and stage life as a money-earning occupation for children. As Francis Wilson in a recent article has quoted the appearance of children in the Hull House Theater in such wise as to increase this confusion, the following statement may be of value.

For many years at Hull House children have given plays varying from Alice in Wonderland and Puss in Boots by the little children, to the heroic plays of Wat Tyler and William Tell given by the older lads. Care has always been taken to relate the subjects to the natural interests of the children, and the plays are selected with reference to their imaginative, artistic, and historic content.

We consider this dramatic training of great educational value, and the plays which represent weeks of careful preparation, are given on exactly the same basis as are the recitals of the Hull House Music School, or the exhibitions of the Hull House Gymnasium.

No child is allowed to appear in more than two plays a year, and if during the rehearsal of the first play his school work has suffered, or if he neglects his other appointments at Hull House, he is not allowed to appear in the second play. During this training the child lives at home and is regular in his school attendance. He merely has the added education and stimulation of dramatic training as other Hull House children have lessons in music, painting and the plastic arts. His training is not for a moment to be compared to the vicissitudes and irregularities of professional stage life.

Our own experience in all of the art schools connected with Hull House leads us to the conclusion that laws protecting children need to apply to "art" quite as much as to factory labor. It is quite impossible to estimate the loss to society of artistic ability of all sorts, because we have failed to realize that talent must be zealously guarded and ed-

ucated, and because we have permitted gifted children to be prematurely exploited for the benefit of him who first chances to discover their unusual abilities.

FIRE AS A SOCIAL DESTROYER[1]

PETER JOSEPH McKEON

That women and children are the principal sufferers by fire is a fact that deserves particular attention at this time. The result may be simply the working of a general law that the weaker members should be the victims in all catastrophes, but the appeal to humanity is none the less strong. The record of lives lost in recent fire disasters in the United States bears out this statement.

In the Iroquois Theater fire in Chicago in 1903, which occurred at a Christmas matinee, the dead numbered 581 and the injured 240, mostly women and children.

The next year, 1904, the excursion steamer, General Slocum, took fire in the East river, New York, resulting in the loss of 950 persons, nearly all women and children on a church picnic. The pathos of this terrible disaster was intensified by the fact that most of the victims came from a certain section of the city which was practically a village in itself, so that the catastrophe meant the death or disruption of a great number of families.

In January, 1908, at a theater fire in Boyertown, Pa., nearly 200 women and children were killed.

In March of the same year occurred the fire in the school at Collinwood, near Cleveland, in which 173 lives were lost—two women teachers and 171 children.

What takes place when the victims number hundreds and even close to thousands is repeated when the destroyer is content with dozens and scores. The crowded East Side of New York, and all tenement districts for that matter, have fatal midnight fires as regular as the seasons.

All that human skill and bravery can do is done by the firemen. Ladders are raised to help relieve the fire escapes loaded beyond their working capacity. Life nets are spread to catch the human bundles self-flung to the pavement as a choice to roasting in the flames behind. Bridges and chains of stout limbs and bodies are constructed where apparatus does not avail. The work of rescue is performed as well as it ever can be done, but, when the last final search is made, there are the dozen or score who awoke too late, or being sick and helpless were doomed like trapped beasts in the jungle.

A list of these fatal tenement fires in New York shows with what regularity they occur:

Year	Location	Deaths
1903	426 Eleventh avenue	25
1904	164 Attorney street	14
1904	186 Troutman street	12
1905	105 Allen street	17
1907	222 Chrystie street	16
1907	251 East 109th street	12
1908	71½ Mulberry street	11

Women and children supply most of the victims for these fatal tenement fires. In fact the firemen report that all too frequently they find the men in the street, clamorously beseeching the firemen to save the women and children they have left behind. This may be due to a racial lack of physical courage, or it may be simply accident that the men are able to make their escape. It is only too true, however, in most fire panics the firemen are called to deal with, that they have to beat back the men in order to give the women and children the first chance to reach a place of safety. On one occasion known personally by the writer, a fireman straddling the window sills from one building to another had to punch an excited Italian before he could get him to stay and help carry his family from window to window.

What these men of the tenements do is not very different from what other men do in time of fire. It is not fair either to lay a general accusation of cow-

[1] This brief summary of the social aspect of fire losses—life and limb and property—is most timely in this first issue of THE SURVEY following the factory fire at Newark, N. J., in which twenty-four persons, all women workers, lost their lives, many others were injured and hundreds were thrown out of employment at the beginning of winter. An estimate of the social cost of the Newark fire will be published in an early issue with the co-operation of Mr. McKeon, who is a consulting engineer on fire insurance and fire protection, and the advisory member on fire protection of the State Charities Aid Association's New York city visiting committee.

ardice against men because they fail in the test by fire. In all too many cases the men are helpless themselves. Fire is master from the start and it is a hopeless conflict. All that human strength and courage can do is to perish with the people in danger. The attack is so sudden, so strange and new, the ways of meeting it unknown, the weapons not at hand or unfamiliar, that even the bravest men find themselves struggling with some superfoe. Flesh and blood simply cannot be opposed to this withering element. Is there anything more heartrending than the order by the fire chief, "Look under the beds for the children." That is part of the Fire Department routine at a tenement fire, to search for the bodies of abandoned little ones.

After a recital of deaths by fire as an item of human suffering, it is an anticlimax to refer to the loss of property. Yet the claims of the living deserve attention, and fire is a factor in the cost of living that cannot wholly be ignored. It has long been matter of observation by the Fire Department that people in tenements and even the better class of dwellings do not carry fire insurance. The investigation conducted by Robert C. Chapin on the standard of living in New York showed that in a group of 318 families, only forty-two per cent had provision for loss of property by fire. Of this forty-two per cent, the Italian families carried no insurance, only thirty-two per cent of the American, Irish, German and colored families carried insurance on property, while the Russian and Austro-Hungarian with eighty-nine per cent, were the only groups that carried it to any extent.

The subject has never had even the most superficial investigation, but the observations of the firemen are trustworthy enough to demonstrate that people in dwelling houses suffer considerable financial loss. A fire in a dwelling house means smoke damage, not actually destructive of clothing and furniture, but sufficient to cause some loss; it means water damage, which causes positive damage and loss to clothing, furniture and food, and it means heat and flame damage, which renders practically useless nearly everything in the apartment. The loss of clothing means a loss of personal equipment which must be replaced at some expense, and the damage or loss of furniture and food means a loss of home equipment which must be replaced at some expense. If it be considered that both the personal and the home outfits are secured after very great difficulty, and in many cases by the savings of months and years, it is evident that their loss or damage amounts to an economic tragedy for the poor.

In addition to the financial loss caused by damage there is the loss of income due to loss of employment caused by temporary or permanent stoppage of business resulting in the laying off of workers. Even a slight fire in mills and factories may throw hundreds of workers out of their jobs, while the total destruction of large plants sometimes works a permanent and disadvantageous change in employment conditions for thousands of workers. In a number of instances the burning of one establishment meant the destruction of a town's principal industry, which was also the only means of livelihood for most of the inhabitants.

If fire can be thus proved a destructive force in our living conditions, it is fair to ask what steps are being taken to control or minimize it. Even from the random and incomplete figures of loss in this article, it appears worthy of some remedial efforts by the great agencies that are today working for social betterment. As an economic problem, it is hardly yet in the first stages of solution; as a social problem, it is in a state of utter neglect. The best evidence of this is the absence of statistics. In New York, the great center of organized philanthropy and charity, there is no source, public or private, from which useful data on fire can be obtained. If the preliminary research has not been performed, it is hardly to be expected that remedial measures have either been projected or are in process of application.

THE WESTMORELAND STRIKE

A WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA STRUGGLE WHICH HAS BEEN GOING ON NINE MONTHS AND OF WHICH THE PUBLIC KNOWS LITTLE OR NOTHING

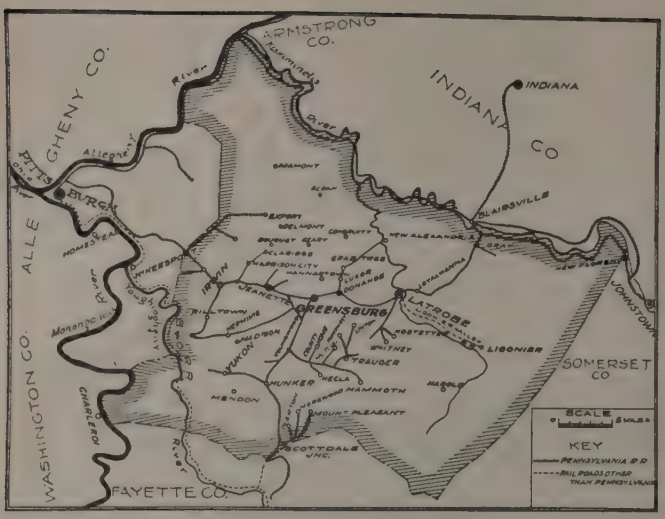
SHELBY M. HARRISON
PAUL U. KELLOGG

The scales clatter down from the hand of the granite statue of Justice on the Westmoreland county court house;—the American flag is ordered furled on the public highway by state police with guns;—in a high field at the Heath Farm, which hitherto has been the haunt of nothing more gruesome than scarecrows, mine-workers on strike string up the effigy of a "scab," which dangles by its neck in the wind;—in the little Catholic cemetery on the hill overlooking Yukon, which was given to the Church of Our Lady of Sorrows, the Slavic Father has planted a cross over a solitary grave, so he tells you, that the coal companies may know they cannot "buy a priest's body and soul."

If this were an age of superstition, men might find in these things omens of bad blood and ill-times afoot. And in this year of 1910 they are symbols on the one hand of the miners' insurrection (President Hutchinson of the Westmoreland Coal Company calls it "civil war") which for half a year has racked Westmoreland county, and on the other, of the lengths to which some of the operators have gone in their efforts to retain absolute authority over the coal pits of the region.

Of the existence of civil strife, the observer needs no signs nor tokens. It is here in its grim realities elbowing the customary routine of the farms and villages of this old Pennsylvania countryside. Tented hill-sides shelter evicted families, processions of rough clad miners led by fife and drum, flying Old Glory, tread the township roads, mounted troopers rattle six-shooters at their hips, rations by the wagon load are daily distributed by the union commissary, people have been arrested, half a dozen men have been shot dead, and non-participants, business men of Pittsburgh and others who made overtures toward peace, have been labeled "presumptuous and officious." Such a situation calls for a statement, both of what has happened and what, so far as an outsider can judge, are the social causes which underlie it.

Westmoreland is one of the largest and most important counties in Western Pennsylvania. Geographically, it lies in the great angle between the Allegheny and Monongahela rivers. Pittsburgh is twenty miles to the west, and the Westmoreland coal fields extend east toward Johnstown under the foothills of the Al-



Map by Alexis Sokoloff.

WESTMORELAND COUNTY.

leghenies. Greensburg, the county seat with a population of 15,000, Latrobe, Jeanette, Irwin, Yukon, Madison and Export stand out as the larger centers, and the principal companies are the Westmoreland Coal Company with headquarters in Philadelphia, the Penn Gas Company and the Manor Gas Company, both controlled by the Westmoreland Company; the Keystone Coal and Coke Company, Jamison Coal and Coke Company, the Berwind-White Coal Company, the Latrobe-Connellsville Coal and Coke Company, the Skelly Coal and Coke Company. The main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad runs through the district, sends arms out in all directions to the mines, and carries practically all of the coal loosened in the region.

From the standpoint of labor organization, the region lies between the Connellsville coke fields, where there have been no unions since H. C. Frick won his strike there in the eighties, and the Pittsburgh territory which makes up District No. 5 of the United Mine Workers of America, where the men have been making collective bargains with the operators for twelve years. In normal times from 17,000 to 20,000 men, Slavs predominating, are employed in the Westmoreland mines. The unions have hitherto been unable to get a permanent footing among them; and unlike the recent strike in the bituminous field of Illinois, this uprising has not been one of men thoroughly organized when they went out.

The control of the operators has been so complete, that the coming in of representatives of the United Mine Workers was to them an invasion of their territory by an enemy of whom they had ill opinion, and resented as such. They charged that these outsiders fomented the trouble, and that they had had emissaries at work six months before it began. This is denied. That the United Mine Workers have organized and backed up the Westmoreland men is a clear and open fact; equally certain would it appear that the men in more than a few of the mines had a stored up body of grievances, long battened down by the administrative policy of the managements. This needed only a fuse to set it off.

The fuse, oddly enough, was the new explosive introduced in January and February as a measure of safety in line with orders of the state mine inspector.[1]

At about the same time a new safety lamp was adopted by the companies and its use required also. As miners are paid by piece rates and have to furnish their own explosives, such changes in equipment are matters of cash to them. Dissatisfaction first developed among work-

[1] The state inspector selected ten or a dozen explosives as permissible, and after experiments the companies made a selection of the substitute to be used in Westmoreland for black powder. The introduction of the new explosives was the cause of trouble in the neighboring district, also, between the unions and the operators. To quote President M. H. Taylor, in his Tenth Annual Report to the Stockholders of the Pittsburgh Coal Company for the year ending December 31, 1909: "The question of permissible explosives has been the only difficulty with labor during the year, due to the State Mining Department insisting upon their use and the miners resisting their introduction on the ground of a claimed reduction in their carrying power. The question is one of vital importance, as black powder is believed to be the greatest menace to life and property that the industry contends with in the way of explosions and mine fires."

ers of the Keystone Company. Holding that the new lamp gave less light than the old, and that the new explosive broke up the coal finer than black powder, they claimed that they could not earn as much per day as before. The operators, on the other hand, state that while it takes more intelligence to use the new explosive, the results when it is properly handled are as good. (A bungler might well be a heavy loser, but that isn't the type of man you'd want to trust with black powder.) An officer of one of the companies stated that it employed demonstrators, and that the trouble lay in the men not giving the new charge a fair trial. But whatever the results were to be in the long run, it is fairly clear that the losses incident to the period of introduction were for the most part borne by the men, a distribution of the burdens of progress in which they had had no voice. Various estimates as to the drop in wages occasioned by the changes range from two per cent to twenty. One outspoken operator put it as high as five; a fair intentioned miner as low as ten. Changes tending to make a hazardous occupation less hazardous are naturally welcomed by the more intelligent miners, but habits of work are stubborn, and wages and the high cost of living were at such a point as to make the men slow to submit without a protest to anything that was cutting their pay.

A matching up of individual complaints led to indignation meetings in Greensburg in early March, to which miners from other camps were invited. The powder grievance was aired in the meetings. Following the second meeting twenty or more of the men in the Keystone Mines were discharged, one having been an employe for twenty-four years. The company's reason, as stated to us by a superintendent, was that these leaders had been reported as talking "very ugly against the operators." This action crystallized the movement toward union organization and the company was informed that unless the discharged men were reinstated, the union recognized, and the wage scale fixed on the basis of that in the adjacent Pittsburgh district, all the men would strike. The company refused the demands, and the 1,300 Greensburg miners left their jobs.

Plans were set on foot to extend the strike to other mines. The men formed in columns and marched from one mine to the next accompanied by bands and banners. The response was widespread. By the end of May, practically all the workers in the district had been affected. The largest number of men out on strike at any one time reached something over 17,000. Of these, by October, perhaps 10,000 had gone to other districts and 2,000 had gone back to work in their old places; some had, no doubt, shifted to other mines in the Westmoreland district, where they would not be known, but the great part of the remaining 5,000 were keeping up the fight. To fill their places the companies had brought in laborers from a distance. In the face of the many claims and counter claims, it is hard to get at how many of the old men remained at work, and how many of the strike-breakers have stayed and dug coal. Such indications as seemed reliable would put the output for the whole county during September as about fifty per cent normal. This estimate was acceded to by one of the operators who claimed, however, that while some of the smaller mines had done no work at all since spring, the five largest companies in the district, who were bearing the brunt of the fight, were getting out seventy per cent. Eighty-seven per cent of the Westmoreland force in September were new men.

Many of the workers lived in company houses, and strikers who did not move out when notified were evicted. To shelter them the United Mine Workers supplied about 500 tents during the summer. Land was leased, and camps, usually of from ten to twenty tents each, were put in commission. A bed or two, sometimes a table, several chairs and boxes, a few kitchen utensils, a provision basket and a pile of clothing furnished such a tent. The stove stood outside, and in some camps one stove cooked for several families. In warm, dry weather tent life did not prove unpleasant; but in the spells of wet weather everything became damp, the ground muddy, and general condi-

HEATH FARM, WESTMORELAND COUNTY, PENN.

A MASS MEETING AT ONE OF THE RURAL CAMPS.

FAMILIES EVICTED FROM COMPANY HOUSES: YUKON.

tions very bad. Most of the tents had but the one compartment and afforded no privacy for women or children. During the summer a number of babies were born under canvas, and the care of the mothers was necessarily inadequate.

Men willing to work at the wages and under the working conditions offered by the companies have been placed in the houses from which these families were ousted. Their presence has been resented and there has been a succession of cases of strikers catching strike-breakers on the street corners, and at other places away from the mines, and beating them up. For instance, one of the companies charges that twelve of its men were surrounded on the way to the evening train in Irwin on June 24 and beaten with blackjacks, brick-bats, empty beer bottles and clubs; that thirteen men were mobbed at the Pennsylvania Railway bridge at Irwin three days later; that on July 29 two hundred strikers from the Criterion Mine threw stones at the tipple and the houses where the strike-breakers were lodged; that on August 1, late at night, a crowd passed the home of John Ayres, called him an "old scab" and "blackleg," and promised him that his soul would be in hell before another week; that on August 3, a crowd of strikers stationed themselves on the hill opposite the houses at Shaft No. 2 of the Westmoreland Company, where the working miners were living, and proceeded to shoot into the houses.

This sort of friction dated back, however, to before the importation of the strike-breakers, the companies charging that numbers of their old men were intimidated at the outset. As to the demonstrations from mine to mine which inaugurated the strike last spring, it may serve to quote from a memorandum prepared by the superintendents of the Westmoreland Coal Company and approved by President Hutchinson. It should be read with the clear understanding that the statements are those of observers hostile to the men who participated in these rural marches, which were in a way reminiscent of the old time agrarian risings which have marked English history:

> Early in April, in fact at least two months prior to that time, the United Mine Workers had determined that the Irwin Field must be organized. The news of this understanding had a great influence throughout this region.
>
> On April 6, the miners who live in the vicinity of our Westmoreland shaft, namely, Westmoreland City, governed by this understanding, which had been thoroughly discussed at previous meetings held locally, decided that no one should be allowed to go to work on this day. The morning of the above date was very foggy, and as the men were on their way to work at the above mentioned mine, the Township Road was lined with the then so-called strikers, who fired volleys of stones, bolts and clubs, and threatened all the men whom they met with bodily violence and that their houses would be burned, their wives and babies murdered, and with this emphasis to their remarks said that "no one should work in that mine except they belonged to the United

A SQUAD OF MARCHERS.

Mine Workers of America," and said that they were acting under the direction of Francis Feehan, president of No. 5 District, United Mine Workers of America. In addition to this mob violence, they kept up a continual firing of revolvers and Winchesters until the fog lifted late in the forenoon. This performance was renewed at twelve o'clock at night and kept up until daylight the next day. Throughout all this time of mob rule there was no indication of any desire or efforts of any of the local peace authorities, or the sheriff of this county, to protect the interests of the company or its employes.

On April 11, between five and six o'clock in the morning, while our workingmen were going to Criterion Mine, they were met by about four hundred (400) marching strikers, who used all kinds of tactics to prevent them from going to work. Several of our employes were badly beaten up, several of the dinner buckets were taken from others and a riot was avoided only by the retreat of the men who desired to go to work. Notwithstanding the general knowledge of the situation in this vicinity, and the riotous methods adopted by the strikers, no effort was made by any of the local authorities to prevent these lawless actions.

On April 16, after a mass meeting held in the vicinity of our Export Mine by striking miners who came in from other mines then on strike, the men at work at Export Mine all stopped work and on the following night our mine foreman's house was set on fire. No effort was made on the part of the local authorities to apprehend the persons connected with this outrage.

On April 28, the situation throughout the entire field was serious. At Export about six hundred (600) men and seventy-five (75) women marched through the town from three o'clock in the morning until seven o'clock. At our Criterion Mine on the same morning, there were about fifteen hundred (1500) men and one hundred (100) women marching at four o'clock. There was stone throwing, howling, and everything was resorted to to intimidate men from going to work. At Westmoreland shaft on the same morning there were about two hundred (200) men and a lot of women who attacked the men going from work in the afternoon and six (6) of the workmen were badly beaten up; one of them in particular had to have the attendance of a physician, who put several stitches in his scalp.

On June 17 a mass meeting was held on the field, opposite Penn Mine No. 5, where about fifteen hundred (1500) strikers were assembled. On the way to the meeting ground, the marching strikers were met by the sheriff of Westmoreland county, John E. Shields, who asked the leaders to stop and disperse. The leaders disregarded this request, pushed the sheriff off the main public road into the ditch, and passed on to the meeting ground. When the meeting was about two-thirds over some of the striking miners, incensed by the sight of coal coming out of our mine, rushed down over the bank, stoned our workingmen, smashed all the windows in the motor house, and intimidated and threatened and drove the workingmen away from the mine. They were stopped from further destroying property only by deputy sheriffs who threatened to shoot if the men advanced to commit any further depredations. The local constable of Hempfield township and the constable of the Borough of Penn were in attendance at this meeting and made no effort whatever to disperse the crowd or quell the violence.

These early demonstrations occurred some months before we visited Westmoreland county, It is plain that feeling ran high, the men, hitherto unorganized, acting in undisciplined bodies. It is perhaps unnecessary at this date to attempt to decide too nicely as to the weight to attach to the conflicting versions of what happened. In September, we attended a meeting at the camp on the Heath Farm, which was later described to us by Keystone officials as an occasion when the talk was violent. A scarecrow effigy with miner's cap and pick stood on a pole in the center of the hill and the speaking,

which was in three languages, was listened to by a crowd of 1,500 men, seated about on the grass. What the English speakers said was not calculated to inflame their listeners, but to hearten them to hold out and keep up the fight; and apparently the Slavic and Italian leaders spoke in similar temper. The strikers resorted only to handclapping in showing their approval. In the shade of some big trees were family groups, and some of the men helped their women tend the babies while the speaking was going forward. The crowd had come over from Latrobe and Greensburg in two processions, with band and banners. The marches to and fro were wholly orderly, a truly remarkable showing considering the numbers involved, the length of territory traversed, the breaking up of one delegation by the police, and the fact that the conflict, with all its irritations, had been going on for six months.

In the memorandum quoted above, it will be seen that the companies charge that the local police officers and county authorities did not make adequate efforts in early spring to preserve order. This they give as justification for the means they thereafter employed to protect both their property and their new employes. The more serious clashes, however, have not been between the strikers and the strike-breakers, but between the old miners and the various peace officers who have been called in. One company of the Pennsylvania State Police is regularly stationed at Greensburg, a second was called in as reinforcement. A company when full numbers fifty-five men. In contrast to their fellow guardians of law and order, these mounted men are a disciplined lot, some of them having seen army service. They are fearless and as a rule they show judgment in the use of weapons, winning the respect of local public opinion and of the strike leaders. Whatever the point of view of the commanding officers, however, that of the rank and file is a limited one, and in an industrial dispute is likely to be warped to the purposes of the side whose property they are protecting. When we asked a trooper in Latrobe what he did when the foreigners raised trouble, he said, "Ride in and scoop 'em up, and beat hell out of 'em." They were Hunkies to him.

The locally commissioned officers have been of a different sort. Private watchmen and a few deputy constables have been used, but deputy sheriffs form the largest element in the force. At one time these numbered over 400, and over 200 are still employed. Beginning in May, these men have been sworn in by Sheriff Shields of Westmoreland county, but are put on the payrolls of the companies at three dollars a day and expenses. Over seventy-five per cent of the deputies are non-residents of the county and are regarded with suspicion by responsible citizens with whom we talked. Many of them proved to be heavy drinkers, and instances were cited where local sa-

The men in the front row, beginning with Van Bittner at the left, are organizers of the United Mine Workers. Between them, they can speak half a dozen languages effectively.

loon keepers shut them off from their bars in the interests of public safety. Since the strike began, two of them have been shot dead and another wounded by fellow-deputies, one of the murders occurring in a "speak-easy" brawl over a game of poker. Individuals of this stripe have been armed with modern guns and a star and turned loose to deal with the strikers. "We employed deputy sheriffs," said an operator, "because they were the only sufficient protection we could get, and the deputies employed were the best caliber of men which the coal companies could secure. Pretty soon the worthless ones were culled out and those that remain understand their duties, and make pretty efficient watchmen. If it had not been for the deputies our mines wouldn't have been running fifty per cent of what they are now."

The strikers and their sympathizers have not been slow to call names after the deputies and state police, and in a number of clashes deputies have been hit with clubs and stones, suffering minor flesh wounds. The two most serious cases of violence charged against the men on strike took place at Claridge and Export. To quote the Westmoreland Company's statement of the former:

> At midnight on September 26, at Claridge, Pa., seven shots were fired into House No. 14. This house was used as a boarding house for the working miners and there were twenty-seven men in the house at the time that the shots were fired. Four of the bullets passed entirely through the house, two of them striking the beds upon which the boarders were sleeping.
>
> About nine o'clock on the night of the twenty-seventh of September two bullets were fired through the house of the mine superintendent and two through the house of the mine foreman. There were twelve children, three women and the two foremen in this house. There is no doubt but that this shooting was done by striking miners, as no other person would have any reason to shoot through a house containing innocent children and women if the object were not to intimidate the foremen who have charge of the mine at that place. Under cover of darkness the perpetrators of this act disappeared and up to this time have not been apprehended. This company immediately offered a reward of $500 for the apprehension of the parties guilty of this dastardly act. In addition to the $500 reward offered by this company, a reward of $500 was offered by some of the citizens of that community, but there was no effort made on the part of the local police or township constable to investigate or try to apprehend the persons doing the shooting.

Organizers of the United Mine Workers are sceptical as to the above incident. They point out that many shots were fired and nobody hit; while the presence of women and children under fire was calculated to rouse public indignation over what had the ear-marks of an atrocity. They maintain that they have been unable to learn of anyone among the immigrant strikers who participated in the shooting. They point to cases, as in the Colorado mining troubles a few years ago, where company agents set off dyna-

EXPORT.
Where a company house was fired and there was shooting from the hilltops.

mite in order to discredit the men. The company, on the other hand, having offered a reward for the lawbreakers, asserts that here was a chance for the strike leaders to serve their cause and make money in doing it, by bringing in some evidence that the shooting was the work of deputies.

The Export case was described by one operator as a "dastardly attempt at wholesale murder." The town is located in a narrow valley, making most of the houses distinguishable from the surrounding slopes. On the night of July 15, a centrally located company house burst into flames and shots were fired from the hilltops. The Westmoreland Company charged that strikers set fire to the building in order to draw a crowd and then in the light of the blaze to pick them off with their Swiss rifles.[1] Circumstantial evidence at the subsequent trial tended to support this charge. The police and company officials say that they suspected the scheme and kept their men away from the circle of light. They state that 150 rounds were then fired, not only into the company houses generally, but into a number of houses owned by private citizens, such as druggists, physicians and merchants, who were accused of being in sympathy with the company. No one was hit. Later that night two state police and a deputy sheriff arrested four strikers who were suspected in the case, and in a sharp exchange of shots a striker was killed, and a constable wounded so seriously that he was likely to lose a leg. At the subsequent trial the arrested miners were convicted of rioting and arson; no one was charged with shooting the constable.

On the other hand, all stages of violence from petty to extreme have been charged against the deputies; for instance, that on April 25 at Rillton, Carlo Caligary was knocked senseless by a blow in the forehead, Deputy Green who struck the blow being later found guilty of aggravated assault and battery; that at Haydenville on June 9, a constable, in arresting three women, beat them, shackled them to the seat of his surry and carried them to jail; that at Hufftown July 12, John Hanck and John Artmar on their way home were attacked by four Keystone men, for no other reason than that they refused to return to work in the mines; that on May 5, without provocation, Frank Bostick was shot twice by a deputy sheriff at Westmoreland City; that the Cohens, a married couple, were in bed over their store near Edna No. 2, when the house was broken into and they were beaten up. The cases, like those charged by the companies against the men, cited on page 350, have not been verified by the writers; they illustrate the type of incidents which are related by the score in the mining towns. Only a public inquiry, with interpreters and power to subpoena witnesses, could get to the bottom of them. An example of the disparity of testimony offered from different quarters is illustrated by the two following paragraphs, descriptive of the same incident on June 12 or 13.

From the Westmoreland Coal Company:

> The statement embodied in the following paragraph is one of facts of the actual occurrence. There were between seventy-five (75) and eighty (80) women who began parading the streets of Export at 4.30 o'clock in the morning on the date above mentioned. They were armed with stones, clubs, empty beer bottles, red pepper and acids. At 5.40 o'clock, they assembled around the gate leading from our mule yard to the public road. As the first driver came out of the gate with his mule, red pepper was thrown in his face and eyes, and stones, bottles and clubs were thrown vigorously at him and the mule. This continued until several mules had succeeded in passing and several of the mules ran away. The state constabulary stood by while this was being done, and asked these women, very courteously, if they would not disperse and open up the public road so that the drivers and mules might pass out and go to their work. This request was not obeyed, but instead they be-

[1] The Kaufmann Department Store in Pittsburgh had a consignment of discarded Swiss army rifles, which people bought for decorating their "dens," etc. Some of these were purchased by immigrants for use in their lodge drills. The Westmoreland operators charge that immigrant strikers used them at Export and elsewhere, using for ammunition "slugs and powder with a round soft lead ball which, when it struck its mark, flattened out making the most dangerous wound" and the "most murderous piece of ammunition that has been used in this country." Justice Truxal of Greensburg, who has handled many of the cases of violence in his court, thought the average immigrant striker unarmed. The organizers of the United Mine Workers state that from the beginning they have urged the men to refrain from carrying weapons.

gan throwing stones, bottles and clubs at the state police. These women were accompanied by men who stayed in the background and said nothing, but furnished the stones, clubs, coal and bottles that were thrown at the police. When the sergeant realized that his efforts were of no avail, in order to disperse the crowd and open up the highway he ordered the hose turned on. This was done and the leaders arrested by the sergeant of the constabulary, who treated them at all times with all the courtesy that is due a woman. After they were arrested and were waiting for a conveyance to take them to jail, these women enacted the most indecent tactics that it is possible for women, calling all persons present all the filthy names that could be thought of, and raising their clothes over their heads, told everybody to look and come to them if they wanted. None of the women were abused or struck by any person, and the water was not thrown on all of them. There were a few in the crowd who did get wet, but the ones arrested were not wet.

From Secretary McCartney of the Greensburg Union, disbursing agent of the United Mine Workers:

Seven women of Export, while on the road in line of march, had a hose of hot water turned on them, with infants in their arms. The steam so thick that it blinded them, the water so hot that it burned them, and the force so strong that it knocked some of them down. Then the state constabulary came up and arrested the women and when they made the request that they be permitted to go to their homes and get dry clothes, the state police sent for clothes and wanted them to strip in the mule yard. When they refused they were taken to jail as they were, children and all, and left there thirty-six hours and getting a hearing were discharged. This case caused a clash in the squire's office. Men openly cursed the state police and told them that if it was a mother, wife or daughter of theirs they would shoot them wnere they stood. It certainly was one of the dirtiest jobs on record.

Conversations with non-participants in Greensburg and other of the mining towns convinced us that in a number of instances deputies overstepped their authority, beating up miners with little or no provocation and handling women and children roughly. As officers of the law, the deputies have a legal right to resort to force where necessary (as citizens have not except in self-defence), but at the same time, as officers of the law, they should if anything be held to even stricter accountability for any extra legal or unwarranted acts. Now all fatalities which have occurred since the outbreak of the strike have been at the hands of these imported police. Between April and October five miners were killed outright. We asked Sheriff Shields to cite the case in which, to his mind, the deputies were most clearly acting within their responsibilities in shooting to kill. He gave us this:

John Snelling, deputy sheriff, a man who does not drink, was met near the Claridge works at about dusk on the evening of July 13 by about forty strikers. They told him that he could not go on but must go back. He refused to return, telling them to get out of his way, as he was going through. The strikers blocked the way, crowded around to argue, and some one hit Snelling with stones and clay. In the pushing and crowding Snelling says he saw a man named John Pulter reach to his hip as if to pull a gun. Snelling shot Pulter and killed him instantly. Snelling was arrested and held on a charge of murder.

Snelling's trial resulted in an acquittal on the ground of self-defence.

Another case was that of Mike Cekan, a Slav, who was shot at Bradenville on the morning of May 27 and died several hours later at the Greensburg Hospital. Frank Chrowe, superintendent of the Latrobe Coal Company, was arrested, charged with murder and released on $8,000 bail. The circumstances as alleged by Curtis H. Gregg, a member of the bar of Westmoreland county, who acted as attorney at Greensburg for the United Mine Workers, were as follows:

A few minutes before six o'clock, two mounted deputies were passing along the highway having in charge four foreigners. Mike Cekan met them and spoke in a foreign tongue to those under arrest, who then fled. The deputies, instead of pursuing those under arrest, chased Cekan, who attempted to conceal himself in a coal shed. The deputies followed him to the shed and there began to beat him. He pleaded with them not to beat him, saying he had done nothing. While the deputies were assaulting him, his wife arrived and joined in the plea for mercy and asked them to desist. While this was going on Chrowe, the superintendent, came to the scene. The deputies were unable to take Cekan from the shed and were retiring when Chrowe shot through the window. One witness testified at the habeas corpus hearing for the release of Chrowe on bail that Chrowe shot three times. The testimony elicited the fact that Cekan was most brutally beaten before he was shot. Follow-

ing is a description of the wounds, taken from the testimony of Coroner H. A. McMurray, a physician: Left arm above elbow, two abrasions; left shoulder, posterior contusion; right shoulder, posterior contusions and abrasions; scalp wound on top of head about one inch long.

Cekan was survived by a widow and several children, the youngest of whom was an infant in arms. The family was evicted from the company house during the course of the summer.

At the October term of court testimony was adduced tending to show that Chrowe shot Cekan at the moment the latter, with an upraised pick, was about to strike one of the police officers. Chrowe was acquitted by the jury on the ground of preventing an imminent felony.

It would seem that the operators were shouldering a heavy responsibility when, as a measure of self-defense, they brought such an irritating and ill-governed force into the region as the deputy sheriffs have proved. Only dire straits, coupled with inability to secure other protection (which they claim was the case), or other more reputable protectors (which it is difficult to believe) would warrant the employment of a guard of such personnel. Many circumstances, moreover, indicate that the matter has not rested at self-defense. It is, of course, not thinkable that the acts some of these men have been guilty of were part of a deliberate plan of a few of the operators, still less of all. Some of the operators have expressed themselves in unmeasured terms of the caliber of the sheriff's force. There are plenty of indications, none the less, that the use of this force, such as it has been, has not been restricted by the operators merely to the protection of their mine property and the safety of the new men. They have carried on an aggressive program to break up the unexampled opposition to their authority on the part of their former employes. This last they have regarded as the work of a combination of foreigners and outside agitators. They have made efforts to keep the strikers from locating their canvas settlements near the mines and to stop the mass meetings. In the accompanying column is shown an injunction secured from the Court of Common Pleas by the Jamison Coal and Coke Company, prohibiting the establishment of a camp on private property adjacent to its mines. The operators charged that some of these nearby camps were made up wholly of single men, were established merely for the sake of intimidation, and were the source of fusilades of missiles, etc. The strike leaders, on the other hand, held that the superintendents did not want their new men to have such tangible evidence of the persistence and strength of the strike. Injunctions were secured also from Judges McConnell and Doty, prohibiting the miners from conducting marches on the public highway near the mines,

IN THE COURT OF COMMON PLEAS OF WEST MORELAND COUNTY, PENN'A.

SITTING IN EQUITY

No 746 Equity.

Jamison Coal & Coke Company, a Corporation of the State of Pennsylvania, Plaintiff,
vs.
United Mine Workers of America, an Association Incorporated or Unincorporated, Marshall Marracini, et al., Defendants.

DECREE.

And now, June 1st, 1910, this case came on for hearing on motion to continue the preliminary injunction granted May 26th, 1910, until final hearing, and after the taking and hearing of all testimony presented, it is adjudged and decreed as follows

That the United Mine Workers of America, an Association, incorporated or unincorporated, Marshall Marracini, Charles Shaw, Joseph Littlewood and George Thompson, organizers, officials or members of said association, Christopher Columbus, John Morgan, John Marks, James Dinsmore, John Luteransic, William Green, Joe Filician, Elmer Harris, James Walker, William Hays, George Cushing, Joe Leich, Joe Vedidick, Nick Yardish, Stanley Begos, Frank Begos, Charles Kickler, John Franchic, Frank Checkers, Patrick Duffy, Patrick Galvin, Philip Duffy, H Brown, Patrick Cairns, Tony Palo, Adam Shurkosky, Frank Bakat, Anton Bernitoski, George Conquash, Andy Conquash, Andy Surin, Joe Kurtz, John Lance, Link Lance, Archie McKeever, John Heasley, William Logan, Harry Heasley, George Ray, Sr Lew Hawn, Jacob Heasley and James Cole, defendants, and all other persons who may at any time hereafter assemble with them or aid or assist them in the acts complained of in the bill in this case, be enjoined and restrained from conducting or engaging in marches to and past the mines, property and works of the Jamisbn Coal & Coke Company, and from assembling at or near the works of said company for the unlawful purpose complained of in this bill and indicated by the testimony in this case; and it is further decreed that as a mode for the accomplishment of such unlawful purpose of intimidation, they be enjoined and restrained from establishing and maintaining camps upon the immediately adjacent lands of Ruffner's heirs or elsewhere in such close and immediate proximity of the plants and property of the complainant whereon to collect large bodies of men brought from other localities with a view and for the purpose of thereby intimidating complainant's employees who desire to work by any such display of hostile force, or by means of noise, threats of personal violence, opprobrious epithets addressed to said employees or any of them from that point, or by any other hostile and unlawful means whatsoever to operate on the fears of said employees, or to thereby interfere with complainants in the operation of their works This decree to remain in force until final hearing and until the further order of the Court Such of the defendants named in the bill as are not specifically named in this decree have not been shown by proof to have participated in the unlawful acts complained of in the bill, and therefore, the injunction as to them is discharged

BY THE COURT

Attest
HARRY N. YONT,
Prothonotary

A PENNSYLVANIA INJUNCTION.

where the men at work might see; and "near" was at times construed by deputies and state police as meaning anything up to half a mile. The strike leaders even charge that at various times the deputies have endeavored to provoke the marchers into disturbances which would discredit the strike, or give an excuse for a force, held in ambush, to descend upon them and clean them up. On the way over to the meeting on the Heath Farm, which we attended, the Greensburg column was stopped a mile short of the camp by the state police. No question whatever was raised as to the strikers' complete orderliness, but they were permitted to pass the Jamison mines between Crabtree and Donohue only on condition that they would break ranks, stop their drum and furl their flag.[1]

"What right have you in the constitution to make men furl the flag of the United States on a public highroad?" asked Vice-president Van Bittner of the United Mine Workers, when he met the broken procession, young men and old, trudging along under the eye of the state police.

"I don't care anything about that," said a trooper, "but they've got to keep that flag down or they don't get past."

Reference has already been made to the fact that the companies complain that local peace officers could not be depended upon to keep order and protect property. They also charge that they were unable to get satisfactory action on the part of local squires. For instance, it is alleged that an agent of the Westmoreland Company was attacked on the main street of Irwin on July 28, thrown into the creek and told never to come back. It is further alleged that this happened under the eyes of the local police who did not attempt to interfere, and that when the case was tried, the ring leaders swearing that they were not at the scene of the disturbance, Squire Truxal discharged them and placed the costs on the prosecutors.

The strikers, however, are even more outspoken that the squires have played into the hands of the operators. In support of these charges, it is to be said, as a matter of common experience, that immigrant workmen are little likely to get their deserts in the ordinary ministrations of the alderman's court system of Pennsylvania. Especially is this true when either a local constable or an industrial corporation is the complainant against them. "There's no law in Pennsylvania any more for the poor man,"

The little man at the left is a hunchback, fifty-six years old, whose arm was broken in one of the so-called riots; at the right is Toni Izikowich, whose trial is described in the text. The man in the center, a six-footer, shows by comparison the bulk of the men whom the deputies handled in the rough and tumble.

said a labor leader at the close of a hearing which we attended, the first week in October, and before this same Squire J. Q. Truxal of Greensburg. The case involved Toni Izikowich and Deputy Constable Boyle who had visited the camp near Salemville in order to serve a warrant upon a striker for some minor offence. The testimony was indefinite and contradictory, but it indicated that after Boyle arrested his man, the miners gathered around the two clamoring against the man's going. In the mix-up Boyle, Izikowich, Mine Superintendent Taylor of the Keystone Company and

[1] Said an operator to whom the case was put afterward: "In the view of many American citizens, the flag was being prostituted. The red flag of anarchy would have been a more fitting emblem for the marchers to carry."

several others were shoved into a tent and a number of shots were fired. Each side accused the other of the shooting, but the officers had no guns secured in the camp to offer in evidence of their claim. Toni was badly beaten, dragged to the road and handcuffed. Boyle acknowledged that he struck Toni five times. Toni identified Boyle as the man who struck him. It appeared that several armed state police were near the camp at the time and could have been called by Boyle and Taylor. The charge against Toni was pointing firearms. He entered a cross information against Boyle, *et al.*, and both cases were heard at the same time. In giving his decision, Squire Truxal said:

> The evidence is about a stand-off on both sides. Nothing seems to corroborate anything else. The condition of the defendant, however, is such as to indicate that more than necessary force was used in dealing with him, especially since five or six other officers were near at hand. I dismiss both cases.

The two attorneys for the mine superintendent and the state police smiled at each other and one of them remarked in our hearing, "That's all we wanted."

In conversation with Squire Truxal afterward, he justified his decision by saying, "Knowing how these things go, the chances are that this miner would be stuck for costs if I sent the case into court, and so I dismissed it."

The only comment made by the miners was the one noted; it is to be heard everywhere on the street corners in the Westmoreland towns.

The case of Paolo Valentine, a barber of Rillton, as told among the strikers, illustrates further why they feel that they are at a disadvantage in the courts. They allege that because he called "Hello Buddy" to a handcuffed striker whom he recognized as one of his patrons, he was knocked down and shot at. For the resistance he put up against arrest, he was charged with aggravated assault and battery. Of this he was acquitted, though not until he had spent several days in jail. In contrast, it is alleged that the first squire, before whom he made a counter information, failed to issue a warrant against the two company men named, asked for an extortionate bill of costs, and finally returned a transcript to court for but one of them, whom he released on his own recognizance. Only when the case was taken up before another justice on a new information were the men put on bail; later they were found guilty in quarter sessions of felonious assault and pointing firearms.

Most of the cases never get beyond the hearings in the squires' courts. Altogether, around one thousand miners and strike sympathizers have been jailed in the course of the strike; more than that, the coal companies, acting in concert, secured warrants in August calling for the arrest of eighty-seven local and district labor leaders on charges of conspiracy.

With these things going on, by a mere chance the scales fell from the statue of Justice which decorates one of the gables of the county court house. It occurred when court was in session; small wonder that immigrant strikers referred to it as having some supernatural meaning.

One further fatality, a case which ramifies in several directions, may close the series of illustrative examples:

> On Saturday, May 7, one Peter Leybach, a Croatian employed by the Westmoreland Coal Company to secure "strike-breakers", arrived at Yukon with three men. The three left their clothes and other belongings at East Yukon, a section of the town not owned by the company, before going to the company property. Next day, Sunday, when they returned for their clothes, they were interviewed by the Slavic strikers. As a result, they joined with the strikers and in company with Peter Leybach went to a Polish house in Yukon proper. The strikers furnished them their meals and advised them to leave the district. Shortly after noon, eight deputies came to the house and asked for Leybach. When Leybach and the men came out they told the deputies that they had made up their minds not to work for the company. The deputies went back to their barracks, and at about four o'clock, twenty-five of them, marching in double column, armed with rifles and revolvers, returned to the Polish house and demanded admittance. In the meantime, Leybach and his fellows had left. When Mrs. Sentine, the boarding-boss, refused admittance, one of the deputies pushed her aside, entered and searched the house. A crowd had gathered and when the deputy was unable to find the men, they laughed and jeered. One deputy lost his head and fired a shot. Thereupon, the deputies knelt and let off a volley to disperse the crowd. This was responded to with stones. The deputies made their way out of the yard, shooting in all directions. Many

houses show bullet marks, thirty persons were injured and Paul Renomeno was killed. Only four persons were shot on the streets, the others being on porches, steps, in houses or in their own yards. Hearing the noise, Renomeno rushed from his house and at his own gate a bullet struck his breast. Eighteen deputies were arrested and subsequently released upon $3,000 bail. After their trial, in October, the jury returned a verdict finding all the eighteen guilty of voluntary manslaughter. The case was appealed, but a majority were unable to furnish bail and were sent to jail, where they are still being held.

The story, as told us in several quarters by men who sympathized with the strikers and were present at the trial, is as given above. Differences in language, and the feeling of bitterness engendered when a man's comrades or kin are the unarmed victims of men with guns, add to the difficulties of getting at the exact steps in such a conflict. The important details given by my informants were identical. On the other hand, an official of the Westmoreland Company stated that he had never been able to get two people to agree as to what had happened. He thought it a case of nerves; the deputies got frightened; and he is confident that in the new trial they have asked for they will be acquitted.

Yukon is a comparatively new mining settlement, and in line with their usual custom (a custom which the officers say has had no ulterior motive), the Westmoreland Company, just before the strike was declared, had deeded 1.6 acres of ground there to Bishop Canevan of Pittsburgh for the purpose of building a church, school and parochial residence. Paul Renomeno was buried in this ground. Behind that fact lies considerable of a story involving E. G. Smith, superintendent of the Westmoreland Company at Irwin, and the Rev. M. Tusek, priest of the parish. It was a saying of Mr. McCullough, late president of the Westmoreland Company, that "the Catholic Church is the only church which can control this class of people," referring to the miners. The saying is recalled by his associates as made in all kindliness, the company, they say, never attempting to influence improperly any priest of the church. Subsequent events, however, indicated that at least one officer of the company had not looked for

REV. MICHAEL TUSEK.
Priest of the Church of Our Lady of Sorrows, Yukon.

opposition from the quarter benefited. For their part, the company officials charge that the Slavic priest had wanted the company to serve his own ends—to collect church dues for him from the pay envelopes of his parishioners, and to discharge certain men who wanted to organize a fraternal lodge outside the church, and was disgruntled because they would not do so for him. When the strike broke out they regarded him as a trouble breeder, and on March 21 he received the following peremptory letter:

Rev. Tusek:
Yukon, Pa.

Dear Sir.—I have information that you are bringing a certain pressure to bear on some of our workmen at Yukon, and I would like to say that any interference from you or your church people coming at this time, will be very detrimental to the Westmoreland Coal Company. I will, therefore, ask you to drop everything concerning your church organization until you have advice from me.

I shall insist on your carrying out these instructions and trust that we will have no further derogatory information. I hope you will acknowledge receipt of this letter, with a promise to carry out my instructions. Thanking you in advance, I am

Yours truly,
E. G. Smith,
Superintendent.

A week later another letter followed:

Rev. Michael Tusek:
Yukon, Pa.

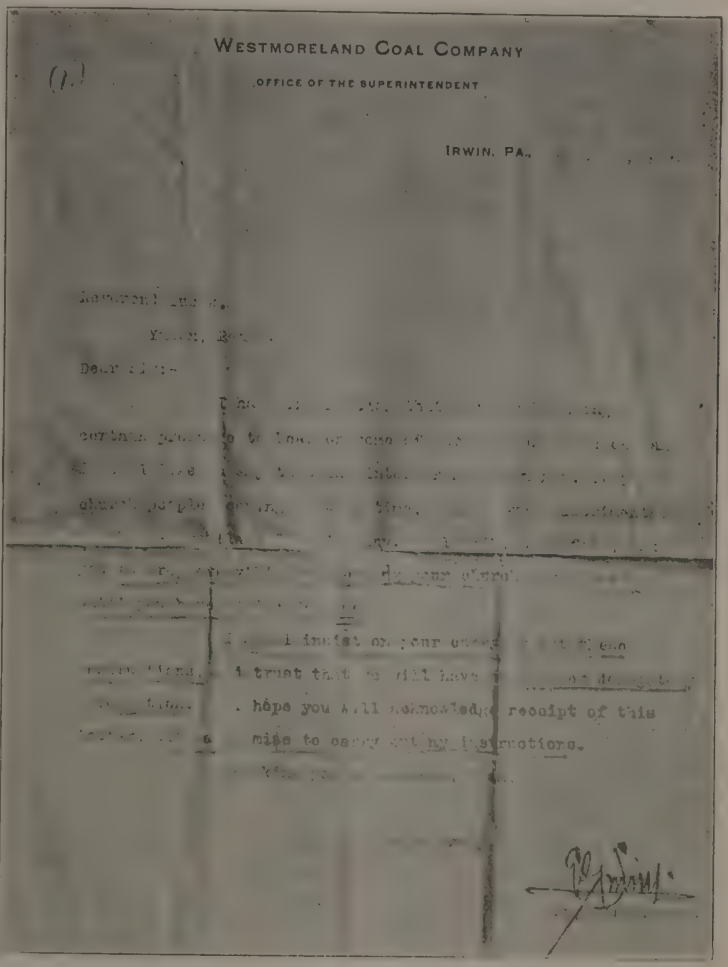
Dear Sir.—On March 21 I wrote you a

letter concerning several matters, and in that letter I asked you to acknowledge receipt of it with the promise to carry out my instructions. To date, I have had no answer, and am writing you now to ask if you will please comply with my request.

Yours truly,
E. G. SMITH,
Superintendent.

Father Tusek claims that he held to a neutral course up to the time of the receipt of the second letter, but that these letters, coupled with inquiries he made into the causes of the strike, led him to take up the cudgels for the men who had left off work. In reply, he came out with a public statement to the effect that he was "not a priest of or for any company, but a priest of the Roman Catholic Church and for the people who constitute the congregation," and that he would "not accept any advice nor carry out any instructions of any company or its officials."

Friction continued between priest and company in the succeeding weeks. Father Tusek was arrested for trespassing on company property and fined in a squire's court. The company claimed that under guise of making pastoral calls, he was visiting the men in the company houses and inciting them not to work. Then, early in May, came the Saturday when the deputy sheriffs marched down on the Polish house in Yukon where Peter Leybach, the Croatian strike-breaker, was thought to be in hiding, and in the shooting affray that followed thirty-one persons were injured, mostly Father Tusek's parishioners, and Paul Renomeno was killed. In the absence of a church burial ground, the priest decided to lay



WESTMORELAND COAL COMPANY

(1.)

OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

IRWIN, PA.

A COMPANY SUPERINTENDENT'S INSTRUCTIONS TO A PARISH PRIEST.
The underlining is Father Tusek's.

the remains temporarily, at least, in the plot given by the company to the Church of Our Lady of Sorrows. Of his reasons for doing so, Father Tusek said:

Why did I allow this? First, because I wanted to give a little satisfaction to the outraged people; and secondly, because I wanted to give the officials of the Westmoreland Coal

Company a dose of medicine which they generally like to prescribe for other people, but do not like to take themselves; and, also, because I wanted to make them understand that by a donation to the church they do not and cannot buy the priest's body and soul.

We have seen, then, a rising among the miners of these Westmoreland hills. In the face of it the ordinary machinery of law and order broke down. To meet the situation, the companies called into play an armed force of such a character and injunctions of such a nature as enabled them to continue operations, but these, if anything, occasioned even more violence than before (partly the acts of the men enlisted to enforce the law and the injunctions). The strikers, largely immigrants, to an extent controlled by the labor organizers, have held out for nine months and have resorted to sporadic violence. The events of the summer have not been of a sort to give assurance of the sufficiency of the social machinery of Western Pennsylvania to deal with such an industrial crisis, or to train the immigrant workmen into a knowledge of American ideals in government and citizenship. It remains to look further into the causes underlying the strike and to ask what efforts, if any, have been made toward settlement.

STRIKE CAUSES

The cause of the strike as viewed by the operators is the desire of the United Mine Workers to organize the Westmoreland fields, thereby increasing their revenue, bringing all miners under the one powerful organization, and incidentally giving the officers of District No. 5 prestige in the internal policies of the national body. They claim that before the first outbreak, agitators had been in the county stirring up discontent with the one purpose of unionization. The companies object to unionism and the machinations of these outsiders last spring, they say, caused the break in relations between themselves and their men. The union leaders reply that they are no more outsiders than the stockholders of the Westmoreland Coal Company, for example, which is an old Philadelphia company with headquarters in the eastern end of the state; that they have been trying from time to time for years to organize the district; that the presence of organizers and their purpose have been known, and that if the men want the union they have a right to have it.

The strikers, on the other hand, sum up the issues at stake as wages and other conditions of employment, and the right to organize to improve them. The powder question, they assert, simply brought their grievances to a head. First, excepting the mines of the Westmoreland Company and a few of those of the Keystone Company (these exceptions are important and should be borne clearly in mind), practically all of the workers in this field are paid not by the ton, but by the wagon load. They say that the size of the wagon has been increased from time to time and that they are made to "hump up" the coal above the level of the wagon top, without a corresponding increase in the pay per wagon. They therefore want to be paid by weight, and to be permitted to place a check-weighman at their own expense at each mine, to see that their coal is properly weighed and credited. At several of the Keystone mines, the men have their own checkers; and the president of the Westmoreland Company concedes the men this right under a state law[1] (declared unconstitutional in Allegheny county), and states that it is optional with his men whether or not they have one. No request, he says, had been made to his company prior to the strike. To his mind, the real reason for the absence of check-weighmen at the West-

[1]Article 13, Section 8, the bituminous mining law, reads as follows: "That at every bituminous coal mine in this commonwealth where coal is mined by weight, the miners or a majority of those present, at a meeting called for that purpose, shall have the right to employ a competent person as checkweighman, who shall be permitted at all times to be present at the weighing of the coal. He shall also have the privilege to balance and examine the scales and he shall not be considered a trespasser during working hours while attending to the interests of his employers and in no manner shall he be interfered with or intimidated by any person, agent, owner or miner. When differences arise between the checkweighman or owner of the mine as to the correctness of the scales, the same shall be referred to the mine inspector of the district where the mine is located, whose duty it shall be to regulate the same at once." This act has been declared unconstitutional by the county court in Allegheny county, on the ground that the "title of the act does not give notice of the penalty." Commonwealth *vs.* Hartzell, 5 D. R. 148. (1895). The constitutionality question has not been taken up to the Pennsylvania Supreme Court, but the Pittsburgh decision would doubtless have an influence in other counties if the point were raised.

moreland tipples is that the men soon imagine that the checkers are secretly in the pay of the company (this is reported to have been the cause for their discontinuance at certain shafts in the past), and the real reason why the union leaders want to install them is not to check up the tonnage, but to have an agent handy who can call out the men at every whip-stitch and harass the management. It should be borne in mind, however, that the Westmoreland Company has been opposed to collecting the wages of such check-weighmen from the pay envelopes of the men in the pits, and that the company's unwillingness to do so, coupled with its policy of keeping the men from organizing, has practically blocked any stable method of financing check-weighmen on the part of the men; a situation which may have fostered naturally enough the suspicions referred to.

Such inquiries as we were able to make as to the wagon system of payment, seemed to indicate that the grievance was not so much that the practice reduced earnings to any large extent, as that it kept the men in the dark when they wanted to compare what they were paid with the tonnage rates paid elsewhere. What they want is a system which will make them more certain that they are paid exactly what they earn, neither more nor less. The only objection offered by the operators concerned is the old stand-pat objection, that they "never have paid by weight *before;* why now?"

Taken together, these two demands mean simply that the movements in recent years for pure food laws and other regulations looking to more honest values, weights, and measures for the consumer, have a counterpart among this group of bituminous coal producers.

Second, claims are put forward by men in different mines that they have received little or nothing for "dead work," that is, for removing clay or slate, pumping water out of the mine, and other work which delays them in filling their wagons. Their contention was acknowledged by several operators to be true with respect to slate under six, eight, and in some cases, ten inches in thickness; but for removing slate thicker than that, each man is paid through an individual bargain with his foreman, and the employers say that they try to get "bosses" who will deal fairly with the workers. The men demanded that they be paid according to the Pittsburgh scale, which fixes a common "dead-work" rate definitely for all men for each contract period.

Third, the strikers asked for an eight-hour day, with the Pittsburgh district wage scale, for all inside men paid by the day. In addition to receiving slightly higher wages, day workers in the Pittsburgh district are on an eight-hour basis instead of a ten, as in Westmoreland. This two hours' margin is reduced, however, by a difference in the methods of reckoning when and where the work day begins. For instance, in the Pittsburgh district the work day for drivers is figured from the time they reach their places in the mines until they leave them again, while in most of the mines of Westmoreland county the time consumed in going to and from the stables to the mines, whatever the distance, is counted in the ten hours.

Finally, the men claimed that earnings for tonnage workers were lower than those in the Pittsburgh district. We talked with men who said they had been averaging about the same amount of coal daily for the last fifteen or twenty years, and although the rates of pay had increased occasionally, they held that their net earnings were less than in former years—at any rate that after they had met their everyday living expenses they had less left over than formerly.

Differences in mine and labor conditions (the hardness of the coal, thickness of veins, size of screens, etc.) and in methods of payment between the two districts make comparisons difficult; such data as are available, however, indicate that average earnings were lower in the strike district, but that the difference was not great. As to the trend of wages, neither the Keystone Company nor the Jamison Company could furnish figures extending back of 1904. A statement

from the latter shows the average daily earnings of its day men (drivers and mine laborers) to have increased 10.6 per cent from 1904 to 1909, the last year before the strike began. 1904, however, is probably not a fair year to reckon from;[1] the 1909 average was 4.4 per cent lower than that for 1906 and 5.9 per cent lower than that for 1907.

As for the real miners, those who dig the coal, the price per wagon was the same in 1909 as it was in 1904, while in the Pittsburgh district tonnage rates increased over five per cent in the same period. Even taking the earnings of the day men and the 10.6 per cent increase claimed since 1904, the raise in wages has not been enough to keep pace with what recent estimates show the increase in the cost of living to have been during the same period. Here we may account, at least to some extent, for the diminishing cash surplus which the miners have found in their pocketbooks after paying their living expenses.

So much for wages. Aside from them, unionism was stated by both strikers and operators as the issue. When the whole thing has simmered down, however, and the nature of the wage controversy is taken into account, something other than wages, as such, or unionism, as such, shows itself as underlying these two issues. The issue is unionism in so far as unionism means interference with the employers' absolute determination of the labor contract. The issue is wages in so far as the workers are not allowed to present any united front in demanding the things which affect wages up or down. But control is the word; the real question is one of industrial control. The workers ask some voice in their labor contract; and the operators insist that the decision shall rest entirely with them, except in so far as the bargaining ability of a miner, as an individual, may effect something. An illustration has been the operators' refusal to agree upon a schedule of specified rates for "dead work," and their insistence upon settling the matter directly with each man. As between foreman and individual miner, it is evident that the foreman is in the position of advantage. It means company control also when operators refuse to adopt a weight system enabling workers, through their own check-weighman, to be certain that their pay keeps pace with their work. The other two wage points, the eight-hour day and the Pittsburgh scale of prices, are phases of the control question, since consent to the miners' demands in these would mean that the operators were bargaining with the workers collectively, agreeing upon wage prices and conditions for a specified time. And such a collective bargain, as against company rulings, is again the rub.

Unionism crystallizes the issue even more clearly, in so far as the existence of any organization among the men would tend to even up permanently bargaining power of employer and employe. Thus, Edward Soppitt, general superintendent of the Jamison Company, echoed

[1] In the neighboring Pittsburgh district, wages in 1904 were lower than in 1903.

NOTICE

TO EMPLOYEES OF THE WESTMORELAND COAL COMPANY, AND TO ALL WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.

It has been stated in several newspapers, and also by various individuals, that the Westmoreland Coal Company has had a meeting with some of its former employees, or intends to have a meeting, after which, it has been stated, the Westmoreland Coal Company will sign what is known as the "Pittsburgh Scale."

THIS IS UNTRUE, and we wish to make this statement:—No officer of this Company has had, nor will have, a meeting with any of its former employees. This Company will not sign the Pittsburgh Scale, nor will it make any change in wages or working conditions. **ALL MEN WHO ARE NOW WORKING FOR THIS COMPANY WILL BE RETAINED AS LONG AS THEIR WORK AND CONDUCT ARE SATISFACTORY, AND WILL BE PROTECTED BY THE LAW FROM MOLESTATION.**

S. PEMBERTON HUTCHINSON, President.

A RECENT NOTICE POSTED IN WESTMORELAND COUNTY.

what the operators themselves have said: "This company will *not* recognize the union. We will deal with our own men as such, but will not deal with them as an organization."[1] John M. Jamison, president, said: "The companies object to any move to tie all the miners into one large organization. Our chief objection is on the point of the unions fixing wages." The fact that before the union was effectively organized twenty men were discharged by the Keystone Company for jointly criticising the operators shows the prevalent attitude toward any united resistance. Organized action, whatever the name it goes under, is objected to as infringing on the authority which the operators regard as inherent in the ownership of the mining property and necessary to its operation.

In the words of one official, the immigrant miners are like a lot of sheep and the United Mine Workers exploit them. Here's a clever man. He's district leader and has a lieutenant among the Slovaks, another among the Russians, another among the Italians, and so on. They follow. The companies' argument against what they decry as false leaders and a lawless association would have certain standing, if they could demonstrate that in past years their men have had ample channels for self-expression in matters affecting their work, and were secure in making any legitimate protest. With respect to the immigrant laborers, one operator stated that in their various national lodges the Slavs have organizations in which they discuss matters bearing on their work, and through which they can be said to make their wants known. They used to do this through the priests, but "now they've gotten away from them. It's a pity, too, for some were fine men, who helped the sick. Said President Hutchinson:

> We cannot recall any cases where our men have been dropped for proposals of any kind covering a wage dispute or change in labor conditions. While it is true that we have some instances of dissatisfaction for local grievances, such as crop up in any organization where such a diversified collection of different classes of workmen are employed, these cases are of a very trifling nature and the policy of our company has always been to investigate to the full extent of the complaint, giving the employe the benefit of all doubt and a respectful hearing. The policy of this company has been that all men who are in its employ are retained as long as their work and conduct are satisfactory.

In response to further inquiry, it developed that the channel for negotiations open to the men has been through the mine foreman; and that if dissatisfied with his decisions, they could take up questions with the superintendent or in turn with the general officers of the company. To the latter, this stated chance of appeal, coupled with the fact that for fifteen years there had been no strike in the district, seemed assurance enough that the rank and file were secure against any tyranny on the part of foremen and under-superintendents, and were sure of a fair hearing for any changes in work conditions which they might propose. Conditions in the different mines and companies of the district have varied considerably, so that general statements are difficult as to the actual working out of administrative policies. But the outstanding grievances put forward by the men, once they were out on strike and no longer within reach of discharge, are of too widespread and specific a nature to be viewed as the trumped up charges of a few agitators. If the channels of self-expression were there, the men very evidently had not had a working faith in them. The Jamison and Keystone companies advanced their tonnage rate 3.33 per cent in January, last, and 3.33 per cent on the first of April. The Westmoreland Company made no raise in January, but increased its rate 6.66 per cent on the later date.[2] But most of these advances came three months after the introduction of the safety appliances which, at least in their initial manipulation, it is admitted on all sides, reduced the earnings of the men. The burden incident to changing methods was on the men with the picks and not on stockholders or consumers of coal. And the more important advances came a month after the first meetings of protest were held,

[1] Soppitt himself is said to have been a former board member of the United Mine Workers!

[2] Eighty cents per ton of 2,000 pounds for coal passed over a three-quarter inch screen.

which had cost old employes of certain companies their jobs, after the early marches and demonstrations. For instance, there had been no announcement on the part of the Westmoreland Company that an advance was to be anticipated; so far as the men knew, it was not intended. So far as an outsider could see, it was not an automatic adjustment to keep wages abreast of rising costs of living, but a concession made under fire.[1]

It has been stated that while the interference of a hostile labor organization was resisted, the companies have been willing to meet committees of their own men. The treasurer of the Westmoreland Company, when asked, did not know of such a standing committee of the men in any shaft (like the "chapel' of a printing office), nor could he cite a specific instance in twenty years where a committee had been dealt with.

Since the outbreak of the strike, two communications from committees representing the strikers and labor leaders have been sent to the operators. They outlined the demands over which the strikers were willing to confer. These were ignored by the companies, their position in general being that their policy was to deal directly with their employes and only with them. It is clear, however, from what has been said, that the position taken was but a phase of a larger general policy to which the companies were committed, to be rid of any organization of their men, which would collectively have greater strength than the individual miner, and which to that extent would limit their complete control of industrial operations.

With their old men united and at loggerheads with them, have the companies been willing to condition their control even to the extent of putting the adjustment of the difficulty before a public body or group of non-participants?

On September 16 a committee of the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, composed of F. R. Babcock, president of the chamber; H. D. W. English and Lee S. Smith, two ex-presidents; Enoch Rauh, and Samuel Ewart, addressed a letter to both operators and strikers which, among other things, said:

> Business men of the Greensburg-Irwin district, who have been greatly injured by the continuation of the strike, and having stated that they have exhausted their efforts for settlement, have called upon the undersigned, as business men of a neighboring community, which is also affected by the strike, to use their influence to endeavor to bring about a settlement of the existing strike.

The letter concluded by asking that both sides place before "an impartial, unprejudiced committee the differences which are yours."

The executive committee of the strike replied:

> We, the executive committee of the strike, desire to inform you gentlemen that we are and have been at all times agreeable to let the differences existing be referred to an impartial board to be arbitrated.

Replies from the Jamison, the Keystone, the Westmoreland, the Penn and the Manor companies September 17, 19, 20, are very well summed up in the following excerpt from the reply of John M. Jamison:

> We do not recognize differences which might exist between this company and strikers from other mines or districts, led by professional, salaried agitators, as proper subjects of arbitration. Such controversies, we firmly believe, deserve a different mode of treatment.
>
> The statement of facts herein set forth and the well-known policy of this company to deal directly with its own employes alone, in our judgment, leads irresistibly to the conclusion that there exist no such "differences" as require adjustment.

In its issue of October 1, the *Coal Trade Bulletin* printed an article bearing earmarks of a favorable bias toward the operators, in which it referred to the Chamber of Commerce committee as "butting in" on the controversy, and stamping their action as "presumptuous and officious."

Such is the status of things in Westmoreland county as this is written. Both sides are determined to keep up the fight. The mines of the county as a whole are not turning out over fifty per cent of their normal output. The larger companies, however, are the ones attempting to break the backbone of the strike, and claim a present production of seventy to

[1] The Westmoreland president states that his company decided to advance wages as of April 1, some time prior to that date.

eighty per cent normal. To an outsider they appear, with their political and traffic connections, a compact, resourceful group who since the early nineties have not had their own way disputed, and whose long and basic business operations in the district have established such ties of acquaintance and common interest, that their insurgent employes apparently find themselves tugging against the whole social fabric. The settlement of the strikes in Illinois and the Southwest, on the other hand, put practically the full membership of the United Mine Workers in other parts of the country back at work, and bring the national resources of the union up again to about $300,000 per month. Up to October 1, $125,000 had been sent into the Greensburg-Irwin district for the strikers and their families, and plans were being laid for the construction of temporary houses to take the place of the tents in cold weather.

So far as the state of Pennsylvania and the public are concerned, the result of the conflict is left to a test of strength between these opposing forces.[1] We have seen at what cost to Americanism and good feeling and physical well-being it is proceeding. Some of the stories of brutality, as told on both sides, are apparently gross exaggerations. The residue, fairly substantiated, is a disgrace.

[1] During the fall, there has been a factional fight waged against President Francis Feehan, who comes up for re-election before District Number 5, United Mine Workers of America in December. Like everything else in Pennsylvania, it ramified into the recent political campaign (Feehan being charged with making a deal with the Penrose machine). It is further complicated by the activity of the old adherents of the late Pat Dolan, whom he ousted from the leadership, and by the current feud between Feehan and President Lewis of the national organization. The Westmoreland operators charge that Feehan instigated the strike in their territory, not in the interest of their men, but to advance his personal fortunes. In a recent issue (Nov. 11), the *Labor World* published an affidavit from "Sam Bernardo" who swore that John H. Jones, president of the Pittsburgh-Buffalo Coal Company, had attempted to hire him to help organize the Westmoreland field. Jones, himself a miner in the early days, is a relative of Feehan and is today a large competitor of the Westmoreland companies. The officers of District No. 5 have replied with a statement (Nov. 23), that attempts were made to bribe them, and have them "betray the striking mine workers," and that when these were rejected, they were told that "large sums of money would be expended to discredit us and drive us from the organization ruined." The disinterestedness of the charges made by the *Labor World*, which purports to be a union paper and the champion of the anti-Feehan faction, is discounted by the presence of display advertising, in adjoining columns, of the Jamison Coal and Coke Company and the Keystone Coal and Coke Company.

Taken at their best, the union officials feel that they are contributing leadership and knowledge of organization and backing to a great group of fellow workingmen, who for almost a generation have been held in the grip of an unexampled industrial tyranny in this hill district. They assert that on every occasion they have counseled the men to be law abiding, and to be on guard against both their own quick impulses as aliens, who cannot see that our laws are giving them justice, and against the schemes of opponents who, they say, seek to discredit the men by provoking them into disorderly conduct.

Taken at their best, the coal operators feel that they are the administrators of vast properties, which they cannot manage responsibly if either their men or outsiders interfere, and which they believe they are running not only in their own best interest, but in fairness to their employes. They assert that they have fought the strike through the law, in engaging the deputy sheriffs, in securing injunctions against marches and camps, and in evicting strikers' families from company houses; and that in so far as strikers have violated those injunctions, they have brought the results on themselves.[1]

At their worst, the union leaders have been charged with inciting the men to the use of force against the companies and the strike-breakers.

At their worst, the operators have been charged with directing the deputies to do the mauling and killing which are laid at their door.

There is no evidence available to support either one charge or the other. We have met men on both sides who are not at all of that stamp. But one fundamental distinction should be pointed out. Responsibility for the violence which occurred up to the time of negotiations for a settlement of the strike may well be debatable ground. Since the companies, however, flatly refused to meet the men's committee, or to submit the issues at stake to an outside body, it would seem

[1] From the letter of an operator: "I am willing to accept the responsibility incurred by taking legal measures to preserve our rights. If people get hurt when they come in contact with the forces of the law, they have only themselves to thank."

that they cannot escape bearing a special responsibility toward all violence subsequent to their refusal.

The social machinery of Western Pennsylvania has broken down in the face of this industrial conflict. In the words of an operator, a state of lawlessness exists. As remedies he proposed: (1) That the law which governs in two counties of the state (Allegheny and Philadelphia) should be extended to all; namely, that in case of riot the county should have to make good any property destroyed; this would hold up local authorities to their responsibilities for law and order; and (2) that there should be a state police, numerous enough to protect a district on strike, with disciplined men. "We pay $100,000 taxes to the state of Pennsylvania," he said, "yet we haven't mined a ton of coal since April except under armed guards whom we have had to pay for." Given protection, he had no doubt that he could secure men at his own terms (which he considered fair) to operate the mines.

But the miners, their families and the public have suffered as much as the operators from the lack of more enlightened legal recourse than industrial war as a means for securing justice. It is doubtful if they would regard the proposals mentioned as a sufficient rehabilitation of the social machinery. The public has been sorely in need of some agency which could thoroughly overhaul the facts of the strike and learn the real causes of so much disturbance and loss of business. Then it could throw its influence toward a settlement with intelligence. Nor has the state government sent a troop of police clattering up to the mine pits demanding that the check weighman's law be carried out. For while the five different varieties of peace officers which the operators have mustered to the protection of their interests, when threatened, have been many of them weak reeds to depend upon in a crisis, the men have had in the past no agency at all through which they could take up for settlement issues which threatened the livelihood, not of one or two, but of all in common, short of this concerted cessation of work, which has dislocated the whole scheme of life and industry in Westmoreland county.

Steps to meet such needs, either in behalf of public or of wage-earners, would inevitably run counter to the principle of complete control of their property which the operators claim as a right and a necessity.

S. Pemberton Hutchinson succeeded to the head of the Westmoreland Company, the largest operators in the region, on the death of its president in July. Therefore, he was not involved directly as an executive in the earlier events of the strike or in the causes which led to it. So he is in a position to state the policy of his company as to control, altogether free of the entanglements and personal issues which are bound to crop out in the course of a prolonged industrial conflict.

In an interview he put the thing in a nut shell,—"We want to run our own business our own way."

THE GRAVE OF PAUL RENOMENO WHICH OVERLOOKS YUKON.

With respect to the public (in connection with the offers of conciliation or arbitration), he said, "We don't want to have outside parties conduct our business for us."

With respect to his employes, "We ask no man whether he is a member of a union or not. We offer a certain rate of wages and certain working conditions. Anybody has the right to accept or to reject them."

THE HOUSING AWAKENING

II

SOCIALISTS AND SLUMS—MILWAUKEE

CARL D. THOMPSON

CITY CLERK OF MILWAUKEE

"Milwaukee is essentially a 'city of homes.' The percentage of laboring people who own their homes exceeds that of any other city in the union. It has no congested slums or tenement districts."

This is the statement made in a prospectus issued by the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association of Milwaukee, published of course in the interests of "civic pride," attracting capital, booming the city, the greater Milwaukee, and other similar commercial ideas.

How naively innocent. Or shall we say, how adroitly misleading.

Of what city on all the American continent can it be said, "It is a city of homes?" Homes for whom? What kind of homes? Who owns them?

These are questions which no commercial association, we fear, would answer frankly and fully. In this respect Milwaukee is probably no worse and no better than the average city of its size.

FACING THE FACTS

A new administration has come into power in Milwaukee. It views social and industrial problems from a new angle; grapples them with refreshing vigor and originality—among these none is more interesting than the housing problem—and at the outset refuses to be misled as to the facts or to conceal or mistake the facts in the interests of a false commercial pride.

It may be accepted as practically true that there are as yet no extreme tenement or slum districts in Milwaukee, at least none of the kind which we have in New York and Chicago. But we do have in Milwaukee three foci of the disease. One is in the third ward, the Italian district, where living conditions are perhaps worst; another is in the fourteenth ward, where the Polish working class lives; and the third is in the Jewish district in the fourth ward.

The administration is determined to prevent these foci from developing and especially from coalescing. Milwaukee is a comparatively small and relatively young city. Conditions have not developed so far as in larger cities. It is possible to prevent the growth of real tenement conditions and of a slum population. It is the resolute purpose of the present administration to prevent it if possible. It hopes that Milwaukee will never have the kind of problem which New York city, Chicago and other like cities have.

But while Milwaukee does not have real tenement houses or slum districts, it does have practically the same conditions as are found in the slums and tenement districts of larger cities. H. H. Jacobs, warden of the University Settlement, who is as familiar as anyone in the city with its housing conditions, puts

[1]For the opening article in this series see The Housing Awakening, by Lawrence Veiller, in THE SURVEY for November 19. Price 10 cents.

THE MILWAUKEE OF TODAY.

Typical of several sections to which Mr. Thompson applies a term usually confined to larger centers—"the city wilderness."

it this way, "What we have in Milwaukee is tenement and slum conditions in the cottage dwellings of the city."

When some of the newspaper men and charity workers of the city were taking Mr. Veiller on a tour of inspection through the fourth ward Ghetto, and again through the Italian quarter of the third ward, he told us that he had never seen anything worse in New York or Chicago than he saw in certain individual cases here and there in the housing conditions of Milwaukee. This opinion was supported by other experts, and from such knowledge as I have of housing conditions in the various cities, I am of the opinion that it is true.

In the third ward bad conditions are not quite so extensive, but more acute. On one of our trips of inspection through the Italian district, we came upon conditions which words cannot describe adequately and no camera can picture. Sounds and smells escape the camera.

Entering one of these dwellings we had to duck our heads to escape a shower bath from leaking pipes above the door. Incidentally, we had to dodge a crowd of the canine family which did not seem to be particularly pleased with our visit. The rooms were dark. Something, which I supposed was food or intended for food, was bubbling on a little stove. A friendly goat was playing with the baby on the floor, and the pigeons cooed cheerily nearby. Through the door of the kitchen we got the odor of the stable. The horses had the best room. In the middle room, which was absolutely dark, on a bed of indescribable filth, lay an aged woman, groaning with pain from what I judged to be ulcerated teeth, but which for aught she knew might have been a more malignant disease. In this single dwelling, which is not unlike many we saw, there lived together in ignorant misery one man, two women, ten children, six dogs, two goats, five pigeons, two horses, and other animal life which escaped our hurried observation.

The most insanitary conditions prevail in the basement dwellings. It is not infrequent to find conditions where ten men live in a basement. In the alleys accumulate the dirt and filth typical of tenement districts. Often there is a box of manure under a kitchen window, and the refuse and garbage

THE MILWAUKEE OF TOMORROW.

Suburban property, twenty minutes by trolley from the heart of the city, which the socialist city government will plat for workingmen's homes.

piled in a foul-smelling mass where the little children must live and play.

In the fourth ward the alleys are crowded with shabby shacks, shut out from sunlight and air by dead walls of larger buildings, forlorn and wretched.

In the Ghetto, in one building live seventy-one people, representing seventeen families. The toilets in the yard freeze in winter and are clogged in summer. The overcrowding here is fearful and the filth defies description.

Within the same block are crowded a number of tenements three and four stories high with basement dwellings. One of these is used as a Jewish synagogue. Above and beneath and to the rear this building is crowded with tenement dwellers. The stairways are rickety, the rooms filthy, and all are overcrowded. The toilets for the whole population are in the cellar adjoining some dwelling rooms, reached by a short stairway. At the time of our visit the floors of this toilet, both inside and outside, were covered with human excrement and refuse to a depth of eight to twelve inches. Into this den of horrors all the population, male and female, had to go.

Just back of this synagogue, and on all sides of it, the overcrowding is tremendous. A glance at the pictures showing the rear of these buildings will prove conclusively that to all intents and purposes we have regular tenement dwellings in Milwaukee.

Another feature of the overcrowding is the back to back cottage and tenement dwelling. It is not unusual to find three houses on one lot with very little breathing space between.

Here one sees the "sanitary" bakery wagon, whose driver, after tramping about in the offal of the alley, climbs into the wagon with his dirty boots, and then piles the loaves of bread where his feet have trod.

Here the children's only playground is the street or alley. The child digs up the manure with a broken shingle, to load it in his little cart; here the little child-mothers bear the burdens left upon them by their elders, who have gone away to work.

Thus we have all of the conditions of a tenement and slum population: the dark rooms, the overcrowding, the filth, the insanitary toilets—none of the horrors, none of the dangers is missing.

These have but to be allowed to breed,

HIS ONLY PLAYGROUND THE ALLEY.
"The child digs up the manure with a broken shingle to load into his cart."

to fester, to spread, and with the growth of the city, our housing conditions will become, in proportion to our population, as bad as those in any city.

"THE CITY WILDERNESS"

From the window of one of our public schools in the Polish district in the fourteenth ward on the south side, one can get a striking view of "the city wilderness." The gabled roofs of a vast stretch of houses peak upward with the monotony of waves, and stretch away into the gray distance until they are lost in the smoke of the factories which fill in the background. These are the "homes" of the Polish people who toil. A picture merely suggests the monotony and the magnitude of the problem.

If we come nearer to these houses, almost any one of them, we shall find the typical dwelling. There is an entrance, perhaps under the steps, which leads to the apartments below. In this semi-basement in the front lives a family. There are perhaps two rooms, sometimes only one. In the rear of this same basement lives another family. Above, on the first floor, lives another family, likewise in two or three small rooms; and in the rear is another. Thus four or more families live in one small cottage—and, often, in true tenement style, they "take in" boarders.

To make matters worse, crowded back to back with these dwellings are the alley houses, mere duplicates in construction and crowding.

All of these houses are crowded closely together, so that there is very little, and in many cases absolutely no sunlight in the dwelling rooms. Here, together, live men, women, children, dogs, pigeons and goats in regular tenement and slum conditions. This is another of the three foci of the Milwaukee housing problem.

In some larger American cities less than one-tenth of the people own their home. In Milwaukee, a city where capitalism is less developed, the percentage is higher—35.1. But how can it be said even of such a city, "It is a city of homes"? Only a trifle over one-third of the people have a place which they can call their own.

Nor is it true that the percentage of laboring people who own their homes "exceeds that of any other city in the union." In Milwaukee the percentage is 35.1, while in Cleveland it is 37.4 and in Detroit 39.1. So the boast of the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association is without foundation. Only a trifle over one-third of our people own their homes at all, and with that the administration is heartily unsatisfied. Moreover, conditions are sure to get steadily worse as the city grows unless active measures for improvement are begun.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT AT WORK

The first task in the solution of the housing problem is diagnosis of the case. For that sort of process a physician is

needed. So, naturally, this part of the work falls to the Health Department. Hence for this, as well as for other good and sufficient reasons, the Milwaukee administration was particularly anxious to secure an especially competent health commissioner. Those who had the matter in hand for the administration sought diligently far and wide. They went to Rochester and tried to get Dr. Goler. They went to Chicago and other cities. Meanwhile objection was steadily made against the appointment of anyone outside the city on the ground that it was contrary to civil service and state laws. At last the administration hit upon the idea of securing Dr. William Colby Rucker, who technically was a resident of Milwaukee, although as a matter of fact his work in the army and navy had kept him away for many years.

The administration learned of Dr. Rucker's remarkable success in dealing with yellow fever in New Orleans and bubonic plague in San Francisco. He seemed unquestionably the man who would fill the bill. Some question was raised as to his politics. The reply which Mr. Berger made was characteristic. He said Dr. Rucker's politics were "anti-bubonic plague, anti-typhoid fever, anti-slum and anti-rat." That sufficiently illustrates the view of the administration and its attitude towards politics. Efficiency comes first, in its judgment.

However, Dr. Rucker's superior officers were unwilling to let him go. The administration moved on Washington and through the Wisconsin representative secured from President Taft a leave of absence for Dr. Rucker, in order that he might take up the work.

Once at the head of the Health Department, Dr. Rucker's attack upon the various phases of the housing problem was immediate and aggressive. He began at once a general clean-up in the streets and alleys, the byways and basement dwellings, as well as in general housing conditions in the Ghetto. Two hundred boys and girls were organized into the Milwaukee Health Guards, whose purpose is to help keep the city clean, to spread the idea that the preservation of human life is the highest type of patriotism. An investigation of the tenements was begun and a system introduced for scoring houses as to their relative sanitary condition. An immediate reduction of the number of occupants was enforced in the tenements where there was

THE SLUM IN MILWAUKEE.

To all intents and purposes a tenement, with all a tenement's bad features.

JEWISH SYNAGOGUE.
Crowded by tenement dwellers above, beneath some of the worst conditions ever encountered.

serious overcrowding. An educational campaign was begun by means of popular lectures on sanitation, for the general public. They were illustrated with stereopticon slides. An ordinance was sent to the City Council providing for the removal of slaughter houses from the city, thus doing away with some of the most distressing conditions in one residence district. The garbage collection department was reorganized so that garbage is collected between midnight and six in the morning instead of during the day. Modern tight-lidded metal receptacles were substituted for the old-fashioned garbage box or barrel. And, finally, a commission was put to work to devise an up-to-date system for disposing of sewage. At present it is emptied into the lake from which the city draws its drinking water—and typhoid fever is much more prevalent than it should be, an epidemic occurring in the early part of the year.

Now all these activities of the Health Department bear either directly or indirectly upon the housing problem and the administration proposes to bring every possible force into play in behalf of better living conditions.

OTHER PROBLEMS INVOLVED

But something more than this is required in dealing with the housing problem if anything like a solution is to be reached; some method must be found to provide the people with better houses, at such rents as will bring them within the reach of the poor. More than that, they must be so located that those who work in the industrial centers may pass quickly back and forth between their homes and their places of work.

Thus the problem involves the city at once in at least three other problems, namely, municipal dwellings or some similar arrangement, city planning and platting, and transportation.

The Legislature had granted Milwaukee, under a law relative to parking, the right to buy, own and sell real estate. By means of this, the administration is taking steps which will put the city in

MANURE BOX UNDER A KITCHEN WINDOW.

JUST BACK OF THE SYNAGOGUE.

"What we have in Milwaukee is tenement and slum conditions in the cottage dwellings."

possession of nearly a million dollars' worth of real estate on the outskirts of the city. The land is being platted with reference to model dwellings for wage-earners. Certain sections are to be set aside for industrial and manufacturing purposes. Other sections will be devoted to commercial interests, and still others will be reserved entirely for residences.

As most of this land bears trees and shrubbery, and some of it lies very beautifully on the banks of the rivers which flow through the center of the city, it forms an almost ideal place for residence. Literally miles of beautiful, rolling land on the banks of the rivers, with here and there the beckoning glory of the woods, and now and then a suggestion of the forest primeval, lie within a twenty-minute street car ride from the heart of the city. A more ideal place for the dwelling of man could hardly be imagined, yet these broad smiling acres lie untouched while the people stifle and sicken in the city less than three miles away.

Solve the problem of cheap and rapid transportation, and the working people may live by the rivers, amid sunshine and shade, the melody and song of nature's open fields. This the administration is determined to bring about. It is the purpose so to plat these residence districts that every house will have land enough to let the sunlight into every room and to provide for garden and lawn.

As to the houses themselves, Thomas A. Edison has become so interested in the plan that he has offered to give the city the use of a new method of concrete construction, by which houses that formerly cost several thousands of dollars can be built for something like eight hundred.

A form of lease will be offered to working people, which will enable them, by payment of a very small sum, to secure possession of a little plot of ground and a dwelling. Further payments will be on easy terms and the arrangement will carry a surrender value, so that at any time any workingman who takes advantage of the offer will be able to get back the money he has put in.

The administration believes that the offer of homes under such conditions will prove so attractive, that very soon the tide of population will be turned back from the congested center and spread out over the wider area.

But even this plan will fail unless the city can manage to keep control of the transportation problem, for as the population spreads out the need for quick, cheap travel increases.

CHEAP RAPID TRANSIT

Therefore, as part of the solution of the housing problem, the Milwaukee administration is wrestling most earnestly with transportation. It has already drafted a model franchise with considerable show of being able to put it into operation. If it succeeds in this an entirely new system of transportation will gradually be developed within the city. A number of interurban lines are already eager to accept any reasonable terms that the city may exact in order to develop their systems into and within the city. The plan is to have trunk lines under complete control of the city from the beginning and the franchise terms provide that the city automatically becomes the owner. These lines are to be direct from the heart of the city to the outlying districts. They are to be of modern construction and with universal exchange of tickets and transfers, so that one unified system will be put into operation. The rates are to be under city control and the whole system will ultimately be owned by the municipality.

In this way, by securing at once the control of the developing system and by providing for final municipal ownership of the whole system, the city will be in a position to keep its outlying residence districts within easy reach of all who wish to use them.

STABLES AND MANURE PILES FOR NEIGHBORS.

A QUESTION OF WAGES ALSO

Finally, those who are struggling to free themselves from bad housing conditions must be assured of an income which will enable them to meet expenses. No one can get something for nothing, and it is not the purpose of the administration to pauperize its people by charity. The effort is, rather, to enable the people to help themselves. The housing problem, therefore, becomes a labor problem —a question of providing the people with steady employment at remunerative wages. It is fundamentally a question of wages and hours, of labor and cost of living.

A WOODEN TENEMENT.

Seventeen families, numbering seventy-one people, live here.

CITY GARBAGE WAGON AND HOME OF ITS DRIVER.

One woman, ten children, six dogs, two goats and two horses live on the lower floor; more people live upstairs.

"WANTED—A PLAYGROUND."

The poor and ignorant classes of working people, who are attracted to this country by the commercial interests, which are always seeking cheap labor, cannot extricate themselves so long as the labor conditions which they now encounter prevail. The Italian, the Slovac, the Hungarian, the Pole, the Jew and others who are brought into our cities by commercial interests, are those who suffer most from bad housing. The sooner it is clearly understood that the reason they suffer thus is because they are poor and ignorant, and because their wages are low, the sooner we shall see the solution of the housing problem.

These foreigners are brought here because they will work for low wages. Because they work for low wages they must live in wretched and insanitary houses and hovels. And because they live thus the city has the menace of the tenement and the slum. There is no final escape for them except by way of improved labor conditions. Hundreds of cities in Europe have tried to solve the tenement and slum problem in some other way. There is no other way. The cities which have torn down their slums and built model tenements have discovered finally that the net result was that the slum and tenement appeared in some other place. Better educated and better paid people, generally the middle class and always those who had some degree of economic resource, were the ones who moved out into model dwellings. The others could not—they did not have the means.

So, ultimately, the effort to solve the housing problem must fail until it reaches down to the economic basis of life. It must open opportunities for labor at increased rates and under better conditions. It must increase the economic efficiency of the lowest strata of the toiling population. It must do this or it cannot bring them out of the bondage of their tenement dwellings.

UNDERGROUND DWELLINGS—THE CITY HAS RISEN AND FORGOTTEN THEM.

THE INTERLAKEN CAMP.
Showing a few of the twenty-eight tents in the woods.

THE SCHOOL AT INTERLAKEN

CHARLES H. CHARLTON

Profoundly believing that our schools are out of touch with the realities of life, Edward A. Rumely, a business man of Laporte, Ind., has founded the school at Interlaken. He has patterned somewhat after the homely simplicity of the new schools of England and Germany, yet he is building a school that is thoroughly American—a school that through actual work as well as through study in classroom shall really prepare for practical life. And he believes that vocational training should be an essential feature of education. It is his purpose to create a model school that will demonstrate such a course of studies for children from the eighth to the eighteenth year. His program is ambitious, for he intends that Interlaken shall work out problems in a way that will be useful to our whole public school system.

Here, first, is his statement of our national need of industrial education, as he expressed it before the convention of the National Education Association:

> No one sees more plainly than the manufacturer that the future of the American republic depends upon the school. And he asks this question:
>
> "How can this school, which is giving immediate shape to the nation of the future, give our boys and girls a training that will be efficient preparation for the practical work of life, which is also the work of the nation? In spite of 150 years of earnest effort, the school still clearly favors the few who have no other aim than to be clerks in stores, banks and offices, and the fewer who take courses leading to the professions. But it neglects the ninety boys out of every hundred who are to do manual work as machinists, carpenters, printers, telegraphers; the girls who are to be milliners, dressmakers, housewives,—the thousand sorts of breadwinners How shall the future give them their training?"
>
> Our educational progress has not kept step with the wonderful advance of the world. By practical standards the school has changed little within the last century, while our civil-

THE DUTCH GARDENER AND HIS CREW.
Picking a mess of early beans for ninety boys.

ization has been magically transformed from primitive-rural to complex-urban. The age of universal transportation has arrived, and has suddenly made the world small, until remote nations seem next door neighbors. We are now conscious of the swarming tumult of men on the globe, with whom our human relations have multiplied enormously. The small tool of the worker has given way to the vast machines of the factory and the labor-saving implements of the farm. The automobile, the bicycle, the telegraph, the telephone, the typewriter, the phonograph, the motor engine, with its thousand uses, enter into the daily routine of our lives. All life has come to depend upon mechanical marvels, and its pace has been keyed to wonderful swiftness.

We must adapt the immense new experiences of the world to the educational needs of the future. As an industrial people we must see that skill goes with schooling. Practical work in the school must prepare for practical life. Our children must learn to conserve, if possible to increase, our store of natural resources. Think of our pressing need!

We have become a spendthrift race. Extravagance is the order of the day. James J. Hill told us the other morning that our trouble is not the high cost of living, but the cost of high living—privately and publicly the wild waste of natural resources. Four generations ago our forefathers had to their west a vast untouched continent, rich in timber, ores and soil fertility beyond anything the white man had ever found. The entire population of the country, scattered along the Atlantic seaboard, was limited to a couple of million people. These natural resources were successfully exploited, our wealth increased as if by magic, and today our population of ninety millions has occupied the whole continent, from ocean to ocean, but not without leaving its mark upon the land. Our forests, laid low by giant mills, are more than half cut. Our streams and lakes have been looted of their fish by water-wheels and steam-drawn seines. Our mines of ores and coal are beginning to show signs of depletion. Our soil, with impaired fertility, now yields eighteen and twenty bushels in place of the forty of the virgin prairies. At the end of it all, we are beginning to see that our national wealth is not all the product of wise and intelligent labor. Largely, we have done no more than transmute, and often recklessly, our natural resources into the uses, ornaments, extravagances of our civilization; railroads, foodstuffs, clothes, palaces, monuments, elegances of living, lavish show of gold and silver.

The machinery of plunder has been tremendously developed. By its use we have been able to export enormous quantities of raw material and the bounteous products of our fields Now, however, our agricultural exports are falling, and the time is already at hand when we shall need our own foodstuffs to feed an increased population. It will soon become an actual question of food. Most of the original natural wealth of the land is gone, and every child born in the world brings into it the mouth of a consumer, but no natural wealth, except the labor power of its two hands. Life, henceforth, must be supported by high intelligence, skill of hand, the honest work of men, and not by systematic robbery of nature. Henceforth, we must export neither our raw materials nor our foodstuffs, sacrificing to other nations the riches of our soil. For the future, we must export the factory value of the skilled work of our hands, which can create wealth of all kinds. For the future, the annual per capita value of our manufactured products must show a steady rise from the present estimated standard of $74.53.

Germany says consciously to herself: "Skilled workers produce high values. Unskilled workers do not. The hewers of wood and drawers of water are dull peasant types. The men of directive power who lead the world come from the skilled classes. Let us save our own natural resources, and get from other nations our raw materials, and

HARVESTING TIME.
Boys working with the farmer cutting and binding the wheat.

the rough manual labor that produces them."

Such competition as this will force us to become predominantly a manufacturing and industrial people, a course upon which we have started and made astonishing progress. We have perhaps 4,000,000 skilled workers, perhaps 3,500,000 unskilled workers. While we can get our unskilled labor abroad, it is of huge importance that as many as possible of our own citizens become skilled workers, and so creators by their toil of products of high values. Considering material advantage alone, the annual money difference to the nation, whether the ninety per cent of our million boys who will leave school next year become skilled or unskilled workers reaches a prodigious total of hundreds of millions of dollars

If we are to maintain our present position among the nations, the masses of this country must excel by their superior skill as workmen. For we shall be obliged to meet, at first in the world's markets and later at home, the products of Germany and Japan, our ascendant modern nations, crowded throughout with a surplus of skilled and efficient labor. We cannot compete with them through raw materials and a low cost of living, which are things of the past in the United States. We can meet them only by the superior skill and better training of masses of American workmen. Where are they?

It is a curious thing, as Mr. Roosevelt has said, that in industrial training, we have tended to devote our energies to producing high grade men at the top rather than in the ranks. Our engineering schools compare favorably with the best in Europe, whereas we have done almost nothing to equip the private soldiers of the industrial army—the mechanic, the metal worker, the carpenter. Indeed, too often our schools train away from the shop and the forge.

Great branches of our industries have been built up to their present prosperity by the educational foresight of Germany, by her skilled mechanics, trained in her splendid technical and trade schools; but today there is a serious dearth of skilled industrial workers, and we cannot longer depend upon other nations for such supplies of trained men. A carpenter's bench and lathe—the manual training that is being enthusiastically given everywhere, does not solve the problem. And no other sources of supply are discoverable. The old apprenticeship system has almost entirely disappeared, leaving, at the best, substitutes that supply only individual needs. In all our crowded cities the sons of skilled workers are going in extraordinary numbers into box factories, candy factories—a hundred unskilled trades—hopeless of earning high wages or developing high efficiency. Yet competent mechanics are needed in every branch of our industry, from a pin factory to a giant automobile plant.

All this defines one side of our need for effective industrial education. But there is another view of the question, which is equally important. For the training of manual work, the keen discipline of learning any one of the skilled trades is the schooling that is needed by all boys, not only because it is going to make efficient men of them, but because it is a necessity to their bodies, that are fifty-two per cent muscle. This can now only be got through the school, yet from the school until now we have had the one-sided mental training, which physicians are beginning to understand is the first great cause of the widespread nervous troubles of today—a thing so exclusive to our own land that our prevailing form of nervous disease is, in Europe, called "Americanitis." From such diseases we shall suffer more and more until the school gives our children strong trained bodies and practical well trained minds.

Until a few years ago the work of everyday life at home made special muscular training unnecessary. Industry was centered in the home, where they used to grow their own food, spin and weave their own cloth, make their soap, dip candles. Eighty per cent of the population was agricultural. The father, if he happened to be a cabinet maker or blacksmith, shaped his wood and forged his metal

near his home, within sight of his children. Each child was called upon while still young to share the parent's activity. He gained not only an insight into the industrial processes, but he acquired habits of work, keen discipline, moral training for his future occupation.

But now we are become a new sort of cave dweller. Even in our suburban homes we have accepted the automatic ways of apartment house life; luxury, indulgence, ease are softening our fiber, and industry has passed forever from the home to the factory. This has thrown new duties upon the school. Fifty years ago the academy boy was an efficient and intelligent part of that mid-century civilization. The entire industrial process was known to him. Today, through the enormous complexity of life and its minute specialization in work, this has so far been lost that the city high school boy has not even the elements of knowledge sufficient to build up imaginatively the vital facts of daily life and labor. He has studied books and heard things talked about, but even of his father's productive work he has had little or no share. Chalk and blackboard and books, even when supplemented by our new manual training, are no longer enough.

Our new civilization has its own vital needs. The knowledge necessary for use in the productive industrial processes has increased enormously. Sciences, like physics and chemistry and electricity, have become vital factors in the daily work of the world. The tempering of steel formerly meant no more than the heating of the metal to cherry red; it is now an intricate process requiring a difficult study of temperatures and alloys. And today skill and accurate knowledge in the use of the hands are needed as never before. Clearly, we must immediately have a new school, for children now need the training of their muscles as well as of their minds. And they need the training of their minds through their muscles. Without such training our race will lose in vigor and fall into decadence. The second and third generations of city-bred men, in the past, have always shown a weakling strain. Under stress of twentieth century life, unless a remedy be found, degeneration will be still more rapid.

THE DUTCH DINING ROOM.
Built, finished and furnished by the boys.

These are the needs that the failure of our schools is clearly pointing out. And this is why Interlaken was built, and why it has had such a rapid success.

The school is on Silver lake, one of the wooded lakes of northern Indiana, and looks out over the pleasant, low rolling corn land that the Jesuit explorers called La Porte—the Door of the Prairies. On

GETTING IN THE HAY CROP.
Within a fortnight the boys cut and stacked eighty tons of hay.

its immediate west, beyond its grove of oaks, lies the broad band of country which skirts the southern shore of Lake Michigan, and which with its roaring factories and foundries and spreading cities is already called "The Industrial Center of the United States." In its beginning, three years ago, Interlaken was but a great, square brick house of the seventies, vine-covered, mansarded and iron-trimmed. And from this comfortable old mansion, as from a center, the school grew—grew naturally, like the thing of life it was meant to be. Boys came in companies; halls were added, each a home, framing its own habits, building its own character. And naturally, too, developed the generous democracy of its government and the widening scheme of work.

A place of hearty ways and no formality; a school free from formulas and from catchword texts. Yet over the great door there stands the frank greeting: "A welcome to all who mean to work."

And within the hallway on the face of the carved mail-box, below the two hemispheres and their winged Mercuries, run the words: "See how by working together men have brought the whole world within your reach."

There you have declared, in honest introduction, the whole method of Interlaken—earnest, co-operative work and helpful fellowship. By the custom of the place, even the visitor "lends a hand", according to his talents, when he comes to stay with these 120 lads—some nine years old, some ten, some twenty, but most of them high school boys between fourteen and eighteen—most of them the sons of business and professional men. Here the moral, social, industrial sides of education become as important as the intellectual and physical. The monthly reports to parents are not tabled marks, detailing, in percentages, only the student side of the boy's life, but candid letters telling the essential facts of his entire growth. The school is concerned with the whole boy, and not merely with a part of him. Here education is life, made up of realities. It has to do with the real work of the world; and the boys have about them men, and the fine healthy roughness of men. They are always ready for life, because they have always been a part of it.

And so at Interlaken, beginning with the simplest things, the students are soon made familiar with the primitive arts. About the farm, in the stable, they learn nature's lessons in facts that have to do with human living—the care of animals, the growing of crops. Every part of the school is open to them: the office a working department of business and commerce; and here, above all, interest must not be idle; even the kitchen, in face of the wrath of the first cook of their tradition, where time is valuably spent helping and watching a hundred things besides the making of wholesome bread.

In the shops every article is made, not aimlessly, like the bread-boards of many

LETTING LIGHT INTO AN OLD FARM HOUSE.

schools, but to meet a definite need. Nor is there dawdling in the work; because other business is urgent, and there is only time enough to do each job well. The boys not only make chairs, tables, bookcases for their own rooms and to send home; they do craft work in wood and metal to sell. And here the spur of the practical outside world strikes the school. The product of their copper work has reached a standard of such salable excellence that Marshall Field's of Chicago, this past year, bought all their surplus manufacture.

Then, too, the school always has work of its own to be done—always pressing work. It may be shaping shelves; running a fence, straight as a surveyor's line; building a windmill; fitting rubbers to chair legs; framing another beehive; or that ancient sort of manual training, that is chores. And the boys undertake ambitious things. Here is one of many taken from the school's history:

> At the end of the first year every room was taken and new accommodations had to be provided. The boys were called together for a talk about plans to meet the growth of the school. Among other things it was then decided that they should build an extension to the dining room. In the early morning the headmaster drove two stakes. By the help of the instructor in carpentry the boys had made all their measurements and completed their sketches by noon. By night their plans were finished. The next morning active work began, and until it was done only one man shared their labors. They have never forgotten how to mix concrete, for they had to travel a mile to town to find out the proper proportions of sand and cement and broken stone. They learned the principle of reinforced concrete and they bought the rail they needed from the railroad company. They put up the frame, carefully nailed on the siding, tarred the roof, plastered the walls. They fitted the trim, did the painting, and, with the aid of the art instructor, cut the stencils and decorated the interior They made and finished the old-fashioned double-decked tables and the benches. An eighteen by twenty-four two-story extension built by ten boys within five weeks?

Boys who are to undertake directive work must become interested early in the work of their fathers — the real work of the nation. To help them in this, the practical work is brought constantly into the school. Business men help in its direction, and visit it frequently. The daily papers and the magazines are publicly read for their vital news of progress and achievement. The responsibilities and the opportunities of American life are made forever present. John A. Secor, the inventor, lived with the boys at Interlaken last year. They witnessed step by step the building of his new internal combustion engine, which explodes kerosene as a gasoline engine explodes gasoline. They saw its first successful test, and watched its gradual perfecting.

And constantly into the world outside

BUILDING THE LOG BATH HOUSE.

Interlaken the boys go for lessons in the productive processes of life, and its basic economic conditions. In small parties they make repeated trips to neighboring factories and mills and the nearby scenes of important constructive work. Noteworthy industrial feats, like the damming of a river, the building of a city like Gary, the sinking of deep tubular wells, the building of a railroad, attract them on free days. A visit to a foundry to see all the stages of the melting process is a vital experience. The lining of the ladles with clay, the charging of the cupola with iron and coke, the opening of the blast, the making of molds and cores, the pouring of the molten fluid, the dumping and rattling of the finished castings—how intently the boys observe it all. The experiences of such excursions are employed as illustrative and stimulating material in the classes of physics, chemistry, history and geography. The discussion of the underlying laws knits the fragmentary information together in an organic whole in the mind of the pupil. And in the shops of the school itself a new interest and impetus and skill are given to work.

Here is a composition written by a ten-year old boy after a visit to the United States Steel Corporation's new plant at Gary. He had been told to write of his experiences in the wonderful new city. He chose the thing he saw that interested him most:

First I was brown earth buried in a mountain near Lake Superior. Then men came in great boats and called me iron ore and dug me out, and sailed away with me over the blue waves to Gary. With big shovels on wire ropes they hurried and lifted me out of the boat and dumped me in a pile on the land. They put me into towers with coke, and a hot fire changed me and melted me into iron and I flowed like water. They cast me into red-hot blocks five feet long and two feet thick, and then rolled me between iron rollers until I got thinner and thinner. At last I was long and thin like a rail, and then they cut me into seven pieces, and ran trains over me.

SUCCESSFUL TEST OF A NEW ENGINE.

LAYING A CORDUROY ROAD.

The appeal of this school to practical men has brought rapid success. Three times within three years Interlaken has outgrown its accommodations, and now a greater Interlaken is being built, planned to receive eventually 400 boys. Some 640 acres of fertile and generously wooded land have been selected for this model plant, in the very heart of the country overlooking Silver lake. And here the boys, more than seventy of them, encamped with their teachers and aided by competent architects, have been working all summer on the plans for the new school. They are making the desks, tables and chairs needed for each room. They are making door knobs and hand-wrought hinges.

And on this new farm, from their camp, thirty of the boys, directed by a Dutch gardener, have planted and cultivated the garden that furnishes the table vegetables. They have cut and stacked field after field of hay and harvested a good crop of wheat. They have built roads, a bath house of logs, a boat house, several piers. They have worked like slaves to bring into condition two old farms that have become a part of the school, bringing order and prosperity out of neglected fields and buildings. A fifty-

acre field has been selected which is to be sown, the first in the district, with alfalfa. And they have drawn plans for a greenhouse. Thus practical agriculture becomes a part of the school course—a thing of looming importance. For the development of farming during the coming century will surely mean, in some respects, more than the growth during the nineteenth century, of the factory system. For this present day, all boys, city boys as well as country boys, should learn of the possibilities of the soil, should see that plants are plastic like clay, to be shaped to serve our purpose. And they should have experience of tilling the earth.

The new Interlaken is building extensive shops, including a forge for the shaping of metals. There will be lathes, planers and other basic tools of the machine shop; and work will begin, as in the past here, with the making of hammers, chisels and other tools. In the wood-working department machines will be used to supplement hand work. And the print shop will issue all printed matter required by the school—laundry slips, letter heads, booklets, catalogs.

It has just become part of the plan to publish an educational journal, to which some of the leading educators in this country and abroad have already promised to contribute. And business men, who are feeling keenly the dearth of skilled workers, and who know the demands of practical life, will write from their viewpoint. There is no fear at Interlaken that business and vocational training will taint the course of studies, for, they say, business and industry are the basis of our lives, and the school should prepare the boy for his life's work.

Again we come to Interlaken's ambitious program: "To shape, in theory and practice, the outline of the new American school."

MAKING ALL MATCHES "SAFETIES"

THE WORLD-WIDE FIGHT AGAINST PHOSPHORUS POISONING

JAMES P. HEATON

Of the two hundred and fifty billion matches used yearly in this country—more than seven a day for every man, woman and child—four-fifths are of a type that practically every nation of commercial importance prohibits. For the head of the ordinary "double-dip" parlor match, the tiny round tip, is made of a poison worse than deadly to many of the workers in match factories. Stealing insidiously through a tiny crack in a tooth, it rots the tooth, rots the jawbone, requires mutilating operations and sometimes results in death after lingering years of suffering. The dead bone, imbedded in living flesh, discharges its foul remains through cheek and mouth. Phosphorus necrosis, commonly called "phossy jaw," in match makers is so terrible that it might be considered good reason for returning to the flint and steel of our forebears if there were no other way of making fire.

But there is a harmless substitute for the poisonous white phosphorus. It is to our disgrace that the United States has lagged behind other lands in demanding its use. The indifference of big business, the tariff, internal revenue taxes, a "trust" smothering the harmless but more expensive material, a lack of public information on the subject, and the voiceless obscurity of the match workers have all been factors in our tardy beginning last year to wipe out this unnecessary industrial disease by the Esch bill in congress.

Match manufacturers have struggled for three-quarters of a century to minimize the danger. Frightful epidemics of necrosis ran through the pioneer shops in South Germany and Austria, which

were the early centers of the trade. The first steps were to require personal cleanliness, and good ventilation to do away with the extra-dangerous fumes from damp phosphorus. Separate rooms were set aside for preparing the match head, for dipping and drying, and for packing. Improved machinery was invented. The percentage of phosphorus in the paste was limited. Eating in workrooms was prohibited, and women and children were excluded from many branches of the work. The regulations were so stringent that many small manufacturers were driven out of business while others rebelled and made matches in defiance of the laws.

The laws did all that could be done so long as white phosphorus was used. They prevented a recurrence of the epidemics but they did not eliminate necrosis. It is impossible for statute law to make every worker observe rules that restrict unconscious impulses, such as picking the teeth, which carry the poison into the system.

For sixty years manufacturers experimented with substitutes for white phosphorus. In 1851 Bell and Black in London made matches of red or amorphous phosphorus, but these would strike only on a rough surface and ignited explosively. In 1855 Lundstrom, a Swede, produced safety matches by putting red phosphorus with sand on the box. Neither of these is of the "strike anywhere" variety popular in this country, for although two American factories incidentally make safety matches, there is as yet comparatively little call for them, and the little wax tapers used extensively abroad are almost unknown here. It has been a clear-cut issue between a match a little less easy to use and a match whose manufacture is dangerous to the workers.

One after another the countries of Europe have proscribed poisonous phosphorus. Finland and Denmark took the lead over thirty-five years ago. In Switzerland it was barred in 1881. The poor quality of the matches led to a repeal of the law and regulation was again attempted, but it failed and the prohibition was re-enacted. France passed a similar act in 1897 and Holland in 1901. In 1906 the International Association for Labor Legislation negotiated a treaty proscribing white phosphorus, which was signed by France, Denmark, Luxemburg, Italy, Switzerland, the Netherlands and Germany. Sweden does not permit poisonous matches for home use and Russia taxes them prohibitively. Great Britain decided to prohibit them in 1908.

The tardy attitude of the United States was in part due to the fact that we did not at first have quite as serious trouble as the old world, though for the last twenty years we have had more through a failure to protect the match workers. For a long time our factories made more use of machinery. Phosphorus necrosis, it is admitted, was quite prevalent here twenty years ago, but it was generally supposed that the disease had been successfully combated. No American state has adequately protected its match workers, though several forbid the employment of children under fifteen years of age in certain operations. Finally, in 1909, as result of the activity of the American Association for Labor Legislation, a branch of the international body, agents of the government visited fifteen of the sixteen American match factories and found sixteen cases of phosphorus poisoning. Eighty-two cases were discovered in the homes of the working people of three factories, and in one modern factory they secured records of forty cases. The leading authorities on the subject and the principal manufacturers agree that there is no way to prevent necrosis so long as white phosphorus is used. In some of the small factories employes and even owners were unaware of the danger, and in several there were not even notices to warn the workers.

An investigation of the factories made by John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, was published as a report of the Bureau of Labor. This made a strong impression on President Taft and the problem was referred to Representative James R. Mann, chairman of the committee on interstate commerce, to devise some way of prohibiting its employment.

Later it was decided that the trouble could not be remedied through interstate commerce regulation, and a bill was introduced in Congress by Representative John Esch of Wisconsin to place a prohibitive tax on matches made of poisonous phosphorus. Many congressmen are loath to see the taxing power of the government used for any purpose other than the raising of funds, but it seems to be the only practicable method of meeting the problem. The introduction of this bill following the agitation by the Labor Legislative Association has put the match manufacturers on the defensive, and seems to promise a willingness on their part to co-operate in doing away with "phossy jaw." The bill will come before Congress again this month.

The history of match making in this country is interesting. There were at one time seventy-five match companies in the United States, but the internal revenue taxes following the Civil War drove many out of business. Large makers were granted a special discount for purchasing the revenue stamps in big lots. There are today only sixteen match factories. The organization of the business into a trust was inevitable under the circumstances, and on the shoulders of this trust, the Diamond Match Company, rests the chief responsibility for the present state of affairs.

The most used of the harmless substitutes for white phosphorus, the sesquisulphide of phosphorus invented by French chemists under government commission, is a compound made by baking white phosphorus in a closed vessel. This is held in this country under a patent, which will expire in five years, by the Diamond Match Company. A few years ago the company advertised a non-poisonous match, but the jobbers, it is said, returned forty per cent as defective. It is important to note that the cost of manufacture was about five per cent more than for ordinary matches—and their production was shortly discontinued. No further step was taken until last year. At that time, owing to the government investigation, the Diamond company volunteered to assist all manufacturers in eliminating the danger of phosphorus, and in March, 1909, the president wrote that if the government prohibited white phosphorus his company was willing to allow the use of sesquisulphide by other manufacturers on "equal terms" with itself. These terms were specified last July. The first requirement was that the manufacturers, who together with the Diamond company produced ninety-five per cent of the matches in this country, should agree "to join in an effort to induce the president of the United States to direct the tariff commission to make an investigation, with a view to determining the difference between the cost of production of matches abroad and in this country."

The Diamond company values the American patent in sesquisulphide at $100,000. This figure, it is stated by the company, is based upon the amounts paid for the patent. It is said not to include the amount spent in experimental work and for expert services and the losses sustained in the sale of sesqui matches. The fact that it has already sold a concession to use the patent in certain other countries is not mentioned by it in the negotiations with the independent companies here. The Diamond company requires each independent to pay for the use of the patent that percentage of $100,000 which its annual production bears to the total output of the country. Each will be limited to the amount produced during the year ending June 30 last, plus its share of the annual increase. A royalty of four-tenths of one cent for each 1,000 matches is exacted for any production over this quantity. Manufacturers will be permitted to use any other available substitute for white phosphorus. It was provided further that "no licensee shall pack more than 500 sesqui matches in any one box and not more than 250 matches any one way in any one box, this restriction being prompted solely in the interest of public health and safety."

The smaller concerns, though anxious to do away with white phosphorus, were slow to come to terms with the Diamond Match Company. This was natural because of the energetic and often questionable methods which they alleged the larger company has employed in the past

in its effort to get trade. Fostered by both the tariff and internal revenue law, the Diamond company resorted to the sharpest of price-cutting tactics to kill the remaining competition. The independent companies sometimes found their matches sold below their own price and they charged that the larger corporation bought up the goods to break their market. Each side imitated the popular brands of the other. The Diamond company was even accused of storing its rivals' goods in damp basements in order to spoil them and injure their sale. At other times, it is alleged, in order to get the wholesale dealers to take Diamond products, that company took the stock a merchant had on hand and sold it below market. On its side, the Diamond company was continually worried by a succession of rivals who temporarily sold cheap, inferior matches, until the trade refused to buy more.

After years of such guerilla warfare, the Diamond Match Company came to be feared and hated by its small rivals. More recently it has maintained prices and, in fact, sells its wares for higher prices than do the smaller companies, and accusations of unfair trade practice against it are now comparatively few. On the other hand, some of the smaller companies are often guilty of repacking defective matches under *noms de plume*.

The most serious trade charge against the corporation now is alleged against its special contracts with wholesale firms, by means of which it consigns goods to a dealer but retains the title to them and requires the dealer to handle its product exclusively. For this it grants a special discount of ten and sometimes fifteen per cent. This hampers the independent companies, even though the contract be broken as it sometimes is, for many wholesale firms are closed to the independents. Technically, each wholesale grocer is made a special selling agent on commission of the Diamond Match Company, but in effect the contract is in restraint of trade and can be enforced because the wholesalers must carry some of the Diamond brands which are well-known and called for by name. As a result, one small manufacturer has been obliged to deliver his goods direct to the retail grocer and this restricts him to a local market.

The independents objected to the proposed contract for use of sesquisulphide on several grounds. For one, they had no tangible evidence of the cash value of the patent which was made the basis of the charges against them for its use, and they had little inclination to take the Diamond company's figures at face value. For another thing, the limitation of matches to 500 in a box seemed to them to be an attempt to kill the business which certain companies have developed in the sale of a five-cent box of 1,000 matches. In this there is little profit and most of the companies disapprove it. The license was amended to allow as many as 1,500 matches in a box provided they were packed topsy-turvy, which requires a very large box; the signing of the letter to President Taft, asking for an investigation of the cost of production at home and abroad, was made optional; the requirement that the companies producing ninety-five per cent of the matches should sign the contracts was changed; and additional time was granted to consider the terms. Certain objections were made also to the limitation of production, though the royalty from excess does not equal the profit and the limitation affects only matches made of sesquisulphide. The Diamond company amended its agreement further in an effort to determine the share of each independent on the basis of one, three or ten years' production. It submitted samples of its experimental matches made of sesquisulphide, allowed its rivals to make their choice, and gave to each the formula for the match chosen. There was also a slight fear that the sesqui match was not satisfactory and that foreign companies would invade the country more than they do at present, as the Payne-Aldrich bill reduced the tariff on safety matches twenty-five per cent, which harms the independents most, for the Diamond company has factories abroad and is interested in other foreign firms, though not to the extent of being willing to kill its American business. To overcome this condition the

Diamond company recently endeavored indirectly to have safety matches classified as fancy goods which are subject to a high ad valorem duty, but the effort failed.

All of the objections seem finally to have been met. Eight independent companies agreed to execute the stipulations and seven have signed already. Two or three have as yet declined to enter into negotiations, one because of distrust and a desire to continue the match it now makes, and another, The East Jersey Match Company of Garfield, New Jersey, because it is manufacturing a non-poisonous "strike anywhere" match of red phosphorus known as the Salvation, which ignites with little difficulty and a slight splutter and is being closely watched as promising another substitute for white phosphorus.

By mutual agreement it seems probable that within a short time all of the American match companies will discontinue the use of the poisonous white phosphorus. The immediate steps leading to its discontinuance are the willingness of the companies to get together and adjust their business to the contract offered by the Diamond company. They have realized a growing public opinion against the poisonous match. This deserves high praise, tempered, however, by the recollection that the Diamond Match Company has had in its possession for years the formula and sole American right to the harmless phosphorus, and that it failed to act until the pressure of public opinion and the impending federal legislation forced its hand.

FROM CAVE LIFE TO CITY LIFE

LEWIS E. PALMER

On the afternoon of November 12, forty-four thousand people of Boston and the metropolitan district gathered in two of the largest structures of their kind in the country for two varieties of entertainment. Forty thousand of them managed to jam into the concrete tiers of the Harvard Stadium to see the last local football game of the season. They say that Harvard won because of better team work; because every man was a part of an almost perfect football machine that never failed nor weakened once.

Four thousand of them crowded the iron-girdered Arena with its horseshoe-shaped enclosure and saw the third performance of a civic pageant called Cave Life to City Life which, so the directors of the pageant believe, was a success for the same prime reason that the Harvard eleven won its laurels—because the "pageant team" played together and caught the spirit of the game as truly as did the football team across the river.

The preliminary work of organizing and training a group of over a thousand volunteer performers was, in the eyes of the pageant director, the most important part of the production. In the weeks of rehearsing that preceded the four performances in the Arena, citizens from a score of towns surrounding Boston, members of widely separated social clubs, settlements, high schools, colleges, labor unions, historical societies, and like organizations were thrown in with one another. Commonwealth avenue and Beacon street met with the North and West Ends. Old wardrobes were ransacked for prized dresses and uniforms, spinning wheels were taken from parlor and attic and actually used in the preliminary rehearsing as well as in the performances themselves. Quilting parties were held as they were a hundred years ago, the dame school flourished once more, a century old coach clattered into town on the first day of the pageant to bear the powdered and pompadoured members of the governor's party to the reception and minuet, old songs that were known in the schools of generations ago were heard once more, folk dances were rehearsed by a dozen groups of new Americans—in

short Greater Boston joined in one big neighborhood party and learned about itself, what it had done and what it could do through the well organized "team work" which is being fostered by Boston-1915, sponsor for the pageant.

Pageantry is new to this country. Five years ago it was revived in England and under the direction of Louis N. Parker produced the first American pageant, The Pageant of Education, presented by the Boston Normal School. About a year ago she was at the head of the smaller Charlestown pageant, and when Boston-1915 thought of a pageant as a means of quickening civic life and interest, it turned to Miss Clark to whose enthusiasm and efficiency is due, not

OYEZ! OYEZ!

Thomas Crane, town crier in the Boston pageant.

a half dozen or more pageants were produced in towns like Sherbourne, Oxford, Warwick, Bury St. Edmonds, and Dover, whose history made pageantry possible. Lotta A. Clark, head of the history department of the Charlestown High School, happened in Oxford while the interest in the pageant was still active, and returned to this country and only the success of Cave Life to City Life, but the awakened interest in pageantry as a civic educator that is bound to spread to other parts of the country as well.

The Boston pageant, while following the same general ideas as the English productions, went a step farther and portrayed "future history" as well as

AT THE GOVERNOR'S RECEPTION.

past events. Thus, for the first time in the United States, the pageant went beyond a mere historic representation of the past and tried to show possibilities ahead.

Cave Life to City Life was divided into four episodes showing The Cave Dweller in His Solitary Home, Life in an Indian Village, and Present Success and Future Development. The Massachusetts Historical Society has records of about everything that has happened or is supposed to have happened in New England, but when it came to fitting out the cave man and his family, the imagination of the pageant directors had full play. The only scenery in the pageant was the cave home at one end of the Arena floor. From the mouth of the cave appeared Father Time in the glare of the spot light and chanted an invitation to Labor, Progress, Success, Prosperity, Peace, and Happiness to assist man in his work. The first episode showed the cave man and his family gathered around the first hearthstone.

Episode II was introduced by a symbolic dance, Vineland's Welcome to the Norsemen, presented by Virginia Tanner. From a half dozen reservations in Western New York and Canada a tribe of Iroquois Indians, who have been producing Longfellow's Hiawatha at Chautauqua and New Rochelle, came to Boston to depict life and customs among the red men. Boston learned before the week was over that they were sure enough Indians—one of them was particularly anxious to meet Chief Longfellow—and their native dances and songs gave realism to this part of the pageant.

In the third episode the colonists appear—hundreds of them—from early settlers with coats of mail to demure maids and bustling matrons, all of whom assisted in establishing a home in the wilderness. A stockade was built just in time to shelter the colonists from the attack of the Indians, who are finally defeated after considerable rumpus has been stirred up with bows and arrows

and flint lock muskets. This scene of the episode ended with the migration of the settlers to a place of safety.

The next scene showed the colonists with community life established. A Thanksgiving proclamation was read by the town crier and an ox cart laden with corn entered, surrounded by hundreds of boys and girls, who joined in husking bees and old-fashioned reels to the tune of Pop Goes the Weasel. Then came the announcement of the passage of the stamp act, followed by a riot which was quieted by the Rev. Jonathan Edwards himself, who demanded that the town people go about their business.

The scenes which followed made up perhaps the most beautiful part of the pageant. The participants scattered into various groups which impersonated a spinning school, the dame school, a quilting party, and a singing school. The combinations of color made by the old time colonial gowns of the women and the more somber clothes of the men, produced a most effective spectacle, which came to a climax when all joined in the minuet following the governor's reception. This reception was founded on an actual historical instance when Governor Wentworth announced to his birthday guests that he was to marry Martha, his maid-servant. A well-worn stage coach which saw service in the White mountains a century ago brought some of the powdered members of the governor's party to the reception. Others came on pillions, in chaises, sedan chairs, and on foot to "tread the stately minuet." There were 400 in this final scene of the third episode.

Present Success and Future Development was the title of the last episode of the pageant, and it was here that Cave Life to City Life cut loose from English example and peered into the city of the future, where disease shall be abolished and justice reign supreme. Boston and Her Neighbors, a group from the Boston Teachers' Club representing Boston and surrounding towns, took a position in the center of the Arena floor and before them the pageanters passed in review, each group representing either contrasts in past life with hopes for the future city, or present day comforts compared to the inconveniences of times gone by, or the assimilation of all nations into the true American city.

Just preceding the arrival of Boston and Her Neighbors, Miss Tanner presented a symbolic dance, the Passing of the Indian. Around her in the dimly lighted Arena were grouped the red men,

THE SPINNING SCHOOL.

who gradually drew back from one end of the floor to the other as the dance proceeded, until they were forced to the mouth of the cave. Behind the town crier with bell and proclamation in hand came a yelling crowd of newsboys with "ten o'clock editions." The pillions, sedan chairs, chaises, and coaches used in the governor's reception were followed by an electric automobile equipped with Edison's latest batteries; and above the group of old time conveyances which took their position back of Boston and Her Neighbors was suspended a Sterling-Burgess aeroplane. The dame school, hard at work over catechism and Three R's, made way for a group of seventy-five high school girls who went through the gymnastic work of the schools of today. Dust Clouds and Disease Germs attacked the city and were repelled by the Knights of Economy. Fire and Flame dancers try to break into the city of the future to no avail and grouped themselves, with the rest of the pageanters, behind the central group, Boston and Her Neighbors.

The Assimilation of the Nations was represented by folk dancers—natives of Sweden, Russia, Italy, Holland, Hungary, southern Europe, Scotland, England, Ireland and Greece, followed by the American dance of seventy-five members of a Boston high school. The pageanf was brought to a close by patriotic hymns and a chorus of 400, which had also sung at intervals throughout the production.

Professor Baker of Harvard says that "the rapid development of public interest in pageantry in England and the United States during the past few years shows that it supplies something the public lacks." That statement was pretty well borne out by the crowds that witnessed the Boston-1915 pageant. The Arena, with a seating capacity of about 4,000, was well filled at each of the four performances, in fact on Friday and Saturday evenings general admission tickets were sold. A pageant, be it remembered, is not to be compared to an ordinary "show" or dramatic performance. It is rather a new tool for community education and civic enterprise, and Cave Life to City Life has shown how pageantry may fit into the social and civic life of a big city as well as into the smaller towns where its development has been more rapid.

TOLSTOI'S "RESURRECTION"

CRIME A PUNISHMENT AND PUNISHMENT A CRIME[1]

A. S. GOLDENWEISER
MEMBER OF THE BAR IN KIEV, RUSSIA
(Translated by E. A. Goldenweiser, Washington, D. C.)

Light waves sent out by fixed stars reach the earth after years, decades, or centuries of travel. The light emanating from the sun strikes the earth, is reflected by it and carries its image to the stars, which in turn reflect the light, and the image finally comes back to earth. On this scientific observation is based the fancy that had we optical instruments sufficiently sensitive to gather the light waves on their return and to reproduce the image they contained, we could see with our own eyes any past event which had taken place on earth. For example, if we wished to see what was happening a hundred years ago, we could do so by pointing our instrument at a star from which it took fifty years for the light waves to reach here, since fifty years ago that star reflected the light which had left the earth another half century earlier.

Had we at our command such an imag-

[1] This essay on Crime a Punishment and Punishment a Crime was characterized by Tolstoi in a letter to the translator as "bringing out with great force and clearness my thoughts, dear to me, about the unreasonableness and immorality of that strange institution which is called a trial." The essay as it appears in THE SURVEY is greatly abbreviated. Copies of the full text may be obtained by writing to: E. A. Goldenweiser, 400 Seward Square, S. E., Washington, D. C.

inary apparatus it might be curious to direct it to a star reflecting a picture of the city of Madrid on May 30, 1680. On that day the marriage of King Charles II to Mary Louise of Orleans was celebrated, and twelve heretics were publicly burned at the stake in the presence of the royal couple. To a modern observer the pageant would appear very imposing.

At the head of the procession comes the chief inquisitor from Toledo. Behind him the choir of the royal chapel, singing the Miserere, then the chief of the Dominicans and the monks, followed by the emblem of the Inquisition, the green cross covered with black crepe; members of the judiciary, and the censors, representatives of the learned classes, officials of the Inquisition with lighted green candles, a white cross, the maiden attendants of the tribunal of the Inquisition, carrying lighted white candles; after that come Inquisitors, Dominicans, Franciscans, Trinitarians, Brothers of Mercy, Barefooted Brothers, the Marquis de la Vega, knight of the Order of St. Jacob, and the Duke of Medinacelli; banners of the Inquisition; the Marquis of Cogulado; the orphans and the foundlings. The procession comprises seven hundred people and closes with five bearers of the stakes of the Inquisition.

The market place is reached. The chief inquisitor descends from the covered seat on which he was carried and approaches the altar in the center of the place. He dons the raiment of sacred service. He reads a mass. Then a Dominican monk delivers a sermon on the text: "Arise, O Lord, and destroy thy enemies!" Then the verdicts of the tribunal are read. Each prisoner as his name is called is led to the platform and locked in a separate cage. One man and one woman at the sound of their names loudly beg for mercy; they repent their sins and consent to all the demands of the tribunal; they are granted their lives, but are sentenced to life-long imprisonment. One by one the other unfortunates are taken out by the executioners and led to their pyres; they are fastened to the stakes by iron collars and the wood is piled around them. The first firebrand is thrown in the name of the king, and soon all the stakes and the victims are encircled by flames.

Although the day is hot and sultry, the king remains in his seat of honor to the end. At nine o'clock the last heretic expires in agony but guards stir the fire all night, and in the morning they cover the platform with a thick layer of earth.

What would be our sensations if we were to witness this event of long ago? We would be shocked and outraged at the sight, and would earnestly scan the faces of those who participated, in an effort to ascertain their thoughts and feelings during the performance of their barbaric deed. We would, however, discover no trace of any feelings similar to those which we ourselves experienced while watching the procession. Each member of it is doing his best, and is earnestly and solemnly trying to perform his part with propriety. Not a single muscle of their faces indicates any doubt as to the justice of the execution of their unfortunate brethren. Quite the contrary. In performing their allotted duties, they all seem perfectly at ease and indifferent to the rest of the procession; they are evidently thinking of the appearance they make or of utterly foreign matters, and are not in the least concerned about the terrible significance of the deed which they are helping to perform.[1]

After two centuries of progress have disclosed to us the barbarity and the futility of such proceedings, we realize the incongruity of the deed which was performed with such firm belief in its justice and reasonableness, and we are shocked the more by the unconscious solemnity of the performers. Imagine a spectator of that atrocity of May 30, 1680, who experiences sensations similar to our own; a man who is born in the dark ages, but who has not only developed ideas of humanity two centuries in advance of his contemporaries, but whose entire cycle of emotions reflects the at-

[1]The Spanish translator of this essay here stated that J. Rizi, a painter who lived at the time that this event took place, reproduced the spectacle in a picture, and the natural, unaffected expressions of the faces in the procession proved the accuracy of the above description. This painting was intended to preserve the memory of Charles II, and is exhibited (No. 1016) in the Prado Museum at Madrid.

titude of the twentieth century; imagine such a man, and you will have a clue to Tolstoi's attitude toward modern penal actions, which he has sincerely and truthfully depicted in his description of Maslova's trial in the Resurrection. Tolstoi's opinions and feelings in regard to that trial will be comprehended by the masses only after the passing of several generations.

In depicting a trial Tolstoi immediately and graphically brings out a feature of criminal practice which cannot escape the notice of an observer uninfluenced by the accepted routine, but which passes unobserved by most. It is but natural to suppose that men who have come together to clear up a murder case and to try the murderer would on the one hand be interested in the sad fate of the victim, and on the other, in the future of the culprit. In reality, a trial does not seem to be concerned with either of these things, and what is said and written about the victim is disgusting in the extreme. Here, for instance, is the record of the post-mortem examination of Smyelkov's corpse:

(1) Ferapont Smyelkov's height was two arshins and twelve vershoks.[1]

"I declare, he was a strapping fellow," the merchant, with an interested mien, whispered over Nekhlyudov's ear.

(2) His age was, from external appearances, approximately fixed as forty years.

(3) The body had a bloated appearance.

(4) The color of the integuments was greenish, here and there tinged with darker spots.

(5) The cuticle on the surface of the body had risen in postules of different size, and in places had come off, and was hanging in the shape of large flaps.

(6) His hair was dark blond, thick, and at the touch came out of the skin.

(7) The eyes stood out of their sockets, and the cornea was dimmed.

(8) From the apertures of the nose, of both ears, and of the cavity of the mouth, a lathery, foamy, serous liquid was discharged, and the mouth was half opened.

(9) There was no perceptible neck, on account of the bloated condition of the face and chest. And so on, and so on.

Of the defendants, their past and their present, their impending fate and their future—not a proper word was said during the entire discussion.

Tolstoi feels that the motive of the trial is not sympathy, but selfish anxiety, pure and simple. "Since these people have committed the murder," think the judges and the jurors, "let us put them away, or else they may as likely as not do away with one of us."

This indifference to everything except their own personal safety takes one aspect with the judges who are performing their habitual everyday task, and another with the jurors who react more directly to what is going on about them. The judges think about their private needs and troubles, totally oblivious to what is happening; the jurors show a certain interest in the examination. But in what manner? "Evidently he was a great hand at drinking," said the merchant juror—when the presence of a large amount of wine in the deceased Smyelkov's stomach was mentioned. "Well, he had a good-sized finger," the same juror remarked later, after he had tried on the dead man's ring which was placed on the table with other exhibits; "as big as a cucumber," he added—obviously enjoying the conception of the hero which he had formed of the poisoned merchant. This manner of interest has little in common with sympathy for the deceased. The jolly juror seemed to approve heartily of the poisoned man's taste in recreations, for during the recess in the jury room he exclaimed. "Well, he was a great carouser! In Siberian fashion. He knew a thing or two when he selected such a girl to kiss."

Tolstoi cannot conceive why no one realizes the great responsibility and even the audacity of a common mortal assuming, as he does in a criminal trial, that he may separate his neighbor from his family and his friends, and subject him to the tortures of a punitive regime and of compulsory hard labor for a number of years. To Tolstoi, the participants of a trial seem to have about as much interest in the defendant as the undertaker has in a corpse which he takes to the graveyard. Does an undertaker's establishment puzzle about the mysteries

[1] An arshin equals twenty-eight inches and a vershok one and three-quarters inches. This and all following quotations of Tolstoi's text are taken from Leo Wiener's translation, Dana Estes and Company, Boston.

of life and the fateful trend of events which lead to the death of all living things, or of the effects on human existence of the inevitableness of death? According to Tolstoi, the modern criminal tribunal is just as little concerned about the essence of the crime and the soul of the transgressor; the courts simply bury the individuals whom society hands over to them to dispose of.

The procedure would have been just as absurd had Maslova been acquitted. Tolstoi is not concerned about the error committed by the court, but about the essential immorality of all criminal trials. The whole force of the characterization of Maslova's interesting personality lies in the fact that an acquittal would have made no difference in her moral condition.

Tolstoi's impression of the trial is that neither the prosecutor who pleads for conviction nor the counsel who pleads for acquittal, neither the court which sentences the convicted, nor that which releases the acquitted, does anything to save a life from going to ruin or to safeguard society. This was the "something" which Nekhlyudov felt that he saw in the procedure of trial and punishment—and which others failed to see.

The method of trial depicted by Tolstoi is the best that humanity has devised—the trial by jury—and yet Tolstoi is most condemnatory in his attitude toward it.

Tolstoi is of the opinion that the artificiality of the whole system of criminal retribution is shown by the fact that convicts in prison, in transit, and at hard labor—who are bearing punishment and who, according to the spirit of the law, should be going through a regeneration—in reality do not feel any such effect from the penal regime, and remain the same in all their thoughts and actions and are just like other people and like their former selves.

The men who do lose their human qualities are not the convicts, but the guards, jailers, inspectors, supervisors, gendarmes, and all the rest, who assist in carrying out the verdicts. They are delegated to perform a duty which is revolting and the performance of which must needs be bigotry, affecting the entire personality of the official. Nekhlyudov expresses this thought in the following manner:

"The trouble is that people think that there are conditions under which one may treat men without love, whereas there are no such conditions. Things may be treated without love: One may chop wood, make bricks, forge iron, without love, but people cannot be treated without love, just as one cannot handle bees without care. Such is the property of the bees. If they are carelessly handled by a person, they hurt both themselves and him. Just so it is with people. This cannot be otherwise, because mutual love between men is the fundamental law of human existence. It is true a man cannot make himself love as he can make himself work, but from this it does not follow that people may be treated without love, especially if something is demanded from them. 'If you feel no love for men—keep your peace,' Nekhlyudov thought, addressing himself. 'Busy yourself with yourself, with things, only not with men. Permit yourself to treat people without love,—and there is no limit to cruelty and bestiality.'"

The hardened sensibilities of those who carry out the punishments[1] decreed appear in many scenes in the light just indicated. Here is a quotation:

The assistant superintendent was a blond young officer, with blackened moustache, who was spreading around him an atmosphere of eau de Cologne.

"Please follow me," he turned to Nekhlyudov with a pleasant smile. "Are you interested in our establishment?"

"Yes; and I am also interested in that man, who, so I was told, is quite innocent."

The assistant shrugged his shoulders.

"Yes, such things happen," he answered calmly, politely letting the visitor pass before him into the stinking corridor. "Often they lie. If you please!"

Or, here is an account of Nekhlyudov's interview with the general of the gendarmes in St. Petersburg:

"But he needs scientific books; he wants to work."

[1]Not only is the position of the prisoners' legal guardians equivocal, but also that of any outsider who approaches them, even though he may be moved by the noble intention of alleviating their fate, and of rendering them spiritual and material relief. The representative of an English evangelical society who visits the prison for transients in Siberia and moralizes to the prisoners, supplying a certain number of Bibles to each cell, looks positively ridiculous. Real help can come only from him who is strong in spirit and who does not deal with the prisoners from the outside, but is imprisoned and robbed of his freedom in the same way that they are.

"Don't believe that." The general was silent for a while. "That is not for work. Nothing but unrest."

"But they have to do something to occupy their time in their heavy situation," said Nekhlyudov.

"They always complain," said the general. "We know them."

He spoke of them in general as of some especially bad tribe of men.

"They are furnished such comforts here as one will rarely find in places of confinement," continued the general.

And, as though to justify himself, he began to tell in detail of all the comforts which the prisoners had, as though the chief aim of this institution consisted in providing pleasant quarters for its inmates. . . .

"They get books, both of a religious character and old periodicals. We have a library. But they do not like to read. At first they seem to be interested, and afterward the new books remain half uncut, while the pages of the old ones are not turned over. We have tried them," said the baron, with a distant resemblance to a smile, "by putting pieces of paper in. The papers remain untouched. Nor are they kept from writing," continued the general. "They get slates and pencils, so that they may write for their amusement. They may rub off what they have written, and write over again. But they don't write. No, they very soon become very quiet. Only in the beginning they are restless; and later they grow fat, and become very quiet," said the general, without suspecting what terrible meaning his words had.

Tolstoi's description of the judges aroused a dissatisfaction amounting to indignation among the members of the bench. This was due, undoubtedly, to a misunderstanding on their part, and was the result of offended self-esteem which prevented them from looking at the matter from the author's point of view. Tolstoi not only considers a criminal trial as unnecessary, purposeless and cruel, but also revolting to human nature. The question in his mind is: How can so many people spend so much time in doing, by vocation and of their own free will, something that is essentially inhuman? Tolstoi answers this by pointing out that, while apparently serving justice, the judges are really occupied with other matters. They do their work mechanically, as a matter of habit, or when it is new to them, out of curiosity, but they never fully realize the awful significance of a criminal tribunal. The reason for their ignorance of the full meaning of so-called criminal retribution, Tolstoi sees in the division of labor and of functions, in the artificiality of the present social structure which, in this case, results not in the greater efficiency of the subdivided activities but renders the participants of a cruel deed unconscious of the purpose of that deed.

From Tolstoi's standpoint, the extraneous thoughts which absorb the judge's attention are really their justification for being capable of holding court and ordering the execution in the same way that the inquisitors ordered the "auto-da-fe." Tolstoi can better understand a judge who, during a trial, is absorbed by the thought of a meeting with Clara, the governess, or by the contemplation of a dinner in a lunchroom because his angry wife refused to cook one at home, than one who, with heart and soul, directs his conscious efforts toward locking up a man in jail, or separating him from his family and his home and driving him to the far-away mines of Siberia. This latter type is depicted by Tolstoi in the hero of Ivan Ilyich's Death. Tolstoi's hope and desire are not to see a reform of criminal trials and of the judges, but a flat refusal of men to take part in such activities.

Incidentally, it is a striking confirmation of the truthfulness of Tolstoi's picture that Russian trial judges consider his description of the senators remarkably accurate, and the senators think the same in regard to the trial judges.[1]

It would have been strange indeed had Tolstoi erred in his description of the inner world and the emotions of a judge, for Tolstoi penetrates unerringly into all kinds of inner worlds and all sorts of emotional situations, regardless of whether he has ever experienced, or

[1] Tolstoi took the same negative attitude toward criminal trials as early as the appearance of War and Peace. In describing the court-martial of Pierre Bezukhi, Tolstoi incidentally gave the following characterization of trials in general:

"Their only object is to secure a conviction. The court's questions neglected the live essence of the matter, and eliminated the possibility of its disclosure: the questions were similar to all questions asked in court and served only to supply the trough along which the judges wished the answers to flow leading to the desired end, that is, conviction. As soon as he began saying something which did not serve the purposes of the prosecution, the trough was removed and the water could flow wherever it liked. Besides, Pierre experienced what the defendant experiences in all trials, namely, bewilderment at the mass of purposeless questions hurled at him."

could ever experience, the conditions or emotions. In all probability, Tolstoi never spent a night in a prison cell for women; and yet, what can be more real, truer or more alive than the description he gives of the inmates of Maslova's cell, with all their inner emotions, their thoughts and their desires. Here are the types:

The sullen, scowling, wrinkled Korableva.

The old woman, Menshova, who with her son was accused of arson and who bore incarceration with the greatest good humor ("such a charming old woman," says Maslova about her when asking Nekhlyudov to intercede for her and her son).

The red-haired prisoner, who had a fight with Korableva and then wept on her bunk, thinking that she was not heard, as only children weep, groaning and snuffling and swallowing her bitter tears. She wept because she had just been cursed and beaten and not given any liquor, because all her life she had seen nothing but scoldings, ridicule, affronts, and blows, and finally because of the memory of the sad ending of her first love for Fedka Molodenkov, the factory hand.

The proprietress of a saloon who was detained with her two children—who were with her because she had no place to leave them—was holding her girl between her legs and with agile fingers searching for vermin in her head and whispering to herself: "Why do I traffic in liquor? What shall I feed my children by?"

The prisoner who was called Khoroshavka (pretty one) for her neatness, who was no taller than a ten-year-old girl, swarthy, misshapen, with a long spine and very short legs.

The tall and stately sexton's daughter, who had drowned her child in a well, and who did not pay the least attention to what was going on around her, and was pacing to and fro, like a maniac, in the free space of the cell, abruptly and rapidly turning around whenever she reached the wall.

All these types stand before us as if hewn of stone and, it may be confidently asserted, have been made immortal by Tolstoi; with all their surroundings they will live in the minds of men just as long as the creations of the greatest masters of literature, such as Dante who, with his genius for imagination, created a picture of Hell itself.[3]

We have seen that what strikes Tolstoi now and what struck him many years ago in the trial is that the court is not at all concerned with the one subject which is the reason for its existence; Tolstoi feels that the questions asked by the judges leave unrevealed the "live essence of things," in fact "they exclude the possibility of ascertaining that essence." The question is whether this attitude is the result of a preconceived idea or whether there are features in real trials which supply a basis for this generalization? To understand Tolstoi correctly in this matter, it will be well to imagine ourselves as witnesses of an old time ordeal. Ordeals were a procedure by which the guilt of the defendant and his liability to punishment were determined. One kind of ordeal was the test by water and fire in which the guilt or innocence of the defendant was determined by his success or failure in snatching a stone from a vessel of boiling water without burning his arm.

This method of a trial appears to us like a cruel farce, an occupation which can be seriously indulged in by lunatics alone. And yet, this is the way by which men thought at that time that they could arrive at the absolute truth. It is surprising that men expected to arrive at the truth from absolutely irrelevant facts, for what relation is there between a man's guilt or innocence, and the greater or smaller sensitiveness and recuperative power of the skin on his arm? But, as matter of fact, at that time men did not trust their own intellects, and expected God to guide them through the agency of ordeals; the more astonishing fact is that men at that time were interested exclusively in the mere guilt or innocence of the defendant; granted his guilt, they cared nothing about the motives which had induced him to commit the crime, and without even thinking of that, they felt themselves justified in inflicting cruel punishments and even death itself upon their neighbor. The very same thing and in like degree strikes Tolstoi in the trial of today. Tolstoi, like Bellamy in Looking Backward, sees the present with eyes of the future; and he sees it not as a dream, but with a realism which for us is conceivable only in contemplating past events. Tolstoi sees in

[3] An even more striking example of Tolstoi's ability to understand and portray the emotions of men in prison can be found in Krystov's story of the execution of one of his fellow prisoners. It is made up of simple phrases. It is too long to cite here. "They choked their lives out of them with ropes" it ends.

a crime no evidence of the evil will of any man; without a remainder he divides the motives into their constituent elements; the bad example of environment, the lack of forethought in dealing with our neighbors, the venality and the selfishness which underlie our modern economic structure. Let us cite Nekhlyudov's meditations about the boy who stole mats:

"It is evident that this boy is not a peculiar criminal, but a simple man (all see that), and if he has turned out to be what he is, it is due to the conditions which breed such men. And therefore it is obvious that, in order not to have such boys, one must try to do away with the conditions under which such unfortunate creatures are produced. If only a man could be found," thought Nekhlyudov, looking at the lad's sickly, frightened face, "who would have taken care of him when from want he was taken from the village to the city, and would have attended to his want; or even when in the city, after twelve hours' work in the factory, he went with his older companions to the inn—if a man had been found then, who would have said to him, 'Don't go, Vanya, it is not good!' the lad would not have gone, would have not gotten mixed up, and would not have done anything wrong.

"But no such man who would have pitied him was found, not a single one, when he, like a little animal, passed his apprenticeship in the city, and, closely cropped in order not to breed vermin, ran his master's errands; on the contrary, everything he heard from his master and companions, during his sojourn in the city, was that clever is he who cheats, who drinks, who curses, who strikes, and who is dissolute.

"And when he, sick and deteriorated by his unhealthy work, by drunkenness and debauch, in a stupor and beside himself, as though in a dream, walked aimlessly through the city, and in his foolishness made his way into a barn and took perfectly worthless mats away from there, we did not try to destroy the causes which had led the boy to his present condition, but expect to improve matters by punishing this boy!— Terrible!"

Maslova's crime, for instance, taken in connection with her life's history, shows clearly by what imperceptible steps man approaches a criminal career under the modern social conditions. Maslova, the daughter of a dairy maid and a gypsy, was first befriended by her mistresses, then dishonored by Nekhlyudov; later she went from house to house as a servant. Her transformation into a prostitute is quite natural. Prostitution and crime are the twin evils of society; they have a common origin and are closely associated and intertwined with intemperance. The murder of Smyelkov, the wealthy merchant, is a fatal result of his seeking pleasure in a brothel—which is protected by the law—and in the hotel where the attendant and the maid, both accessories of Maslova's alleged crime, are eager to satisfy their generous guest's immoral propensities. By nature, Maslova is a good and a kind being. The realism of the novel is heightened by its unusual beginning, when Nekhlyudov, guilty of having wrecked her whole life, becomes, on top of that, a participant as juror in the cruel legal injustice of which she is the victim.

In his analysis of the prison population Nehklyudov generalizes in the following manner:

Finally, the fifth category was composed of people before whom society was much more guilty than they were before society. Those were the outcasts who were dulled by constant oppressions and temptations like the boy with the foot-mats and hundreds of other people, whom Nekhlyudov had seen in the prison and outside of the prison, whom the conditions of life systematically lead to the unavoidable act which is called a crime. To such people belonged, according to Nekhlyudov's observations, very many thieves and murderers, with some of whom he had during this time come in contact. In this category he, having closely examined the matter, counted also all those corrupt and debauched men whom the new schools call a criminal type, and the presence of which in society is regarded as the chief proof of the necessity for criminal law and punishment. These so-called corrupt, criminal, abnormal types were, in Nekhlyudov's opinion, nothing else than those other people, against whom society had sinned more than they had sinned against society, but toward whom society was not guilty directly, but against whose parents and ancestors society had sinned long ago.

It is clear, therefore, that crime needs to be studied as a social phenomenon only to the extent that it is a reflection of the social evil which generates it. Tolstoi proclaims that crime is a punishment to society for the prevailing venality, the indifference of neighbors to each other, and the general moral rottenness; society is punished through the person of the criminal against whom it is obliged to protect itself and whom it must take

care of. Every new crime is a new indication of a social evil the existence of which is proved by the crime; every crime is an outgrowth of the sins of society. The criminal is like a shell which gathers into its various twists and folds the sounds that are around it, far and near, and reflects them all blended into one peculiar noise. Tolstoi, with his great soul aching for the miseries of his fellow beings, perceived that the modern criminal trial is built on principles diametrically opposed to those explained above, and one can hardly fail to see that the method of handling a case in court was bound to touch in a rough manner a sore spot in Tolstoi's soul.

A dramatic illustration of the inefficiency of a criminal trial is found in the irrelevant nature of all that is ascertained about Maslova during her trial; her real past, which is well known to one of the jurors, Nekhlyudov, remains sealed. The discrepancy between real life and its appearance from the evidence is so great, that Nekhlyudov's intimate knowledge of the truth has the sole effect of hindering him in the performance of his duty.

The phrasing of the questions submitted to the jury especially surprises Tolstoi. The unfortunate verdict in Maslova's case is, in the last instance, a result of the jurors' lack of comprehension of the meaning of the questions and the significance of a few words which they should have included in their verdict. By neglecting to say, "Yes, but without intent to kill," the jury unwittingly convicted Maslova of intentional homicide. The final verdict was not due to a consensus of opinion among them but to a series of circumstances: first, the presiding judge, who had taken a long time for his summing up, had forgotten to mention a point that he always explained, namely, that the jury might, in answering the question, say: "Yes, but without intent to kill"; secondly, because one of the jurors, the colonel, had been telling a long and tedious story about his wife's brother-in-law; thirdly, because Nekhlyudov had been so excited that he had not noticed that the proviso "without intent to kill" had been omitted and had thought that the phrase "without premeditation" annulled the verdict; fourthly, because another juror, Peter Gerasimovich, had left the room when the chairman read over the questions and answers; and, most important of all, because everybody had been tired and anxious to be released and therefore willing to agree to any decision which was likely to bring the matter to a conclusion.

It is essential, however, to appreciate the fact that, by making a legal error the basis of his novel, Tolstoi does not intend to criticise merely our criminal procedure which makes it possible for innocent persons to be easily convicted.

But in describing the muddled form of the question as presented to the jury, Tolstoi does not wish to show how bad it is to neglect the provisions of Section 760 of the Code of Criminal Procedure, but to demonstrate the futility of what the jurors are doing, even when the questions are properly formulated.

Tolstoi thinks that criminal trials sin not in methods of procedure, but in fundamental principles.[1] The very essence of a trial is, according to Tolstoi, the result of utter indifference of man to his neighbors and of his selfish desire to protect his sacred person and his property, no matter what outrage upon his neighbors that might involve. This is why one gains the impression from Tolstoi's description of a trial that all that is done in court professedly for the purpose of finding the motive of the defendant's past actions and of deciding his fate, really has no organic connection with the defendant's past which has led him to his crime, nor with his future which depends on the verdict; the trial is one thing and the verdict another; no close relation exists between them.

Tolstoi is astounded when he finds that, after all, the modern court seeks to

[1] Togantsev, the presiding officer of the court of appeals of St. Petersburg, says: "The starting point of a criminal inquiry is the fact of the crime with all its surroundings, which determine the character, the 'corpus delicti,' the conditions and the legal significance of the deed; the evil will of the doer may be revealed by these circumstances, but it is not the business of the court to consider anything which may have an interest as throwing light on the social and economic significance of the deed, or on the peculiarities of a certain 'milieu' or class to which the defendant belongs, but has no value in determining the just penalty for a deed. A court is not called upon to reveal and explain social evils and maladjustments, but justly to apply the law."

establish the same fact which the Inquisition attempted to ascertain through torture, namely, the bare fact of the defendant's participation in the crime. It was thought in former days that that could be established with the greatest degree of certainty through the defendant's own confession, and when other methods failed this must be secured by tortures. Now, it is believed that the trained mind of the judge is able to gather the truth from the evidence, circumstantial and oral, of the defendant's action and behavior, and the judge can now dispense with the confession. But the aim of the trial is, in the final analysis, the same as that of the Inquisition, namely, to prove that a certain evil deed has or has not been committed by the defendant. The difference is one of method and not of purpose. Tolstoi does not consider that the important question is whether or not the accused has committed an evil deed, but granted the deed, what were the reasons for the defendant's criminal inclinations, what is the real cause of the social disease of which the criminal is a symptom and a manifestation?

A proper culmination of the senseless structure known as criminal procedure, Tolstoi sees in the court of appeals. In that court the fate of the victim of the crime and of its perpetrator is not considered at all, for the judges occupy themselves with utterly purposeless mental gymnastics, and their ultimate decision is not even a result of these mental exercises, but the consequence of certain considerations of policy, or of the chance mood of the judge. Consequently, the exact observance of the rules and regulations of this phase of legal procedure, which is embodied in a special institution, appears to him like a strange comedy which is the less justifiable because, after all, the fate of living human beings depends on its decisions. If the methods of procedure of a trial had really been conducive to the solution of the problem raised by the crime, it would have been reasonable to insist on a strict observance of all the rules; that would have been as important as the insistence on correct multiplication, factoring and extraction of roots in the solution of a problem in mathematics. But the verification of the methods of the trial, of the order of examination of the witnesses, the admission or rejection of documentary evidence, etc., had no object, for nothing depended on these things; the decision of the court was not the answer to the problem presented by the case nor even the logical corollary which could be deduced from the evidence.

In days gone by, lawsuits were decided by means of duels between the litigants or even between hired combatants who were obliged to follow the strict rules devised for such conflicts. Tolstoi is reminded of this custom by the modern trial with its forms and ritual over which the Senate passes final judgment: the weapons have changed—but in Tolstoi's eyes the essence of the trial has remained the same. Does not the outcome of a case even now depend on the cleverness and artfulness of the contestants? The minds of judges in no way differ from the minds of other men. They have their own idiosyncrasies and can be influenced by the same set of facts either one way or the other. The outcome of a case thus depends on the chance mood or the state of mind of the judges, and the cleverness with which the sides appeal to their mental weaknesses and their prejudices. To illustrate, the assistant prosecuting attorney

> delayed the case of the sectarians on account of the absence of an unimportant witness, who was not at all needed, and his reason for doing this was just because the case was to be heard in a court where the jury were an intelligent set, and where it might easily end in their favor. By agreement with the presiding judge, this case was to be transferred to the session in a country seat, where there would be more peasants on the jury and a better chance to end the case unfavorably for the sectarians.

The attitude of men toward criminal retribution is constantly changing. Before John Howard's time, it was not considered proper in England to examine into the causes of deadly epidemics in prisons and other places of detention, because these diseases were interpreted as expressions of Divine wrath which was justly directed against the malefactors.

What a change from this point of view to that of the modern methods of prison administration, with its perfected system of ventilation and its enforcement of all the rules of hygiene conducive to the prevention of the evil effects of confinement! But Tolstoi naturally goes a great deal further in his appreciation of these effects. Nekhlyudov thinks that the death of prisoners from sunstroke, caused by their journey under the burning sun after a winter's confinement, is no better than deliberate murder. His sister, Natalya Ivanovna, exclaimed: "Why killed? Who killed them?" when he said: "Ah, what I have seen today! Two prisoners were killed!"

According to his conviction, the cause of this murder is not in men, but in the system. To cite Nekhlyudov:

> The most terrible thing of this all is that he has been killed, and nobody knows who it is that has killed him. There is no doubt about his having been killed. He was led, like all the prisoners, by order of Maslennikov. Maslennikov, no doubt, sent forth his habitual order, with his stupid flourish signed a paper with a printed heading, and, of course, in no way will regard himself as guilty. Still less can the prison doctor, who examined the prisoners, consider himself guilty. He accurately executed his duty, segregated the weak, and in no way could foresee this terrible heat, nor that they would be taken away so late and in such a throng. The superintendent? —but the superintendent only executed the order to send out on such and such a day so many enforced labor and deportation convicts, men and women. Nor can the officer of the guard be guilty, whose duty consisted in receiving a certain number of prisoners and delivering the same to such and such a place. He led the party according to the regulation, and he could not foresee that such strong men as those two whom Nekhlyudov had seen would not hold out and would die. Nobody is guilty—but the people have been killed by these very men who are innocent of their deaths!

Tolstoi sees in such incidents the proofs of the fact that even now prisoners are being dealt with in the primitive spirit of revenge. He contends that, while divided into several phases, the essence of the revenge which is now in the hands of authority and which formerly was in the hands of the injured parties has remained the same, only that the tortures have been spread out in space and time.

Torture inflicted with pincers is no longer practiced during the preliminary examination or at court. But men are still tortured by being deprived of their liberty and by the hardships of prison life when they undergo their punishment, and the essence of retribution is still seen in the painful sensations of the culprit. It would indeed be conceded by most that a system which reformed the criminal without causing him pain would be preferable to the modern one, and, if devised, should be adopted in its place. But such a system, say the critics, is impossible and is contrary to the very nature of the thing, and all efforts in that direction are as futile as the seeking by self-taught mechanicians for eternal motion. But to Tolstoi this is no answer; with the realism with which we view the present, he conceives of an entirely new order of things. In this special field a man looking from the standpoint of the future back to the present can find plenty of examples of times when the radical changes later happily achieved seemed absolutely inconceivable. Let us look into the treaties by Judge Jeronimus Christoph Meckbach, published in June in the year 1756. This book contains scientific and practical explanations and directions to the adminstration of tortures. In paragraph five the author says with firm conviction that, while it is a pity to subject men to the tortures described in that section, and while a man who could invent a system of torture which would force criminals to confess without causing them pain would be worthy of a high reward, yet all this is a dream and a utopia equal to the discovery of a "perpetuum mobile," and judges must practice the existing system and observe that the pain inflicted to their victim be gradually increased as the milder forms prove to be ineffective.[1]

Some readers saw in Tolstoi's work a caricature of the Russian courts in particular. But Tolstoi's view of modern criminal justice would have remained the same had he described an English or American prison to Nekhlyudov. He pictures the members of the central govern-

[1] Richard W. Wrede, *Die Körperstrafen bei allen Völkern von den ältesten Zeiten bis auf die Gegenwart*, pages 351-363.

ment in St. Petersburg with souls paved with asphalt, smooth even impenetrable, without the smallest aperture through which a living emotion could penetrate. Their attitude is voiced by the governor-general who refused Nekhlyudov's request to leave Maria Pavlovna with the dying Kryltsov, even though she was willing to marry him for the purpose. The lower officials have souls paved in a rougher manner; the pieces do not fit together perfectly, and real emotions can more easily penetrate through the openings. This recalls the opening sentence of the novel:

> No matter how people, congregating in one small spot to the number of several hundred thousand, tried to deform the earth on which they were jostling; how they paved the earth with stones, that nothing might grow upon it; how they weeded out every sprouting blade; how they smoked up the air with coal and naphtha; how they lopped the trees and expelled all animals and birds—spring was spring, even in the city.

An example of less self-control but of the greater responsiveness in the lower officials may be found in the memorable incident of the officer of the guard and the prisoner who was carrying in his arms the girl left him by his wife, who had fallen a victim to typhoid fever in Tomsk. The expression of unrestrained anger in that instance soon gave way to the demands of human sympathy, and after beating a prisoner for daring to criticise the officer's actions, the guard finally gave in and let the father go without manacles and carry his girl.

To Tolstoi the penal system blindly does its work without noticing that it makes men do things to which their very natures are opposed. No less than the horrors of confinement and exile, the separation of husbands and wives, of parents and children, are unavoidable incidents of the system, and are of such common occurrence that we often forget their cruelty. Not so Tolstoi: he reacts to all these things with the freshness of a man coming from another planet.

To Tolstoi they are inevitable results of the very existence of criminal retribution. In his eyes punishment is the most flagrant of crimes; a crime, not similar to those for which transgressors are tried, but a crime of human society itself. Tolstoi is firmly convinced of this, but in his all-forgiving soul he ascribes this crime of humanity to its blindness: the penal institutions are practicing cruelty over man, but no one is directly to blame for their operations.

Novelists and dramatists have pictured to us the souls of individual criminals in such a manner as to make their depravity and cruelty appear fatal, so that their responsibility, in the sense of criminal retribution, is out of the question; such are the various types, different and yet alike in their common irresponsibility—Macbeth, Richard III, Franz Moor, Raskolnikov. Tolstoi has done the same thing in regard to the whole penal system with the distinction that no individual's blindness is brought out, but the blindness of the collective soul of society. Just as novelists and dramatists represent their heroes as the victims of their selfish instincts, neglecting all but their own selves, so Tolstoi pictures criminal justice in its inner essence as the sordid and soulless defense on the part of society, as a whole, of the selfish emotions of the individual. This social institution, which is supposedly intended to work for the common good and to guard common safety, is in reality the very apotheosis of egoism and brutality. This institution not merely creates selfishness, but also fosters it; it makes a recognized institution out of that brand of human sympathy which finds expression in revenge, a sympathy which hardens one against all fellow feeling for one's neighbor, whose misfortunes, sufferings and ignorance are the causes of his criminality; a sympathy, indeed, fed exclusively by the selfish motive of guarding one's safety at whatever cost to one's fellow man.

Tolstoi, in seeking the salvation and regeneration of humanity, concentrates all the force of his intellect and his loving heart on this institution, the very existence of which renders impossible to his mind any normal relations of man to man. Criminal tribunals as a social institution are in a class by themselves; of all the judicial and administrative institutions, the criminal tribunal alone is directly concerned with the development of

social instincts among citizens, that is, with the curbing of selfish impulses among them: the court says, do not kill, do not offer violence, do not rob a man of liberty, etc.; all other institutions approach the matter indirectly. And this institution, in the final analysis, makes a dogma of the very thing it pretends to combat. The penal system in its present form is not merely an unsuccessful attempt calling for reform, not one of the means to an end, but a suicidal institution, the very existence of which, according to Tolstoi's conviction, renders impossible a moral basis for social relations

Tolstoi, as a reformer, does not propose, of course, to destroy the present system, but to enlighten humanity about its moral aberrations; without a conscious and a willing change toward sincere love and sympathy for one's neighbors, there is no salvation for society. Men must cease to judge one another, individually or socially. This does not mean that they must cease from analyzing each other's actions and motives. Quite on the contrary, analysis must become more universal and comprehensive, and in that sense men must judge and be judged more than ever, but men must judge, not in order to condemn, but to understand and help one another. The point is not to forgive, but fully to understand. A change must come not by way of a revolution, at least not a social nor a political revolution, but by way of a complete recasting of man's view of life, the enlightenment of his mind and the purification of his heart of all ignorance and ill will. To accomplish that we must not remove ourselves from those whom we accuse of sin, not guard ourselves from them by means of prison walls, but we must approach them and enter into their midst. The spiritual qualities of sympathy and unselfishness must win the battle over bodily interests which generate ill will and revengefulness.

This is the real Resurrection.

Tolstoi's work in the field of penology may be compared to that of John Howard. Howard's main work, The State of Prisons in England and Wales, is characterized by Spassovich in the following manner:

> This work is very remarkable in its way; one of the most important productions of the eighteenth century, it was written by an author who was neither a scholar nor a man of letters. Never before had a descriptive book, full of statistics, as objective as an account book, and avoiding all expression of personal feeling, had a like success in England, and not with specialists, but with the general public. The book deserved its success by its unusual simplicity, in which the truthfulness of the author is apparent.

This work of Howard's, as well as all his other writings, had a great significance and a powerful influence on prison methods. Yet "Never," says Spassovich, "did he ask himself the momentous question of the logical foundation of the right to punish. Punishment in his eyes needed no justification, it was an integral part of the divinely ordained order of things." A hundred years later it is still possible to find in a civilized land such methods of handling criminals as are described by Tolstoi. In this respect the novelist has a great advantage; the abundance of personal feeling makes every reader live through all the events of the novel. An artist alone could succeed in making us love the man who wears stripes. Many authors have discussed and are now writing about the futility and the cruelty of punishment. Tolstoi has thrown new light on the matter by connecting the futility and cruelty with the very essence of the criminal tribunal. Old observations have, in this manner, gained a new significance.

Tolstoi's thoughts in regard to criminal trials seem strange to us because we consider them as the outgrowth of society's struggle with the criminal, and a struggle that can be no different. But to Tolstoi an accepted viewpoint is no dogma; he thinks and what is more he feels wholly without respect to the established order whenever it deviates from the precepts of universal kindness.

Every conception or dream of a different manner of handling criminals is met by the argument that the desire for revenge is so ingrained in man that he insists on seeing his offender punished, and that this insistence on criminal retribution is one of the bulwarks on which the entire social structure rests. To Tolstoi this bulwark is not essential, and the de-

mand for torture of the offender is not a fundamental trait of man. For example, the history of criminal law establishes the fact that bloody revenge was invariably followed by a period when the feelings of an offended party and his clan, as well as the demands of the authorities, were satisfied with a payment of a fine for the offense without the infliction of any pain on the offender; a regular tax existed for various crimes, and the payment of the tax took the place of bloody vengeance in criminal trials.

Often a negative attitude toward criminal punishments is met by the query: What shall be put in their place? From Tolstoi's viewpoint this reply merits no consideration. If someone discovered that quinine, for instance, not only did not counteract a specific disease of the organism but made it worse, could there be found a man who would insist on the continuation of the use of quinine against fever until a new remedy be discovered? And, finally, we must keep in mind that Tolstoi is not examining so much into the conditions which may lead a man to kill his neighbor, as into the unnaturalness of the state of affairs which forces one man to say to another about his neighbor: "Here, put him away, destroy him!" and yet, figuratively speaking, every criminal sentence does just that, and a death sentence does it literally.

That which we have been accustomed to canvass in two dimensions, Tolstoi has proved possessed of three. Punishment which follows crime, not in the natural order of things but according to the sinful foundations of modern society, calls for an executor. And thus the judge who pronounces the verdict, the policeman who guards the defendant, the jailer who keeps him under lock and key, and the executioner who kills him, all of them collectively become this executor, in spite of the fact that they attempt to placate their conscience each by placing the blame on the other. This is the new dimension discovered by Tolstoi in the problem of crime and punishment. The momentous question is not the success or failure of various kinds of penalties, but the moral effect of punishment on those who pronounce the verdict and those who carry it out.

History is not made by the intellect, but by emotions. Tolstoi's crusade against criminal repression is strong, not in arguments proving that it has never achieved and does not now succeed in the destruction of crime, but in the feeling of sympathy it arouses toward the victims of repression; punishment is not the outcome of a deep and sane view of life, but an undignified and morally infantile manner of handling one's neighbor's liberty, health, and existence. It is enough to say that under the influence of this novel no man will be able to see, without pain, a passing transport of prisoners with their chains, their handcuffs and other sad appurtenances. All men will feel the moral sickness bordering on physical, which was experienced by Nekhlyudov in prison, in the transport station, and on all such occasions. This in itself is a great reform; the shape which these new feelings will take in life are secondary considerations. What exists must do so no longer; what will take its place is another question.[1]

The Resurrection proved that Tolstoi has no equal in the ability to evoke sympathy, love, and humane aspirations in the heart of man. Its chief value is in the kind feelings it evokes. The part which The Resurrection will play in combating penal slavery will no doubt be similar to that played by Harriet Beecher Stowe's novel in the abolition of Negro slavery. Tolstoi's task is a heavier one; he attacks an institution which is everywhere considered normal and necessary, whereas Mrs. Stowe was indignant at a practice which was condemned as a disgrace by the entire civilized world.

At the end of the novel is the inscription: "Moscow, December 12, 1899." One can hardly deny that, in the manner suggested here, this work of Tolstoi's, which Russia may proudly call her own, and which appeared at the very close of the last century, is one of the most remarkable, if not the most remarkable, book of the nineteenth century.

[1] There are at present strictly scientific works, based on abstract theories, which take a negative attitude toward the existing penal system; such is the fundamental two-volume study by Professor Varga: *Zur Abschaffung der Strafknechtschaft*, which demands the immediate abolition of punishment and proposes in its stead a specially organized system of guardianship.

JANE ADDAMS'S TWENTY YEARS OF INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY[1]

GRAHAM TAYLOR

To be identified with the life and lot of the working world is the religious passion of Jane Addams as it was of Leo Tolstoi. This master motive of his later years began to possess her whole life from her sixth year. The first, and perhaps the only pride of her life, of which she was conscious as she emerged from her babyhood, was in being a miller's daughter. The first appeal to her imagination from the larger world was in playing in her father's old mill. The one personal possession which she coveted first and most was the "miller's thumb." "I believe," she writes, "I have never since wanted anything more desperately than I wanted my right thumb to be flattened as my father's had become during the earlier years of a miller's life." She would rub between her thumb and fingers the ground wheat as it fell from the millstones in the childish hope of acquiring this trade mark of her father's craft and toil. She took measures to secure on the back of her hands "the tiny purple and red spots which are always found on the hands of the miller who dresses millstones." While her father was to her "the most imposing figure, in his Sunday frock coat, his fine head rising high above all the others as he taught the large Bible class in the left hand corner of the church, next to the pulpit," yet she was "consumed by a wistful desire to apprehend the hardships of his earlier life, in that faraway time when he had been a miller's apprentice."

Her first-remembered and oft-repeated dream was of a responsibility resting upon her to make a wagon wheel.

> The next morning would often find me, a delicate little girl of six, with the further disability of a curved spine, standing in the doorway of the village blacksmith shop, anxiously watching the burly red-shirted figure at work. I would store my mind with such details of the process of making wheels as I could observe, and sometimes I plucked up courage to ask for more. "Do you always have to sizzle the iron in water?" I would ask, thinking how horrid it would be to do. "Sure," the good-natured blacksmith would reply, "that makes the iron hard." I would sigh heavily and walk away, bearing my responsibility as best I could, and this of course I confided to no one.

It was to this capacity to be possessed by a great purpose, which thus early disclosed itself in her experience, that the scenes and events of the working world through which she subsequently passed, appealed so powerfully. The first of these appeals, which proved to be the most prophetic of all, came to her in her tenth year, on a day when she caught her "first sight of the poverty which implies squalor, and felt the curious distinction between the ruddy poverty of the country and that which even a small city presents in its shabbiest streets."

> I remember launching at my father the pertinent inquiry why people lived in such horrid little houses so close together, and that after receiving his explanation I declared with much firmness when I grew up I should, of course, have a large house, but it would not be built among the other large houses, but right in the midst of horrid little houses like these.

The next and most potent appeal which the poverty of the workers or the workless ever registered in all her deep experience, became the turning point in the career of her whole life. By a prophetic coincidence, it came from that same East End of London whither Arnold Toynbee went from Oxford University to be the forerunner of that first social settlement which still bears his name. There she received "an ineradicable impression of the wretchedness of East London, and also saw for the first time the overcrowded quarters of a great city at midnight." She thus reproduces, with all its terrible realism, the lurid scene which burnt itself into her memory:

[1] Twenty Years at Hull House. By Jane Addams. The Macmillan Company. New York, 1910. Pages, 462. By mail of THE SURVEY, postpaid, $2.50.

A small party of tourists were taken to the East End by a city missionary to witness the Saturday night sale of decaying vegetables and fruit, which, owing to the Sunday laws in London, could not be sold until Monday, and, as they were beyond safe keeping, were disposed of at auction as late as possible on Saturday night. On Mile End Road, from the top of an omnibus which paused at the end of a dingy street lighted by only occasional flares of gas, we saw two huge masses of ill-clad people clamoring around two hucksters' carts. They were bidding their farthings and ha'pennies for a vegetable held up by the auctioneer, which he at last scornfully flung, with a jibe for its cheapness, to the successful bidder. In the momentary pause only one man detached himself from the groups. He had bidden in the cabbage, and when it struck his hand, he instantly sat down on the curb, tore it with his teeth, and hastily devoured it, unwashed and uncooked at it was. He and his fellows were types of the "submerged tenth," as our missionary guide told us, with some little satisfaction in the then new phrase . . . They were huddled into ill-fitting, cast-off clothing, the ragged finery which one sees only in East London. Their pale faces were dominated by that most unlovely of human expressions, the cunning and shrewdness of the bargain hunter who starves if he cannot make a successful trade, and yet the final impression was not of ragged, tawdry clothing nor of pinched and sallow faces, but of myriads of hands, empty, pathetic, nerveless and workworn, showing white in the uncertain light of the street, and clutching forward for food which was already unfit to eat.

Perhaps nothing is so fraught with significance as the human hand, this oldest tool with which man has dug his way from savagery, and with which he is constantly groping forward. I have never since been able to see a number of hands held upward, even when they are moving rhythmically in a calisthenic exercise, or when they belong to a class of chubby children who wave them in eager response to a teacher's query, without a certain revival of this memory, a clutching at the heart reminiscent of the despair and resentment which seized me then.

Under the stress of this well-nigh overbalancing inrush of the working world's deepest woe, there also appears in Miss Addams that rare capacity to see the other side, to restore the balance of judgment, and to retain the sense of perspective. Reversing Arnold Toynbee's injunction to "study history with present problems in mind," she studies present problems with history in mind. For while she shared the horror with which the heart and conscience of the English-speaking world reacted at The Bitter Cry of Outcast London, she at once discerns this single impression to be, "of course, a most fragmentary and lurid view of the poverty of East London, and quite unfair." And she adds:

> I should have been shown either less or more, for I went away with no notion of the hundreds of men and women who had gallantly identified their fortunes with these empty-handed people, and who, in church and chapel, "relief works," and charities, were at least making an effort toward its mitigation.

So far from making an unbalanced partisan of her, this gruesome scene, and many another witnessed in her European sojourn and in the early part of her subsequent American experience, "did not, curiously enough, in anywise connect with what was called the labor movement, nor did I understand the efforts of the London trades unionists, concerning whom I held the vaguest notions."

This natural tendency to see both sides and to defend the right of each to freedom of thought and speech, has not only never forsaken Miss Addams, but has rather emphasized itself in her actions and utterances through the years. Throughout these reminiscences of all the storm and stress through which she has steered a straight course, her readers share the privilege of her intimate friends in actually seeing her trying to hold the scales of justice even. By her vigilant effort to do so, she was safeguarded on the one hand from any subserviency to wealth, and on the other hand from any slavish loyalty to labor. Within the compass of a single page, this independence appears in reasonably accounting for the business man's distrustful dislike of the type of mind capable of "social enthusiasm;" and likewise in repeating her rejoinder to a workingman's prediction that she would be subsidized by millionaires, that

> while I did not intend to be subsidized by millionaires neither did I propose to be bullied by workingmen, and that I should state my honest opinion without consulting either of them.

This she has consistently continued to do all these years, at any and every cost to herself or to Hull House. In evidence of this firm stand she has taken, we may cite, as she does not, every one

of the long series of Chicago's greatest strikes through which she has passed, as between the upper and nether millstones which, like the "mills of the Gods," grind "exceeding fine." Her graphic description of these irrepressible conflicts are as sympathetic interpretations of the interests and attitudes of each side as they are of the rights of the public, that third and greatest party to every industrial difference, which, always and only, she seeks to represent. But with what delicacy and difficulty this stand has been taken and maintained only those fully realize who know the personal and social relations involved. The cleavage wrought by the Pullman strike, which is more than intimated in these pages, has not yet healed and can only personally be felt. It is no wonder that from the scenes of sorrow in her own and others' circles she sought the peace of an hour's truce, by walking far through the strike-bound streets of Chicago to St. Gaudens's statue of Lincoln, her father's friend and her own great mentor, that she might breathe in again through the atmosphere of that great presence the "charity toward all" which tolerates "malice toward none." Thus girded anew in the spirit, she sought to steer that precarious course between those whose servility was begotten by paternalism, and those whose arrogance grew with absolute power; between the semi-beneficence of the model town and the ten-day clause in every householder's lease; between the human rights of ten thousand unorganized American working people and the sympathetic strike of the American Railway Union, which threatened to tie up the highways and mail of a continent; between unswerving loyalty to law and order and the dread and distrust of superseding civil authority by military force.

In the teamsters' strike of 1905 we see her sitting in the mayor's office a long Sunday afternoon, talking first with aggrieved workingmen and then with outraged employers, all the while conscious of the paralyzing power of a new and corrupt industrial conspiracy between the teamsters' union and the team owners' association, to whose co-conspirators in the executive offices of both organizations the whole strike was due.

How unswervingly her ethical insight and steadfastness steadied and steered her passion for justice is strikingly shown by the consistency maintained between her school girl essay and the mature conclusion of her fiftieth year. As a school girl she wrote:

> Those who believe that Justice is but a poetical longing within us, the enthusiast who thinks it will come in the form of a millennium, those who see it established by the strong arm of a hero, are not those who have comprehended the vast truths of life. The actual Justice must come by trained intelligence, by broadened sympathies toward the individual man or woman who crosses our path; one item added to another is the only method by which to build up a conception lofty enough to be of use in the world.

As tested by many later experiences, "this school girl receipt" is verified by this maturest conclusion:

> . . . . certainly employers, trades unionists and arbitrators were all convinced that justice will have to be established in industrial affairs with the same care and patience which have been necessary for centuries in order to institute it in men's civic relationships, although, as the judge remarked, the search must be conducted without much help from precedent. The conviction remained with me, that however long a time might be required to establish justice in the new relationship of our raw industrialism, it would never be stable until it had received the sanction of those upon whom the present situation presses so harshly.

Underlying this passion for social and economic justice there is to be discerned on every human leaf of this book of life a still deeper sense of the need of sympathy and suffering, in order to interpret and reconcile those at variance with each other. So far, however, from considering this suffering of sympathy as a stern necessity, its moral beauty is exalted in quoting the conclusion of an amateur labor drama for which the hero willingly forfeited his life:

> It's the side that suffers most that will win out in this war—the saints is the only ones that has got the world under their feet—we've got to do the way they done if the unions is to stand.

In this spirit she cheerfully accepts the inevitability of suffering cruelest mis-

understanding in making the effort to which a social settlement is committed, "to understand and as far as possible alleviate the present industrial system which thwarts our ethical demands not only for social righteousness, but for social order."

That in this effort it should be drawn into fellowship with the local efforts of trades unions is most obvious. This identity of aim apparently commits the settlement in the public mind to all the faiths and works of actual trades unions. Fellowship has so long implied similarity of creed that the fact that the settlement often differs widely from the policy pursued by trades unionists and clearly expresses that difference, does not in the least change public opinion with regard to its identification. This is especially true in periods of industrial disturbance, although it is exactly at such moments that the trades unionists themselves are suspicious of all but their "own kind." It is during the much longer period between strikes that the settlement's fellowship with trades unions is most satisfactory in the agitation for labor legislation and similar undertakings. . . .

Nevertheless the reaction of strikes upon Chicago settlements affords an interesting study of social psychology. For whether Hull House is in any wise identified with a strike or not makes no difference. When "labor" is in disgrace we are always regarded as belonging to it and share the opprobrium. . . .

There is, however, a certain comfort in the assumption I have often encountered that wherever one's judgment might place the justice of a given situation, it is understood that one's sympathy is not alienated by wrongdoing, and that through this sympathy one is still subject to vicarious suffering. . . . Perhaps that sort of suffering and the attempt to interpret opposing forces to each other will long remain a function of the settlement, unsatisfactory and difficult as the rôle often becomes.

There is a touch of pathos in her world-wide quest for fellowship in this pursuit of the Holy Grail. She lingers pensively over her youthful hope in starting out upon this search:

that somewhere in church or state are a body of authoritative people who will put things to right as soon as they know what is wrong. Such a young person persistently believes that behind all suffering, behind sin and want, must lie redeeming magnanimity. He may imagine the world to be tragic and terrible, but it never for an instant occurs to him that it may be contemptible or squalid or self-seeking.

I vaguely hoped for this universal comity when I stood in Stonehenge, on the Acropolis in Athens, or in the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican. But never did I desire it as in the cathedrals, Winchester, Notre Dame, Amiens.

However, this larger "comity" failed to be realized in history or experience, she gratefully appreciates the "warm fellowship gradually developed between the various settlements in Chicago, founded upon a likemindedness resulting from similar experiences, quite as identity of interest and endeavor develop an enduring relation between the residents of the same settlement."

It was the yearning for such "fellowship" that led her at the age of twenty-five, all alone, with "no outside pressure pushing me toward such a decision," to receive the rite of baptism and become a member of the Presbyterian Church in her native village of Cedarville.

I was conscious of no change from my childish acceptance of the teachings of the Gospels, but at this moment something persuasive within made me long for an outward symbol of fellowship, some bond of peace, some blessed spot where unity of spirit might claim right of way over all differences. There was also growing within me an almost passionate devotion to the ideals of democracy, and when in all history had these ideals been so thrillingly expressed as when the faith of the fishermen and the slave had been boldly opposed to the accepted moral belief that the well-being of a privileged few might justly be built upon the ignorance and sacrifice of the many? Who was I, with my dreams of universal fellowship, that I did not identify myself with the institutional statement of this belief, as it stood in the little village in which I was born, and without which testimony in each remote hamlet of Christendom it would be so easy for the world to slip back into the doctrines of selection and aristocracy?

It is to "a certain renaissance going forward in Christianity" in which she thus confesses to have been so early caught up and so long borne on that she attributes the origin of the social settlement. It is "the wonderful fellowship, the true democracy of the early church that so captivates the imagination."

The spectacle of the Christians loving all men was the most astounding Rome had ever seen. They were eager to sacrifice themselves for the weak, for children and for the aged; they identified themselves with slaves and did not avoid the plague; they longed to share the common lot that they might receive the constant revelation. It was a new treasure which the early Christians added to the sum of all treasures, a joy hitherto unknown to the world—the joy of finding the Christ

which lieth in each man, but which no man can unfold save in fellowship.

These early Roman Christians received the Gospel message, a command to love all men, with a certain joyous simplicity. The image of the Good Shepherd is blithe and gay beyond the gentlest shepherd of Greek mythology; the heart no longer pants, but rushes to the water brooks.

From the maze of interests and influences, outreaching and introspections, achievements and experiences, which are wonderfully interwoven in this simple story of an extraordinarily human life, we have selected and put together the outermost and the innermost:—her struggle for democracy in industry out in the open and her heart's deepest synthesis in fellowship with the Father and with fellowmen in the kinship of the spirit. For the outermost and innermost, and everything in between, are thus shown to be, not detachable parts that can even be considered or understood apart, but constituent elements of character, inextricably identified with each other and exquisitely blended in the unity of a simple, single-hearted personality. This is the charm of the story,—as it is of the life that has more than lived it. So luminous is the life that its fine literary expression is unconsciously overlooked in viewing the vision. There is art in both, but never artifice; art so artistic that it always conceals its arts by being unconscious of them. So naturally are widely separated events and experiences associated that the earlier and later illuminate each other. The recital of vividly concrete incidents and the mature, philosophical reflections which suggest each other are so identified as to be one and the same unbroken flowing tale. To those near enough to read between the lines the delicate reserves are as unfailing as the touch is firm at the most sensitive nerves of the story. The silences, which pass over without a word some of the most fascinating scenes and vital experiences that too closely involve others' suffering to be spoken of, are as impressive as the frankness and fearlessness with which Miss Addams lets other facts, chiefly involving herself, speak for themselves. In this heart-made volume—and in its original illustrations, home-made book—she talks with her friends and communes with her own heart, without the slightest breach of privacy or suspicion of egotism. Like the life it suggests more than it exhausts, Miss Addams's Twenty Years at Hull House will illuminate, interpret and inspire many more lives than will read the volume from any one of the many points of view at which it will make vital contacts with a multitude of very different people.

A NATIONAL HEARING FOR SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT

PAUL U. KELLOGG

If the old time Tailors' Guild of London Town had decided to raise prices because of the shortage of a medieval wool crop, had been met by a popular protest, and the protestants had suddenly whisked out from behind a curtain what purported to be a modern sewing machine, as a sole and sufficient argument against the necessity for paying an extra sovereign for their smalls—why, that would have been a prototype of the situation confronting the attorneys for the railroads of the Atlantic Seaboard, at a hearing Thanksgiving week in Washington, before the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The occasion afforded a national platform for the exponents of what has been christened scientific management; which to its leaders and disciples marks a change in industry comparable only to the change from hand tools to machines, and which, if it realizes only a small part of the results claimed for it, will profoundly affect modern conditions of life and labor.

When a majority of the railroads of the Eastern classification territory pro-

posed to increase freight rates, they raised several issues of direct concern to those interested in social welfare. In testimony introduced in their behalf, it was contended that operating expenses have increased faster than gross revenues, because of the recent advances in rates of wages; expenses which have been further augmented by acts of Congress providing for safety appliances, increasing the employer's liability in case of accident to trainmen, and limiting the excessive hours to which some crews in the past have been subjected. In the future, even more than in the past, these demands for increased earnings, shortened hours, sure compensation in work-accidents, and lessened overstrain, will be live issues in labor negotiations and in legislation; and if they cannot reasonably be met in any other way, they would warrant an increase in the public's shipping bill. On the other hand, such raises in freight rates would render more acute than ever the problem of livelihood for wage-earners in all industries.

In this situation the public has been content, apparently, to leave its interests in the hands of the shippers, and the shippers have been floundering in a rather bottomless ruck of arguments as to traditional rates, injury to particular trades or production centers, overcapitalization, discrimination, etc. As attorney for the traffic committee of the Commercial Organizations of the Atlantic Seaboard, Louis D. Brandeis has introduced a daring and entirely new line of defence. President McCrea of the Pennsylvania had testified that with the reduction of grades, and the increased hauling capacity of locomotives and cars, the limit of efficiency and resultant economy is practically reached. This was Mr. Brandeis's point of attack, and he marshalled before the commission a group of production engineers, efficiency experts, manufacturers, contractors and functional foremen who told of the application of scientific management to machine shops and factories, steel works and paper mills, cotton mills, bleacheries, printing, book binding, construction and engineering work. In his opening statement Mr. Brandeis said in part:

> To these declarations of despair involving a vicious circle of ever-increasing freight rates and ever-increasing cost of living, we oppose the gospel of hope. As an alternative to the practice of combining to raise rates and hence to increase prices, we offer co-operation to reduce costs and hence to lower prices . . .
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> We shall show you how scientific management, when applied to the simple operation of loading a railroad car with pig iron, increased the performance of the individual worker from twelve and one-half to forty-seven tons; how, when applied to shovelling coal it doubled or trebled the performance of the shoveller. How, when applied to the operations of a machine shop, it developed, in certain operations, increases ranging from 400 to 1,800 per cent. How, when applied to brick laying, the day's accomplishment rose from 1,000 to 2,700 bricks.
>
> The fact that the railroad business is subject in its accounting to the requirements of this commission makes it possible for the commission to require that each company ascertain and report to it the simple ultimate unit cost of each operation in every department of the railroad. The further fact that the railroad business is practically non-competitive makes it proper to publish these costs, and to give to each railroad the benefit of knowing the lowest elementary unit cost of each operation attained by any railroad, and how it was attained. What is needed as a basis of comparison is the ultimate unit cost, the cost of turning a wheel, the cost of laying a tie or a rail; and even that relatively simple operation must again be separated into its ultimate simple elements. . . . With the ascertainment of the lowest existing costs, the study must be made whether there is still waste time and effort involved in the best existing method of performing that particular operation, and after such waste has been determined and eliminated, there remains the wide field of research for a better way. . . . Under the present management increasing wages means increasing costs. Under scientific management increasing, greatly increasing wages means a lower cost. For under the influence of science not only does labor produce more, but there is a great saving in materials, and smaller expenditures for plant and equipment.

In fine, Mr. Brandeis's contention is: that the burden of proof is upon the railroads to show that there is no way of meeting their new labor budget and remain solvent other than by increasing freight rates; that before the commission approves the pending rate increase it shall demand comparative unit costs, and shall itself make an investigation of railroad industrial practice and the possibilities of scientific management as applied to it; otherwise the government will be joining in an endless antiphony of higher rates, higher prices, higher wages and higher rates.

His brief may be considered no more than a shrewd move, when the shippers had found other cudgels of no avail, to cross the swords of the expert traffic men with the equally tempered blades of a remarkable group of industrial inventors and managers, whose ingenuity has been directed towards eliminating waste and increasing production along all lines, in much the way that the traffic men have clipped minutes from their time tables increasing the speed of their fast trains. A broader view is to regard Mr. Brandeis not so much as attorney for a particular interest, as a man big enough to seize a big opportunity, matching up the needs of the shippers and the creative genius of the scientific managers with the demands of the railroads, and invoking the power of the Interstate Commerce Commission to apply to one great group of industrial enterprises, with which the public comes into authoritative contact, principles which the industrial statesmanship of the future may apply to all.[1] The immediate step urged upon the Interstate Commerce Commission would lead to a continued service to the railroads of the country, and through them to the people, similar to that of the Department of Agriculture in demonstrating soils and breeding stock.

It has been only within the past four or five years that the pioneers in scientific management have formulated their principles into anything approaching a system. They go back to the early work of Fred. W. Taylor of Philadelphia, who gave up his course at Harvard because of bad eyes and got a job as laborer in the Midvale Steel Works. After he had worked three years as foreman, he made up his mind that life wasn't worth living if the methods and spirit of work in vogue were the standard of civilization. One of his early accomplishments was with yard labor:

> The shovelling was done as it had always been done. Taylor said that for the ordinary man, there must be some law governing shoveling which nobody had developed; there must be a certain number of pounds which a man could carry on his shovel most efficiently, without wearing himself out. He made his observations as any scientist would, and ultimately discovered twenty-two pounds to be the amount which a man fitted for the job could handle. He then thought that if twenty-two pounds was the right amount, he must have a shovel with which a man could, without waste of effort, carry that weight. If the shovel were heavier than necessary, he would not be getting the full benefit of what he did in carrying it back and forth; nor would the same shovel do for coke which did for coal. When Taylor got that far, he considered the conditions under which the man shovelled. If he shovelled lump coal, the place for him to shovel from was the ground, but if he shoveled lime, he should take that from the top of the pile, because then he would not need a smooth hard surface to scoop from; and it took less time and effort to begin at the point nearest him. In this way he increased the efficiency of the shovelers about 200 per cent, working the same number of hours and working no harder, but paid about sixty per cent above the ordinary day wages.

One of the most interesting pieces of testimony was that of Frank B. Gilbreth, a well known contractor, who under Mr. Taylor made a motion study of bricklaying:

> Bricks have been laid about the same way for 4,000 years. The first thing a man does is to bend down and pick up a brick. Taylor pointed out that the average brick weighs ten pounds, the average weight of a man above his waist is 100 pounds. Instead of bending down and raising this double load, the bricklayer could have an adjustable shelf built so that the bricks would be ready to his hand. A boy could keep these shelves at the right height. When the man gets the brick in his hand, he tests it with his trowel. If anything this is more stupid than stooping to pick up his material. If the brick is bad he discards it, but in the process it has been carried up perhaps six stories, and must be carted down again. Moreover, it consumes the time of a $5 a day man when a $6 a week boy could do the testing on the ground. The next thing the bricklayer does is to turn the brick over to get its face. More waste: more work for the $6 boy. Next what does the bricklayer do? He puts his brick down on the mortar and begins to tap it down with his trowel. What does his tapping do? It gives the brick a little additional weight so it will sink into the mortar. If anything this is more stupid than any of the others. For we know the weight

[1] This is in line with Mr. Brandeis's known work for manufacturing concerns in New England, in line with his long-expressed view that we are entering upon an era of social invention in industry which will eclipse the last century of mechanical invention, and in line with two other Washington commissions which have brought him before the public nationally—the Oregon night-labor-for-women case in which the Supreme Court's decision marked an era in health and factory legislation, and the case for conservation involved in the Pinchot-Ballinger inquiry. He is acting as unpaid attorney in this freight rate case.

of the brick and it would be a simple matter in industrial physics to have the mortar mixed so that just that weight will press it down into the right layer. And the result? Instead of having eighteen motions in the laying of a brick, we have only six. And the men put on the work to try it lay 2,700 with apparently no more effort than they laid a thousand before.

Equally significant was the testimony given as to the Brighton mills, Passaic, where a study of the operations of the looms was made under Gant. The first point of attack was to eliminate the things which delayed the weavers. Their warp often ran out before new was at hand: they used twenty boxes of filling a day, and there was no routing which brought the supply automatically to them when needed. These things meant friction and lessened output. With these preventable delays eliminated, a motion study was made of the operators. Next, a new system of payment was established which guaranteed them the day rate they had formerly earned, and offered a bonus for output in excess of the standard time; this rate never to be cut. Instructors were employed to show the weavers how to manipulate the machines in line with the new motion studies, and a special bonus was paid to these instructors if they brought their men up to standard. The scientific staff of these mills, as distinct from its operating force, today includes a head scientific manager, a planning clerk, a routing clerk, store clerks, timekeepers and investigators, the latter trained men, several of them graduates of textile schools, who do nothing but study the processes at every point. The accompanying colored sheet, published through courtesy of the *Engineering Magazine*, shows the experience in the weave shed during the transitional weeks—how an increasing number of the weavers were broken in to the new methods with the help of the instructors, and how, once they had mastered the new way, their bonus became a fixed entry. This sheet was exhibited as illustrating one of the most important features of the system—the individual work record of each man, which puts him clear of the caprice of the foreman.

The illustrations cited are rudimentary. They show the angle from which the scientific manager is approaching his problem. In the space available it is impossible to go into the testimony offered as to scientific management—or even to outline its major phases[1]—its inventions which embrace men as well as machines, its inter-locking of processes and routing of materials, its care in tool equipment, its scientific rate-making, its shifting of emphasis from the "line" to the "staff" organization of industry, from the "man higher up" to the "last man" on the job, its utilization of the economic motive, its creation of understandable work units, its elimination of friction and of the wear of work.

There was challenge in this testimony, not merely to railroaders, but to those who approach industrial conditions from the social viewpoint. If scientific management presents the potentialities of the change from hand tools to machine production, it presents some of the dangers of that change. It has already developed ethics as well as method; its success may well jeopardize those ethics, at the hands of cruder men than the group who have fought its earliest battles against what skepticism and inertia as only they know. Repeatedly, Mr. Brandeis gave human viewpoint and the "labor" bearings of some bit of testimony of one of his witnesses, in a way which showed that in the development of the social content of this new science of works management we should look for some of its most important advances in the next few years. They would give backing for Mr. Brandeis's feeling that "there is nothing in the whole field of sociology to compare with it for hopefulness." For if we are in truth to have such another intensive, resistless reordering of industrial life, as the economists called the Industrial Revolution, we should not only have statesmanship to forestall its miseries, but to socialize the benefits which would come from great leaps in production.

[1] A literature is already building up on this subject. Within the past six months Emerson and Gant, who were the leading expert witnesses at Washington, have set forth their principles and rare funds of suggestive experience in two volumes of the Works Management Library published by the *Engineering Magazine*. Efficiency as a basis for operation and wages, by Harrington Emerson, and Work, Wages and Profits: Their Influence on the Cost of Living, by H. L. Gant.

THE COMMON WELFARE

TO ARBITRATE GARMENT STRIKE

Just when the strike of 40,000 garment workers in Chicago[1] seemed to have settled down into a grim struggle of endurance, with little hope of early termination, the great third party to every industrial dispute—the public—succeeded in its efforts to bring both sides together in a plan of arbitration. This came about, significantly, through the intervention of the official representatives of all the people—the City Council of Chicago. At its meeting on November 28, Alderman Merriam introduced a resolution pointing out that the whole city—her citizens and her business—was suffering enormous loss through the protracted strike of so many workers, that many policemen were required to protect the public and guard the struck shops, and that a committee of representative citizens investigating the causes of the strike had found real differences between the parties to it, and provided that a committee of three aldermen be appointed by the mayor "to use their best efforts to bring about a conference of the parties at issue in this strike, to the end that a just and lasting settlement of the points in controversy may be made."

A conference arranged by this committee brought together its own members; Harry Hart of the firm of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, and Attorney Levy Mayer representing that concern; and Samuel L. Landers of the national garment workers' union, President John Fitzpatrick of the Chicago Federation of Labor, Edward Anderson of the local garment workers' union, and Mrs. Raymond Robins of the Women's Trade Union League, representing the strikers. After several sessions the conference reached an agreement on December 3 on a plan of arbitration. This was ratified on December 4 at an executive session of the Chicago Federation of Labor, which had given its complete support to the cause of the strikers. During that and subsequent days the various strikers' meetings were visited by the four conference members representing labor, who explained the terms of the plan and urged its ratification by all.

[1]See THE SURVEY for November 19.

Wilder in Chicago *Record-Herald.*

THE NON-COMBATANTS.

The arbitration plan provides for a board of five members—two to be appointed by the employers, two by the striking employes, and the fifth to be chosen by these four—with full power to settle all grievances submitted by the strikers and devise a plan of dealing with any which may arise in the future. Their decision is made binding on both parties. Non-union employes are not to be discriminated against. All strikers are to be taken back except those who have been guilty of violence. If a striker seeking re-employment is challenged on that ground and work is refused him and the challenge is not sustained, he is to receive wages from the time of his seeking re-employment.

TERMS OF AGREEMENT

Under the terms of this plan the objectionable feature of the former pro-

posed agreement, to which President Rickert of the national garment workers' union assented and which was overwhelmingly repudiated by the strikers, plays no part. This was the specific statement, that the agreement to have a board of arbitration should not be considered as a recognition of any union, that the question of union or open shop should not be submitted to or decided by the arbitrators, and that the open shop should not be considered as a grievance. The present plan thus leaves the way entirely open for the board of arbitration to devise some plan of shop organization or committee scheme involving the principle of collective bargaining. In this respect the employers have entirely abandoned their repeated insistence, that dealing with employes individually is an adequate way of handling all grievances and matters of shop administration, wages and other conditions. On the other hand, under the present plan, the strikers have completely given up their closed shop demand. As in the settlement of the cloakmakers' strike in New York, it is likely that both sides in the Chicago struggle will find some means of providing for collective bargaining without involving the strictly union shop.

The conference has thus far had the participation of the Hart, Schaffner and Marx firm alone among the employers; and even its participation shows a much broader spirit of conciliation than existed two weeks ago when a prominent Boston garment merchant was present in Chicago, who more than anyone else was influential in settling the New York cloakmakers' strike. There he was welcomed in the councils of both sides, and brought Louis Brandeis into the situation as chairman of a joint conference and proposer of the "preferential union shop." In Chicago the union leaders unreservedly conferred with him, but the employers did not appreciate the opportunity to profit by his experience.

The refusal thus far of other Chicago employers to accept the invitation of the City Council committee shows a curiously blind denial of rights to the workers, which even in their response to the committee these employers assume for themselves. The lawyer representing the Wholesale Clothiers' Association and the Wholesale Tailors' Association, in response to the invitation to attend the meetings, wrote:

> In view of the fact that it is the intention of the wholesale clothing and tailoring associations, which I represent, to maintain the open shop wherein competent people may work without discrimination because of their membership or non-membership in labor organizations, I feel that the conference as planned would not be productive of good results.

Similarly, Edward Rose, president of the National Wholesale Tailors' Association, after learning of the expected presence at the conference of a committee representing the garment workers' union, wrote that his organization desired "to avoid a discussion of the present labor situation in our industry with the garment workers." As the Chicago *Daily News* points out:

> Thus it appears that numerous clothing manufacturers, speaking through agents representing trade organizations to which they belong deny to their employes this same right to act collectively through agents of their own selection! This position is not merely untenable—it is absurd and medieval.

As THE SURVEY has stated, the firm of Hart, Schaffner and Marx is much the largest of all the concerns involved in the strike, employing 10,000 out of the 40,000 workers who went out. It is generally felt that if the present negotiations result in a satisfactory agreement in the case of this firm, the other employers will find it necessary to bow to public sentiment and make a similar agreement. It is said to be the purpose of the City Council committee again to invite the employers who have not thus far participated. If they should again refuse, there is little doubt that they will find the feeling of all classes of people in the city overwhelmingly against them.

The end of the strike in Chicago comes just at a time when, according to report, the trouble was spreading to Milwaukee and other cities, where shops were said to be receiving work from Chicago.

THE STRIKERS' LONG STRUGGLE

The Chicago struggle of more than nine weeks' duration has been a severe test for both sides. A conservative esti-

mate puts the loss in employers' profits and workers' wages at over $100,000 a day or a total of about $5,000,000. The situation had developed into a struggle in which questions involving specific grievances and methods of adjusting them, points of shop administration and even questions of technical consideration in industry, which should obviously be settled on some basis of reason, were to be decided by a test of brute strength—by waiting to see precisely how long it would take hunger and cold to enforce submission. If it became necessary to win the struggle against starvation as a preliminary to a settlement on the basis of reason, there were numbers of people in Chicago willing to contribute to the strikers' resources, whatever their impressions might be of the merits of the controversy.

Organizations and interests which thus extended help involved a wide range, from parlor gatherings in the homes of the well-to-do to the various trade unions of the city. The Chicago Federation of Labor voted an assessment on trade unionists at work, and this was made effective as the individual organizations met and acted in accordance with that resolution. The Teachers' Federation contributed from its members and from funds raised by the energetic leaders. A special issue of the *Daily Socialist*, presenting in detail the cause of the workers, was sold on downtown street corners by girl strikers, this bringing in more than three times as much money as a similar scheme in New York during the cloakmakers' strike. Various organizations on race lines were formed to provide relief for striking countrymen. At a meeting of the Citizens' Committee the needs of thousands of babies in strikers' families were pointed out by Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, who started a milk fund with a contribution of $1,000.

The religious forces of the city also co-operated. In some churches small envelopes "for the relief of the strikers," or "to help the garment workers win their strike," were distributed in the pews, collection being made after a talk on the strike by the minister or someone sent from the Women's Trade Union League. The ministers' organizations of several denominations went on record in favor of better standards of wages and hours and the principle of collective bargaining. Committees were appointed to inquire into the facts of the strike. The city-wide evangelistic campaign, recently conducted by the Rev. J. Wilbur Chapman, also directed attention to the situation. Many organizations, notably the State Federation of Women's Clubs, adopted strong resolutions endorsing the strikers' cause.

Among efforts toward a settlement, the City Club, through its committee on labor conditions, published a bulletin printing in full the terms of the "preferential union shop" agreement[1] which settled the cloakmakers' strike in New York, and of the "basis for settlement" which ended the shirtwaist makers' strike in Philadelphia. While not urging that the exact terms of either of these be applied to Chicago, the committee pointed out that the essential feature in both is the recognition, in different forms, of the principle of collective bargaining, although neither involved the so-called "closed shop."

The Chicago Woman's Club held a large meeting at which a number of speakers discussed the situation and read a letter written by Jenkin Lloyd Jones to the employers, urging them to make further efforts to meet their employes at least half way by conceding their right to be represented collectively. On all of these occasions, and in many other ways, the Citizens' Committee helped inform the people of Chicago about the situation.

Throughout the long struggle there were many instances of violence, yet compared with many other labor difficulties the record was not as bad as it might have been. On the whole, and in view of the desperate circumstances to which some of the strikers were reduced, Chicago may be considered fortunate to have escaped without more serious disturbance.

Meetings of strikers were simultaneously held every day in several halls. Speeches by leaders kept them informed

[1] See THE SURVEY for September 17.

on all developments, including the distribution of relief. These meetings did much to preserve self-control and enable all to keep cheerful together.

CLAUSE 79 IS HELD UNCONSTITUTIONAL

By a decision rendered by Justice Bischoff in the New York State Supreme Court, Clause 79 of the Page law has been declared unconstitutional. Medical examination of convicted prostitutes has been discontinued in the Night Court for Women and the sentences imposed by magistrates have now no relation to the presence or absence of venereal disease.

Justice Bischoff's decision applies only to Clause 79 and does not disturb the operation of the remainder of the Page law, which radically changed and improved the administration of minor courts in New York, added new juvenile courts and the Court of Domestic Relations, and will shortly provide civilian probation officers, chosen by civil service test and paid by the city.

The decision holds that

> the attack upon this statute upon the theory of discrimination between men and women is not well founded. It is unquestionably an enactment having for its aim the safeguarding of the health of the inhabitants of the state, and the matter is fully within the police power. Ground of argument is not lacking that the danger from the spread of disease by women of the class in question is greater than the danger existing from the disease in the case of men, and that the present regulation is necessitated as a step distinct in its nature from a corrrective measure which may be directed to the diseased condition of males.

The claim of class legislation because the law applied only to one sex is thus denied by Justice Bischoff. The unconstitutionality, he held, lies in the relation of the medical inspection to the court procedure. The decision reads:

> There is clearly merit, however, in the contention that the statute directs the detention of the accused, without due process of law, in that the nature of the sentence, after conviction, is made to depend upon the report of a physical examination without the opportunity of a hearing upon the facts entering into the report. The conclusion of the examining physician is made binding upon the court. The report is presented to the magistrate "and if it *thereby* appears," says the statute, that the prisoner is afflicted with the disease in question, "the magistrate shall commit her to a public hospital," for a period which, in the magistrate's discretion, may be one year—a period greatly exceeding the maximum time of detention prescribed for the same offense in the absence of a physician's report. Since the magistrate cannot hear the accused as to the corrrectness of the facts stated in the report, but is bound thereby, the penalty attaching to conviction of the offense is made to depend upon an independent inquiry out of court with the result that the convicted person is deprived of the benefit of due process of law.

The decision thus rests entirely on a legal point. It is stated that an appeal will be taken to the Appellate Division by the corporation counsel.

It is understood, also, that the matter will come before the Legislature of 1911 in one or more bills which will aim to provide medical inspection and treatment after commitment, a more general use of Bedford Reformatory for Women and an effort to hasten the establishment of a farm colony for women, for which preliminary steps have already been taken.

It is understood, also, that the new legislation will attempt once for all to remove prostitutes from the workhouse, which offers no opportunity for moral or physical improvement, and to do away with short term sentences and repeated small fines. These are conceded to have as bad an effect upon prostitutes as a recent number of THE SURVEY (October 5, 1910) showed them to have upon confirmed drunkards. During the term the Page law has been in operation—a little less than three months—two women have been sentenced to the workhouse for five days each, twelve for ten days each, five for fifteen days each, and so on through a list of varying short terms in marked contrast to the Bedford term, which has no limits except the maximum of three years.

Little can be expected of any new law, it is held, which does not in some way urge magistrates to use Bedford to its capacity—and then to increase the capacity. From September 1 to November 24, the term the Page law was in effect, 284 women were convicted. 14 were placed on probation, 17 were fined, one was sent to Bedford, one was sent to the Magdalene Home, 51 were sent to the

workhouse for definite—usually short—periods, 120 to the workhouse for an indeterminate period of not more than six months, and 80 to the hospital. That is, four-tenths of one per cent of the whole number were sent to the institution which the state established and equipped up in the Westchester Hills, for the specific purpose of setting women offenders on their feet, teaching them habits of industry and returning them to society with a fair chance of success.

OPENING THE DOORS OF THE LITTLE RED SCHOOL HOUSE

We have the public school plants, but most of us no more appreciate what it means to have these possessions than the people in Europe before 1492 appreciated what it meant to have the earth. There was a whole hemisphere of incalculable wealth and opportunity about which they knew nothing. And in the public school plant there is a whole hemisphere of value unrealized, undiscovered, by those who think of it simply as a building for the education of children with the additional use of an occasional evening school.

This opening paragraph of the report of the school extension committee was the chief feature of one of the most interesting sessions at the Buffalo convention of the National Municipal League.

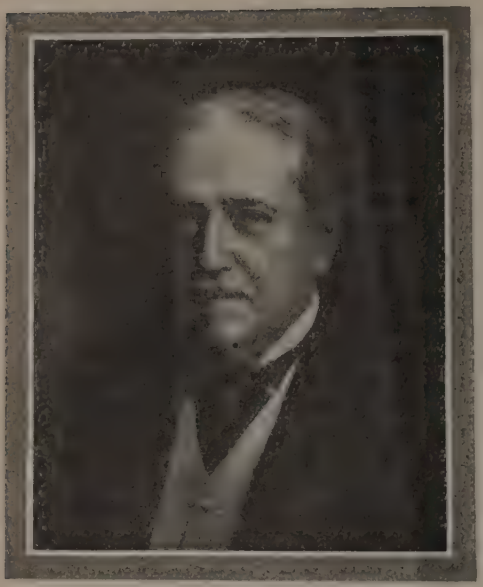
The report defined a social center as "the public building or group of buildings and grounds which form the capital of the neighborhood, the focal point of its common educational, recreational, political and social life, the institution which is to the neighborhood or smaller division of a city as the civic center is to the city as a whole." The complete and fully equipped social center has nowhere been realized, but the testimony of many speakers from many cities showed the progress made toward it. Prof. Charles Zueblin and the Rev. Samuel M. Crothers traced its ancestry from the primitive gatherings of free men in ancient Greece and Rome and Palestine down through the *folk mote* of northern Europe, the old New England town meeting and the citizen gatherings in the little red schoolhouse in the colony of Massachusetts Bay. Professor Zueblin showed that such uses of the schoolhouse are not novelties—"they are the twentieth century revival and expression of that democratic spirit which has been vital at intervals for more than two thousand years."

The committee placed great emphasis upon the use of school buildings for non-partisan gatherings for public discussion. Henry C. Campbell of Milwaukee and Livy S. Richard of Boston gave testimony from experience, Mr. Richard showing in particular that "the public schoolhouse is the appropriate headquarters for non-partisan politics." Civics may be taught to children by day and to foreign-born adults by night, and the school can be turned into a polling place by a mere installation of voting machines—Buffalo, it was shown, could save $7,500 or more a year by such use—and if the suffrage is extended it would provide a fit place for women to vote.

CALLING THE ROLL

A mere recital of the subjects and the speakers gives an idea of the scope of this promising new movement. The relation of the civic use of school buildings to public service was made up of statements from public officials, including former Governor Hughes, Mayor Gaynor, Mayor Whitlock, Mayor Seidel and various aldermen. Dr. George W. Goler of Rochester showed how the school can be a local health office, L. E. Sterns, its use as a branch public library; Henry M. Leipziger of New York discussed it as a free lecture bureau; Edward W. Stitt of New York, as a recreation center; John Collier of New York, as a center for educational moving pictures; William D. Foulke, as a public art gallery; C. S. Martin of Columbus, as a center for civic festival and holiday celebrations. Charles W. Holman of Dallas outlined social uses of country schools. Clarence A. Perry of the Russell Sage Foundation told concretely of the actual developments in this direction in more than a hundred cities and of the extensive development in eighteen cities—a subject he has covered in a forthcoming book.[1] Other speakers

[1] Wider Use of the School Plant. By Clarence A. Perry. Russell Sage Foundation Publications. In press. Orders for delivery on publication, in about two weeks, may be sent to THE SURVEY at $1.25, postpaid.



WILLIAM DUDLEY FOULKE.

showed the relation of this socialized public school to the regular school, to home, university, church and settlement and to reform movements.

The session was throughout interesting and inspiring and it will be learned with gratification that the full report of the committee is to be published in book form.

This Buffalo meeting was the first in four years at which the National Municipal League gathered to discuss good city government, without the aid and comfort of the American Civic Association conferring on problems of civic beauty in an adjoining hall. In spite of this division, the attendance was quite as large as at Cincinnati the year before, and there was an advantage in not having to choose between two meetings going on at the same time. It marked the new presidency of William Dudley Foulke of Richmond, Ind., formerly United States civil service commissioner, who takes the place filled for seven years by Charles J. Bonaparte. In his opening address on Conservation in Municipalities, Mr. Foulke called attention to the great value of city property—streets, roads, parks, public buildings—which in private hands would be made to produce an enormous income and should, through proper municipal control, be made to decrease tax burdens substantially. He pointed out another source of city income in unearned increment on land values. Mr. Bonaparte's retiring message laid emphasis on the apparent anomaly, that men will do more for next to nothing than they will for great material rewards—they do not risk their lives or charge in battle in the hope of increased dividends, and in that lies the hope of municipal reformers who are seeking recruits in a tedious, laborious, costly and embittered conflict with powerful, entrenched enemies. The secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff of Philadelphia, gave his usual admirable summary of civic progress during the past year.

Space forbids a detailed consideration of the program which was, in fact, a veritable feast of good things. In spite of the absence of the sister body, the program was crowded.

ORGANIZATION OF CIVIC SECRETARIES

Two of the sessions, however, demand at least brief reference. One of these resulted in a new organization, the Civic Secretaries' Committee of the National Municipal League, whose purpose is "to consider questions arising in connection with the organization and methods of work of civic associations." Each member is to make his office a bureau of information regarding all civic affairs in his city if a local organization, and of information within its field of work if a national organization. The chairman is Eliot H. Goodwin, secretary of the National Civil Service Reform Association; the secretary, John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association; and the treasurer, Addison L. Winship, civic secretary of the Boston City Club. A discussion lasting all of one afternoon brought out the fact that civic organizations may roughly be divided into three classes: one typified by the Boston City Club, which provides a meeting place and seeks to bring together men interested in civic affairs, and by association and contact to stimulate and strengthen

this interest, but to leave the actual carrying out of constructive work to other organizations usually composed of these same men; a second typified by the St. Louis Civic League, the municipal affairs committee of the Grand Rapids Board of Trade and the Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce, and the Pittsburgh Civic Commission which seek themselves to carry through constructive programs for civic betterment; and a third typified by the Chicago Municipal Voters' League and the Minneapolis Voters' League which concern themselves almost entirely with the records of candidates for public office.

The other notable session was in charge of the committee on municipal reference libraries, with the chief contributions by Horace E. Flack, municipal librarian of Baltimore, and Samuel H. Ranck, librarian of the Grand Rapids Public Library. The committee traced the history of this new form of library work, marked its importance and value and reached the following conclusions: that a municipal reference library should be established in every large city under the control of the public library, located in the city hall and placed in charge of a man selected for merit alone; that it serve not only city officials but the public generally and the press; that it establish subject files concerning health, police and other specific questions; that it maintain a strictly neutral attitude on all questions; that it serve as a repository of city documents and establish an exchange of such documents between cities; that the head of the bureau draft ordinances when called upon to do so. Mr. Ranck emphasized strongly two points—that the library must be free, and that it must reach school children.

PROBLEMS OF PENNSYLVANIA

The second Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction recently held at Altoona was successful in the advertising it gave through the newspapers to the activities of the state's social organizations and the need for certain legislative changes. It was successful also in the inspiration given the delegates by the forceful presentation of facts and figures by speakers of acknowledged authority. It was seemingly unsuccessful, however, in arousing interest in social matters in the conference city. Altoona (and for Altoona read almost any of the smaller Pennsylvania cities) has no associated charities, though steps are now being taken to form one, and to the absence of such an agency for adequate local advertising must be attributed the meager attendance of local people at the conference. Plainly a conference should not be held in a city which is without a well organized center for local publicity.

In his presidential address F. H. Nibecker, superintendent of the Boys' House of Refuge at Glen Mills, discussed an old and mooted question—the Pennsylvania system of state subsidies to private charitable institutions. He believes that private local institutions should be supported locally but that those among them which do work for different parts of the state should have public aid. The discussion which followed placed him distinctly on the conservative side of the controversy.

The state came in for criticism on other scores. One was the practice of keeping girls in county jails under the most seriously objectionable conditions. Martha P. Falconer, superintendent of the Girls' House of Refuge at Darling, backed up her plea for a reformatory for girls and women by a series of letters from Pennsylvania judges and by an address by Katharine B. Davis of the Bedford Reformatory for women, New York, who showed the strong grip her institution gets upon the inmates. Another severe critic was Vance C. McCormick, former mayor of Harrisburg, who showed how the state has spent a million and a half dollars since 1903 on the Institution for Feeble-minded at Spring City, to bring its accommodations up to the utterly inadequate number of 300 boys. The conference committee on defectives estimated that there are 18,000 feeble-minded and epileptic persons in the state, without counting the baffling class of slightly deficient — the "morons" — who were described by Dr. J. H. Goddard of the Vineland, N. J., Training School.

Dr. Joseph S. Neff told how the infant death rate in Philadelphia was reduced thirty-six per cent in five wards in which house to house baby nursing and instruction for mothers were carried on last summer as a demonstration to City Councils of the high returns on money invested in such work. Other evidence on the subject was presented by Dr. J. F. Edwards of the Pittsburgh Department of Health, who showed that one-half of the Pittsburgh babies who die are in families paying a rent of ten dollars a month or less, and three-fourths in families paying fifteen dollars or less; and by Charles F. F. Campbell, general secretary of the Pennsylvania Association for the Blind, who contested the general opinion that midwives are chiefly responsible for improper care of infants, by showing that of 116 preventably blind children born last year two had been attended by midwives and 114 by physicians. There was a strong exhibit on infant mortality which bore its part in making this one of the most interesting sections of the conference.

The failure of child labor reformers and of specialists in industrial education to connect up their programs was brought out sharply by Fred S. Hall, secretary of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association. He said:

> Because of this failure a great gulf has been fixed between the legislative compulsion secured by one side and curriculum possibilities offered by the other. Into that gulf are dropping each year several hundred thousand boys and girls. If the fifth grade has been completed, and if the boy is also fourteen years old, he is allowed to choose between work and school. But that boy is not at the same time allowed to choose between industrial school work and academic school work. Industrial courses, with but two or three exceptions, are open to him only if he has completed the grammar school—three years farther along.

Jesse D. Burks, chairman of the National Education Association's committee on industrial education, had some timely remarks at the same session on the low grade "dead end" industries where training is not given or required.

> In an age of rapid-fire guns and high explosives, we are sending boys and girls into the field equipped with blunderbusses and wet powder. We are penny-wise in providing for industrial training and supervision of child labor, and pound-foolish in providing houses of detention, reformatories, prisons, asylums and charitable relief.

There were other discussions, no less interesting, on wife desertion under the direction of Charles F. Weller, general secretary of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities, and education on sex hygiene by Edwin D. Solenberger, general secretary of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, and a stirring address by John Foster Carr of New York drawn from his close contact with Italian immigrants.

Next year's conference will be held in Pittsburgh November 14-16. The Rev. R. M. Little, D.D., of Pittsburgh was elected president; Fred S. Hall, secretary, and Edwin D. Solenberger, treasurer. The topics will be the prevention of blindness and the employment of adult blind, the courts and the child, public health, inebriety, the church and social work and state supervision of charities.

STUDY MISSOURI SOCIAL PROBLEMS

With the annual meeting recently held at Chilicothe, the Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction begins its second decade. Within the last year the membership of the conference has quadrupled, an increase which represents a new social interest throughout the state, in part due to the stimulus given by the National Conference of Charities at St. Louis last June; in part, to the reorganization of the conference on a more businesslike basis, and in part, to the wide publicity given to its work by the executive committee.

G. Wilse Robinson opened the sessions with his presidential address on the value of a state conference as a means of laying out broad plans of preventive work. He was followed by William C. Graves of Illinois, who spoke on the Central Administration of State Institutions, and William B. Moulton, president of the Illinois Civil Service Commission, who dwelt on the business advantages of civil service in public institutions.

The second day was made significant by four chief features: the public ex-

hibits, the study of problems of public health, the counseling together of juvenile court officials, and the formation of the State Association of Poor Law Officials. The exhibits consisted of a large display of pictures, diagrams and industrial work of state institutions, loaned by the State Board of Charities and Corrections, and the traveling exhibit of the St. Louis Municipal Commission on Tuberculosis. The section on problems of public health brought out several noteworthy papers, the most valuable perhaps being Dr. Walter H. Fuchs's comprehensive and searching treatment of sex hygiene. Dr. Fuchs described the passage of the social evil law by the Missouri Legislature in 1872, told of the present organization to improve conditions and the need of public education on sex hygiene, explained the nature and extent of the social evil, and closed with a denunciation of the double standard of morals and a plea for the development of an aristocracy of brains and character. Robert J. Newton of St. Louis and Dr. William Porter outlined the method of the campaign against tuberculosis. Dr. M. H. Post and Dr. John Green of St. Louis treated the problem of preventing blindness. In the group meeting of almshouse superintendents, two excellent papers were presented by Prof. T. J. Riley of the St. Louis School of Social Economy and E. T. Brigham of the Kansas City Helping Hand Institute, the former discussing problems of outdoor relief and the latter vagrancy. Dr. Riley's paper was notable for his exposure of the lax administration of outdoor relief in Missouri which fosters pauperism and multiplies degenerates. The meeting was followed by the formation of the State Association of Poor Law Officials, with Dr. Anderson as president and W. T. Cross as secretary.

At another section, under the chairmanship of George B. Mangold of St. Louis, the undeveloped work of child-saving in Missouri was studied. Judge Grimm of the St. Louis Juvenile Court explained the constitutionality of this new agency, and Judge Porterfield of the Kansas City Juvenile Court told of the work done by the boys' farm and the newsboys' hotel in connection with his court. Roger N. Baldwin showed that the logical development of the juvenile court idea means prevention, and the Rev. C. C. Stahmann described the work of the Missouri Children's Home Finding Society. In his committee report Dr. Mangold said that it is time for Missouri to undertake a conscious policy of caring for dependent and neglected children, whether through a state school or by boarding out under the State Board of Charities and Corrections.

The final morning session was made most interesting by the address of Dr. Alice Hamilton of Hull House on the importance of proper physical treatment of the wayward girl. The dominant idea in Dr. Hamilton's talk was the unreasonableness of the old plan of treating this class of girls and the need of their scientific physical regeneration. Major W. L. Chambers, state pardon attorney, explained the new system of paroling convicts from the penitentiary as it is used by Governor Hadley. Mrs. F. W. Baumhoff of St. Louis reported for the committee on placing reading matter in the charitable institutions of the state. The report made by Judge David E. Blair for the standing committee on social legislation included an appeal for adequate support of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, a demand for enlargement of the state colony for the feeble-minded, a statement of the general demand for civil service in state institutions, a request for an increase of the legal rate of county support of patients in insane hospitals, and a plea for a reformatory for young first offenders.

The 1911 conference will meet in Kansas City the second Thursday in November. The officers are: Prof. T. J. Riley, president; Dr. G. Wilse Robinson, Mrs. A. M. Clay and S. M. Green, vice-presidents; William T. Cross, secretary-treasurer. Beside the president and secretary the executive committee includes Mary E. Perry, William Volker and Mrs. J. N. Booth.

HALE JAILS TO THE BAR

One of the best recent bits of descriptive sociology is the definition of the present jail situation in the United States

given by Frederic Howard Wines, statistician of the Illinois Board of Administration of State Institutions, before the Maryland Conference of Charities and Correction at Frederick. What he said of our jails, "satirized by foreigners under the generic term of menageries," applies to almost every jail in every state, but it came with particular force after a report by a reporter of the Baltimore *Sun*, who has stirred the state with a series of articles on the subject. Dr. Wines said:

> No fault can be found with any one jail that may not be found with scores of hundreds of others. There are jails that are too large, and jails that are too small, insecure jails, unsanitary jails, jails without light, jails without heat, jails without ventilation, filthy jails, jails that are not properly governed, palatial jails, and jails that are not fit for occupation, stables, or pigsties. There is not a charge that can be brought against the county jail system which has not been brought, nor one that cannot be sustained. We have used a stereotyped form of construction in American prisons. That is one cause of the prevalence to such an alarming extent of tuberculosis. The atmosphere of our average jail is foul beyond the power of language to describe. Prisons of this sort are propagating houses of criminals.
>
> The abuses of which I have hinted could not long survive if convicted offenders, major and minor misdemeanants, as well as felons, were in the custody of the state instead of county officials. The massing of sentenced prisoners would admit of their classification, and of the introduction of reformatory methods of dealing with them.

The conference was organized in four committees—families and neighborhoods, health and sanitation, children, county homes and county jails, Dr. Wines's address falling in the last. In addition to the papers and discussion of the committees there was a special address at the opening session by William H. Maltbie of Baltimore, who made a keen analysis of the Maryland system of state aid to public and private charities—a subject which was being discussed in the neighboring state of Pennsylvania at almost the same time. Leaving aside the fundamental question of whether or not such aid should be granted and accepting it as a policy to which the state is committed, Mr. Maltbie laid down three fundamental principles for it. First, public funds must be expended for the good of all, which excludes appropriations on denominational, local, racial and special grounds. Second, the state holds its funds subject to a trust which it may not delegate and therefore has no right to give away money for permanent buildings to which it does not hold title, or for maintenance of an institution without a rigid accounting for expenditure. Third, the state is under an obligation to get value for what it spends and therefore its appropriations must be based upon the amount of service rendered. To get effective service the state must work through an expert board with a well-paid staff of expert investigators. Yet, in Maryland today there is a state board, but it is not permanent, its members are not familiar with problems of charity and it has no expert force. "The appropriations violate all of the fundamental principles laid down. They are denominational, they are racial, they are local, they are not always made on merit. We donate buildings to institutions where the state has no control over the title. We donate funds for maintenance and demand no accounting and our appropriations bear no particular relation to the service rendered."

Another striking address was by Joseph B. Baker of Frederick, the president of the conference, who drew a parallel between the movement for conservation of physical resources and for the conservation of human kind.

The papers at the sections were interesting and several struck new notes and brought out points of particular interest to the state. Francis H. McLean of the Russell Sage Foundation showed the need for charity organization work in smaller cities as well as in large. Some of the most degenerate families in the country are found in the smaller communities, he said. Edith Jones Keene of Talbot county, speaking on When Should the Custody of the Child be Transferred from Its Parents and by Whom, precipitated a discussion in the committee on children in which a large number participated and which left the impression that the state must revise its statutes so as to provide a more humane relationship

between child and state and that the state's function in relation to dependent, neglected, defective and delinquent children is in sore need of being more clearly defined. Dr. John N. Hurty of Indianapolis, in a striking address on eugenics, made an appeal to social workers to join with medical men in attempting to give human life its highest values.

The next conference will be held in Baltimore, in the autumn of 1911, with Gen. Lawrason Riggs of Baltimore as president and with but three committees, health and sanitation, Dr. Adolph Meyer, chairman; children, families and neighborhoods, Aimee Guggenheimer, chairman, and state, county and municipal philanthropy, William H. Maltbie, chairman.

PLAN UNIFORM LAW ON ACCIDENT COMPENSATION

Nine states and the United States government were represented at a conference of commissioners on compensation for industrial accidents held in Chicago to discuss the fundamental points which should be covered by legislation, and upon which it is desirable to secure uniform state laws. The conclusions reached by the conference should prove of great value wherever there is a movement to secure employers' liability or accident compensation laws.

The conclusions of the conference as to what a law should cover are:

1. That all employments should be included.
2. That all injuries should be covered irrespective of employers' negligence and of employes' negligence except where injury is self-inflicted for the purpose of recovery—burden of proof that injury was self-inflicted to be placed on the employer.
3. That all persons engaged in the employments should be included.
4. That compensation shall be paid in instalments in the case of temporary disability, and in the case of permanent disability or death by instalments with right to commute after a given time with approval of some public official.
5. That the amount and duration of compensation shall be as follows:
   (a) Temporary disability. Fifty per cent of the impairment of wages; maximum of $10 per week, minimum of $5 per week; or if wages less than $5, then full wages (or 66 2/3 per cent of wages up to $7.50 of wages per week, then 50 per cent of balance until compensation amounts to the maximum of $10 per week, maximum). Payments not to extend beyond period of 300 weeks.
   (b) Permanent disability. Same as temporary disability.
   (c) Partial permanent disability. Fifty per cent of impairment of wages. Maximum of $10 per week. Payments not to extend beyond period of 300 weeks.
   (d) Death.
      (1) Total dependents.
         If orphans, 50 per cent of wages of deceased.
         If widow alone, 25 per cent of wages.
         If widow and one child, 40 per cent of wages.
         If widow and two children, 45 per cent of wages.
         If widow and three children, 50 per cent of wages.
         If widow and four children, 55 per cent of wages.
         If widow and five children or more, 60 per cent of wages.
         If widow, father or mother, 50 per cent of wages.
         Children under sixteen years of age only to be included and only during period they are under sixteen years of age.
         Maximum of $10 per week, minimum of $5 per week or if full wages less than $5, their full wages (or 66 2/3 per cent of wages up to $7.50 of wages per week, then 50 per cent of balance until compensation amounts to $10 per week, maximum). Payments not to extend beyond period of 300 weeks.
      (2) Partial dependents. Fifty per cent of the portion of the wages contributed by the deceased to the partial dependents.
      (3) No dependents. Expenses of last sickness and burial not exceeding $200.
6. That the length of waiting period shall be two weeks, during which period employer shall furnish medical treatment or hospital care to an amount not exceeding $100 in value.
7. That dependents shall not include aliens residing outside the country and illegitimate children are not to be mentioned.
8. That employes shall not contribute.
9. That it shall be permissible for employers to substitute voluntary schemes, provided the voluntary scheme covers all points covered by the law and is approved by some public official to be determined in the law.
10. That the method of determination of controversies shall be by a board of arbitration.
11. That the scheme shall involve compulsory state insurance or if this is not possible compulsory compensation, providing that the employer may transfer his liability by insuring in companies approved by a legally constituted public body or official.
12. That all other laws in conflict shall be repealed.

The United States Employers' Liability Commission, which was recently appointed and consists of Senators Warner of Missouri and Hughes of Colorado, Congressmen Denby of Michigan and Brantley of Georgia, William C. Brown, president of the New York Central lines, and D. L. Cease, editor of the *Railway Trainman,* was represented by Mr. Cease and Launcelot Packer, secretary of the commission. United States Commissioner of Labor Charles P. Neill was also in attendance. Official commissions in eight of the nine states were represented as follows: *Massachusetts,* James A. Lowell, Amos T. Saunders, Magnus W. Alexander, Henry Howard and Carroll W. Doten; *New York,* J. Mayhew Wainwright; *Wisconsin,* A. W. Sanborn and Paul J. Watrous; *Ohio,* James H. Boyd, W. J. Bohr, W. J. Winans and Z. E. Smith; *Minnesota,* H. V. Mercer, George M. Gillette and W. E. McEwen; *Illinois,* Edwin R. Wright, E. T. Bent and George Golden; *New Jersey,* William B. Dickson and Albert A. Snowden; *Montana,* W. L. Holloway. A special delegate, Walter S. Schutz, was present from Connecticut. A special committee of commissioners on uniform state laws to prepare a uniform workmen's compensation law consisted of Hollis R. Bailey, of Boston, chairman, Aldis B. Browne of Washington, D. C., and John H. Wigmore, dean of Northwestern University Law School, Chicago. The conference chose H. V. Mercer, chairman, and Amos T. Saunders, secretary.

ILLINOIS EFFORTS TO SECURE A NEW LAW

The conclusions of the conference should be of great value in Illinois where a state commission, appointed by resolution of the last Legislature to frame a law covering employers' liability and extend compensation, failed to agree. The commission consisted of twelve members, six representing employers and six employes. The bill formulated in the report was supported by all of the members except two who represented especially the sentiment of the Chicago Federation of Labor and opposed the bill because they thought it did not sufficiently do away with the present employers' defences under the common law, such as contributory negligence, assumption of risk and the fellow-servant clause. Four labor men, including President Edwin R. Wright of the Illinois State Federation, supported the bill.

This controversy among the labor members of the commission was carried to the recent Illinois State Federation of Labor convention at Rock Island, where Mr. Wright was re-elected president of the federation and his attitude and that of his three colleagues on the commission was sustained. The convention directed him to appoint a committee of six to confer with employers regarding the introduction at the next session of the Legislature of a bill in conformity with the commission's report.

The convention of the American Federation of Labor in St. Louis passed a resolution on November 22 supporting the policy of the Illinois Federation, thus showing still more clearly that the two labor members of the Illinois commission who did not endorse its bill fail to represent the attitude of organized labor generally. Notwithstanding this, the Chicago Federation of Labor continues to oppose the Illinois bill and is actively trying to bring local unions throughout Illinois to its point of view.

BRICKS WITHOUT STRAW

THE STORY OF AN ITALIAN GIRL AMONG THE STRIKING GARMENT WORKERS IN CHICAGO, TAKEN DOWN VERBATIM BY PROF. KATHARINE COMAN OF WELLESLEY COLLEGE.

I went over to Blue Island and Polk street to Mr. G. one Saturday and asked for work. He asked me what could I do? I said: "Well, I can do shoulders, I can do body finishing and all sorts of work." He said: "Just wait here a minute and I will put you to work." So he came back in a minute and I started to work. In the evening I went to him and said: "Well, Mr. G., do you like my work?" "Yes," he said, "very well."

There were about ten greenhorns who could not talk English at all. I can't speak English very good, but I speak

more than what they could, so in the evening I went to him and I said: "Do you like my work?" He said: "Yes, I like your work very well." I said: "How much are you going to pay me?" He said: "What can you do?" "Well," I said, "I told you, basting, finisher, buttons, all kinds of work." So he said: "Well, I would like to have you for forelady to teach these greenhorns how to work, because these are greenhorns and they can't work very well." So he told me: "You just be forelady and tell them to work more and make me good work." So I said: "Well, all right, but don't you like the work that they do?" He said: "No, they can't work for me now, but you must try and learn them." So I said to him: "If you think they can't do the work, I have some good experienced girls that could do the work right, and I will bring them over in the morning." So he laughed—he stopped and he laughed. He said: "Experienced girls? Not in my shop." "Why, not?" He said: "I want no experienced girls. They know the pay to get. I got to pay them good wages and they make me less work, but these greenhorns, Italian people, Jewish people, all nationalities, they cannot speak English and they don't know where to go and they just come from the old country and I let them work hard, like the devil, and those I get for less wages." I said: "All right, then, you are the boss and I will do as you say."

So in the morning, Tuesday morning, I started to attend to the girls. So when the girls seen me, they asked me: "You are the forelady?" "Yes." "How much are you going to pay us a week?" So I said: "I am a new girl here, I don't know anything, but I will ask the boss, and I will let you know."

So when it was Tuesday night I went to the boss and I said: "These people want to know how much are you going to pay them?" He said: "Well, don't you know how much?" I said: "I don't know, I am new in the shop, I don't know how much you pay." So he said: "For a finisher, I will give her six dollars a week, and she must finish me up ten coats a day." Now each coat you could sew it in an hour and a half, and that made fifteen hours' work a day. So I answered and said: "Oh, my, they could not do that. Why, I cannot finish myself ten coats in a day, and I am an experienced girl, and how could you expect these people to finish ten coats in a day? So he said: "Well, never mind, that is my price, six dollars a week, ten coats a day, if they want to work. If they don't want to work, I got a lot of greenhorns to come in the shop, why, let them go." I said: "Well, all right, I will speak to the people."

Well, Wednesday morning I told the people, "You must finish up ten coats a day, six dollars a week." Well, these people were all married women, they all had families of small children, some had husbands that were sick, and there was a woman there that had a husband that was blind for two years and besides he was sick in bed, and she was in that condition she could not work, but she had to work in the shop to get fifty cents a day to support her and her husband. So I said, "Well, you must finish up ten coats a day." Those people started to cry. They said: "How can we support our families if we have to do ten coats a day, because we could not do a coat in an hour and a half. How can we do it? It is impossible." Well, I got up and I said, "Talk to the boss." They said, "We cannot make ten coats a day." I said, "All right, I speak to the boss again."

So I went to the boss and I told him, I said: "The people are not satisfied. Ten coats a day, an hour and a half on each coat, you ask them to work fifteen hours a day." He said: "If they cannot finish ten coats a day, let them finish up just as much as they can in the day time, and the rest of the coats they bring home so as to make one day's work. If they cannot finish ten coats a day, bring the rest home and make them in the night time, so they can do one day's work." I said, "They want to be paid piece work." He said, "That is all right. I will pay them piece work." I said, "All right. How much are you going to pay them?" He said, "I will pay them thirteen cents a coat," and that was a little worse than the week work. You had to work an hour and a half on each

coat for thirteen cents a coat, and if they worked ten hours a day they could not make more than fifty cents a day, and I said, "It is too cheap." He said: "I can get all the greenhorns I want to do the work, and I can get them cheap." "All right."

I went to the people and I said, "The boss will pay you thirteen cents for each coat." "Thirteen cents a coat. Are you crazy," they said to me. "Well," I said, "I ain't crazy, but maybe the boss is." They said, "How do you expect us to make fifty or sixty cents a day, how can we do it?" I said: "I cannot help it. That is my duty, I have to tell you."

So these people, they did not know where to go, and they had to suffer and be satisfied with that thirteen cents a coat because they did not know where to go. They did not know how to speak English, they did not know any place to go, any other shop, so they had to keep on there and suffer, and they could not make any more than five coats a day when they worked hard. He wanted fine work and small stitches. He said, "I want work just like a patty cake." He wanted all that work for thirteen cents a coat, and those people make five coats a day.

Well, about a month later this boss came to me and said, "Oh, Clara, I am so sore I don't know what to do." "Well," I said, "The bosses are always sore for one thing or another." He said, "Well, do you know what is the matter with me? The contractor that gives me the work, he cuts me twenty-five cents a coat. What can I do?" I said: "Well, you must ask him again to raise you back again." He said: "Oh, no, he don't want to do it." "Well," I said: "I am sorry for you, but what can I do?" He said: "Well, the only thing to do, I pay thirteen cents a coat for finishing, and that is too much, we must lower it down to twelve cents." I said: "Thirteen cents a coat is too much? You must be crazy. If you would lower the price down to twelve cents, they cannot make it." He said: "If they cannot make it, here is the window and here is the door. If they don't want to go from the window, they can go from the door, and if they don't want to go from the door, they can go from the window. I have lots of greenhorns. I got to make my own living." I said: "Ain't you ashamed? Ain't you sorry to make those people work an hour and a half for twelve cents?" He said: "Don't you care. In the old country they work for ten cents a day, and in America, if they make thirty-five cents a day, they can eat beans and they will have plenty to live on." He said, "You don't understand America. Why you worry about those peoples? Here the foolish people pay the smart." That made me angry and I said, "Well, now the smart people will teach the foolish!"

I said: "I am not going to tell those people twelve cents a coat, they will jump over me if I tell them." He said: "You got to tell them." I said: "No, sir, you tell them yourself. I am just ashamed to tell them." I said: "You are a rich man." He said: "Yes, I am rich, and the poor must stand by the poor, and the rich must stand by the rich." I said: "Well, if you want to do that, you tell them that yourself." He said: "You are forelady, you are supposed to do the speaking." I said: "Well, if I am supposed to do the speaking, then I will not be the forelady, I want to be a working girl, the same as the others, and then I don't speak." So he said: "What do you care for them greenhorns?" "Well," I said: "I am an Italian girl myself. I can speak myself good English, but if I could not, you would do the same thing to me." "Well," he said: "If they don't want to make the coats for twelve cents, let them jump out." I said: "All right, you tell them." He said: "Don't you want to attend to the girls?" I said: "No, I want to be a working girl." He said to me: "Well, what work do you want to do?" I said: "Well, give me work, anything you wish to." "Well," he said: "All right, I will give you week work." I said: "How much?" He said: "I will give you fourteen dollars a week."

I was the best one in the shop, one of the best girls, an experienced girl in all kinds of work. Those people could not do no more work than two and a half to three dollars a week, but I was better, I was a good, experienced girl

and do all kinds of work that no other girl could do. He said: "All right, I will give you week work." So he told them twelve cents a coat and they said: "What can we do for twelve cents a coat? We cannot make no more than five coats a day. How can we make our living?" He said: "Don't you want to stay? Go on, go out of the shop. I will kick you out, one by one, out of the shop."

I was the only single woman there. They were all married women. He said: "I can kick you out." The women got up and said: "Well, you got such a heart, you make us work for twelve cents, you are a rich man. Why don't you give us a cent more, five cents a day more. That is enough for us."

He said to one woman: "A good looking woman like you, maybe you don't need no position. You don't need to work." You understand—I am a young girl, and I cannot explain. "A nice woman like you, if you don't like to work in a shop, you don't have to work, you do something else." So that woman, of course, she had to keep quiet. She understood and she said: "Well, no, I will starve first." "Well," he said: "Get out of the shop." He talked that way to that woman.

Well, then, when he put me to week work—anybody who works for him must make small stitches. He said: "They must be so that the stitches does not show at all." He put me to week work and he said: "I will give you fourteen dollars a week." Of course I basted on shoulders, and if I was to work real fast and real hard that I would not have two minutes to get a glass of water to drink, it took me twenty-five minutes, so in ten hours I could not make any more than twenty-three or twenty-four coats, and I had to work hard to do that.

So the first day I make twenty-four and the second day the same. I could not possibly do no more. I used to go up there a quarter after six and half past six to finish the shoulders, because if I did not have them ready they had to wait for me, and my overtime, I did not get paid for it. So one day there were about fifteen coats laying on the floor and I was the only one basting shoulders and the boss came in and he said: "Clara, are those coats all basted?" I said: "All basted? An hour and a half, fifteen coats all basted; no, they ain't basted." He said: "Do you let them lay on the floor?" I said: "No, but if you don't want them on the floor, put them on a chair." He said: "I thought they were all basted." It was nine o'clock in the morning, and fifteen coats laying on the floor. I said: "I cannot baste a coat in less than twenty-five minutes, no matter how hard I work." He said: "You know that these coats must fly like the leaves on a tree, that is the way you must make the work fly." I said: "My, I cannot do that." He said: "Well, you know the people cannot wait for you, the finisher cannot wait for you, the work must go out." So I said: "Well, get another one to help me if you want the work to fly." He said: "No, I won't have another girl, you got to do it. If I get another girl, you have to baste one hundred coats a day," and I could not do that in a week, so I said: "No, I cannot do it." He said: "Well, you should baste thirty-five coats a day," and I could not baste no more than twenty-four coats if I worked real hard.

Of course, I am a poor girl against a rich man. If I would quit, maybe it takes me two or three days to get another job, and there was a family of five or six persons in the house and I was the only one working, and then I lose two or three days, five or six dollars, and I could not; I had to suffer and take all he said. Every day he comes to me and he said the work must go, and he holler and he use profane words, too, so what could I do? I cannot go to another place to find work because the other places were on a strike. Of course, he was insulting me every day and the other people, too.

So I knew they were striking in all the shops, so I told all our girls, I said: "The first whistle we hear in the window, that means for us to strike. You cannot work for twelve cents a coat, and I cannot baste thirty-five coats in a day, and we will all go on a strike." So one day, it was dinner time, a quarter after twelve, and we hear a big noise under the win-

dow and there was about 200 persons were all whistling for us to come down and strike, so I was the first one to go out and get the other girls to come after me.

So when we went on a strike, he owed me eighteen dollars and a half, and he owes all the people and he would not pay us. I went to him and I said: "Why don't you pay us? I need the money." He said: "I am not going to pay none of you," and he did not do it.

WILLIAM PRYOR LETCHWORTH

ISABEL C. BARROWS
New York

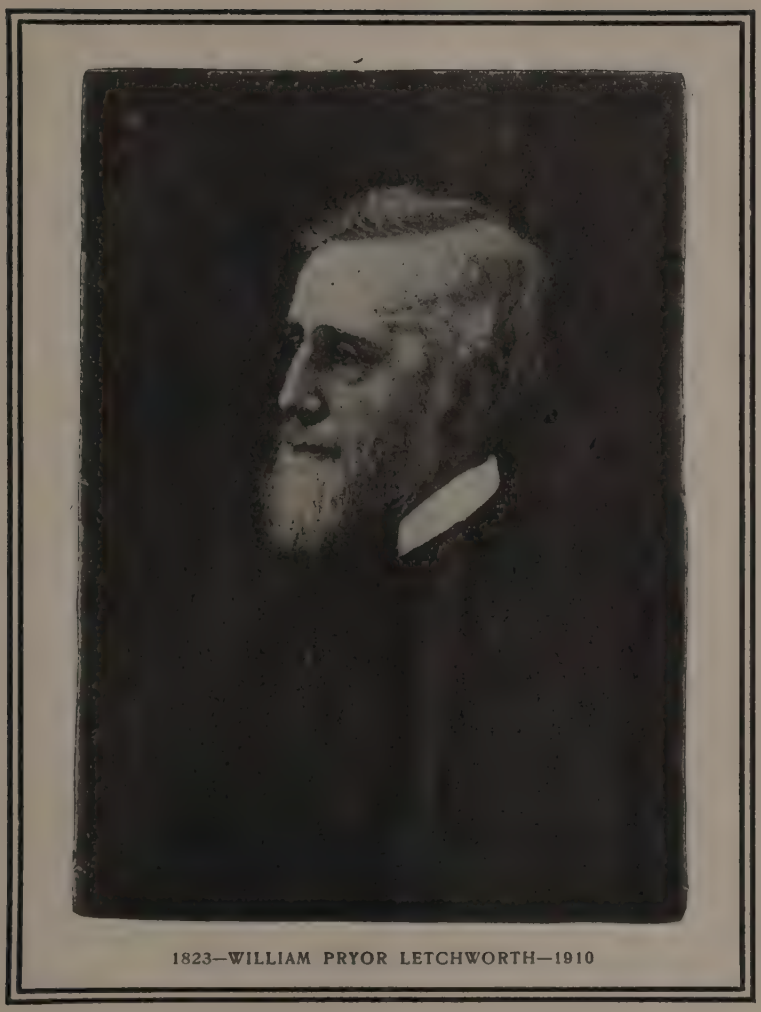
Forty-four years ago I spent a happy day at Glen Iris, the beautiful home of Mr. Letchworth, a day succeeded by many others in "Rainbow-land" as we used to call it, not alone from the brilliant colors that always played about the Portage Falls when the sun was shining, but because the bow of promise was a symbol of the life of the good man whom the Indians called Hai-wa-ye-is-tah—"The one who always does the right thing." He opened the door of hope and promise to many a man and to even more little children. It is not the great ones of the earth, not the learned and wealthy, not the mighty and powerful alone who are mourning because he has gone to his grave. It is the countless little children saved from the almshouse, the innumerable insane rescued from horrible lack of care, the thousands who have to eat the bitter bread of poverty, but at least have decenter places in which to eat it because he designed an improved type of poorhouse; it is the village of epileptics in the Letchworth Colony; it is the neighboring farmers and their broods of children who gather chestnuts in the noble groves; it is the prisoner for whom he improved conditions, who mourn the man just gathered to his fathers like a shock of corn fully ripe.

William Pryor Letchworth, who died at Portage, N. Y., December 1, was one of a large family of country-born children. He was born in Brownville, New York, May 26, 1823. Among the lessons he learned from an excellent mother were lessons in industry, thrift and content and how to do things well. These stood him in good stead during his whole life. As a young man he was engaged in the saddlery and hardware business in Auburn and later in Buffalo. In both places he prospered. Yet even when most successful in amassing money he never forgot the charm of country life and while he was busy with his account books and stock-in-trade he was planning for a home nearer to the heart of nature.

Little by little he acquired land along the Genesee river, till in the course of time he was master of a thousand acres of most varied and wonderful beauty. To this place he retired for rest and recreation.

A severe accident from which he barely escaped with his life turned the current of his thoughts. Once, in describin it, he said in his simple, earnest way, "I thought my life must have been spared for something more than money-making," and accordingly he resolved to use it for a higher purpose. From that time for more than forty years his name was the synonym of unselfish devotion to the most needy. For twenty-four years he was on the State Board of Charities, serving as president from 1878 to 1888 without compensation even for traveling expenses. In 1884 he was president of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and when in 1900 New York organized her own conference of charities and correction he was the first presiding officer. He was active in forming the Association for the Study and Treatment of Epileptics twelve years ago and was made president. This was in recognition of his work for that class and for his large and valuable book on that subject, a great storehouse of facts collected and arranged by him after visiting many European lands. It is a companion to his work on the Insane in Foreign Countries. For years he was also vice-president of the Prison Association of New York.

Largely through the influence of Mr. Letchworth a bill was passed for taking all children from almshouses and other pauper establishments. He was likewise very influential in having the insane transferred from all sorts of unsuitable



1823—WILLIAM PRYOR LETCHWORTH—1910

places to state care, though he was always eager to give credit for most of that great reform to Miss Schuyler and Mrs. Lowell. Indeed, his chivalrous regard for women was one of his characteristics, a characteristic never more marked than in these later years of invalidism, when he carried on all his vast interests,—business, philanthropic and personal—with the aid of three devoted women—his amanuensis, his attendant and one, the faithful manager of his wide estate. No ladies in the land were treated with greater deference. His beautiful old-fashioned courtesy joined with profound respect made life under the same roof with him a rare boon.

His associates in his own state were always men who aided in every reform. In his national work he had as associates such well-known men as Philip C. Garrett, F. B. Sanborn, F. H. Wines, H. H. Giles, Rutherford B. Hayes, and many more. In Europe his own name was known and honored.

As president of the Buffalo Fine Arts Academy he was able to further the art interests in the city which he loved, and as president of the Buffalo Historical Society he contributed a unique chapter to the historical associations of the state.

Glen Iris,—which runs for three miles along the Genesee river and includes the three wonderfully picturesque Portage Falls and the marvelous cañon with sheer walls rising 350 feet above the river—was once the home of the aborigines. He greatly desired to preserve the relics of this older civilization. The first thing he did was to buy an old council house built of logs which stood on one of the Indian reservations. The logs were marked and taken down and the cabin reconstructed on a portion of his estate. It now serves as a museum of Indian things open to the public and looked after by a caretaker. Beside it is the grave of Mary Jemison, "the white woman of the Genesee," who was taken captive when a girl and brought up among the Indians. To avert the destruction of her grave when city improvements threatened it, he removed the dust and ashes to sleep near the old council house, building a monument to her. He also moved the cabin which had belonged to her daughter to Glen Iris and many old gravestones which had marked the sleeping place of Indians, and which the city ruthlessly had torn up to build culverts, he set up in this happy hunting ground, replacing the culverts at his own expense. There had been feuds between some of the tribes for many years, and Mr. Letchworth, true to his peace-loving Quaker blood, sought to smooth out these differences. When his council house was established he invited representatives from the warring tribes to meet round its open fire and smoke the pipe of peace and bury the hatchet. They came and through his gentle words peace was restored and he was adopted into the Seneca tribe.

Though neither wife nor child of his own ever gladdened his home, Mr. Letchworth made for himself ample opportunity to rejoice the hearts of little children and thus found his own joy. One of his most gracious charities was what he did for convalescent children. A roomy farmhouse was put in order for their reception. He even moved it to a spot commanding a better view. It was furnished with exquisite taste, and pretty pictures suitable for children were hung on the walls. A good man and woman kept it in immaculate order and hither every summer came sick babies with tired mothers and little boys and girls wan from hospital operations. With the unfailing supply of delicious milk, fresh fruit and vegetables, the roses soon bloomed on their cheeks and a rested look came to the eyes of the mothers. On pleasant afternoons the big White mountain coach took them for drives over the hills and through the valley and when they saw Buffalo again they were different beings. It was beautiful to see Mr. Letchworth with this little group of happy children about him.

Other times when it was a benediction to watch him were when the country folk came by the score for picnics, hitching their horses and making a day of it. He walked about among them like a beloved father, enjoying their joy and making all free to share the beauties of nature in the sunlit valley.

Long ago, on an autumn day, there was a tight-rope exhibition across the gorge near Glen Iris. He disapproved of the terrible hazard and refused permission to have it on his estate, but the hundreds who came to watch the feat wandered at will through his gardens and park. When the last train had carried them all away we walked at sunset through the lovely grounds. Across one of the paths lay a beautiful dahlia, uprooted and thrown carelessly away. Said one of his family who did not quite approve of his democratic ways,

"Thee sees now what comes of letting people tramp through thy grounds."

"I would not see it, sister, if I were thee," he quietly replied, and picked up the poor dead thing—one of his favorite plants—and hid it in the woods.

Glen Iris is so beautiful that it has been painted by many an artist and its praises sung by many a poet. A little sheaf of these poems was gathered and printed years ago. In purchasing the place and beautifying it, without ever doing the least thing to detract from its natural charms, he had but one thought, that it should be forever the people's playground and the student's paradise. The rare geologic formation, the abundant flora, the wealth of bird life would attract the latter, while the incomparable

beauty of river and forest appeals to all. More than half a million dollars he expended on this park, denying himself many things he would have liked that he might leave it in good condition. He did not wait till his will should be opened to let the world know what was coming to it. For many years he had enjoyed the thought of the pleasure he was going to bestow and he wisely made this noble gift to the state of New York before his death and had the satisfaction of knowing that it would be accepted, and cared for by the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society. May that society be able to guard the precious legacy from despoilers of all kinds, including those who for the sake of gain would make of this lovely valley a basin for impounding water to run the wheels of industry. Letchworth Park, with its broad farms, sunny meadows, primeval forests, majestic falls and swift flowing river, should be kept forever unharmed, a worthy memorial of this friend of humanity and lover of the outdoor world.

THE STRIKE OF THE MESSENGER BOYS

H. F. J. PORTER
Industrial Engineer

At the parish house of the Church of the Ascension, Fifth avenue and Tenth street, the rector, the Rev. Percy S. Grant, has for several years held on Sunday evenings, immediately after the service in the church adjoining, what he has called an "after meeting" which is addressed by someone prominent or expert in his field, who presents a subject in a brief way and it is then discussed by the audience.

On Sunday evening last the subject presented was the messenger boys' strike, which had been "on" for eleven days to the great inconvenience of the public and which seemed to be reaching no conclusion.

Two messenger boys, Henry Katz and Jacob Yungswick, fourteen and fifteen years of age respectievly, told in their boyish way what they had struck for. They stated that they were hired to work ten to twelve hours a day seven days a week, but that their hours of service usually ran from fifteen to sixteen, and for this at one and one-half cents a message their weekly wage ran from $3.50 to $5.10. But out of this they had to pay fifty cents a week for the use of their uniforms continuously as long as they were in service, and when they gave up their position had to turn the uniform in to the company before getting their final wage. Besides this deduction, there were fines varying from twenty-five cents to one dollar for being late, the loss of a button from the uniform and infractions of petty rules.

They said they were striking for higher wages, shorter hours and fairer treatment. Their statements were confirmed by George Gelder and William Fruchter of the Central Federated Union, who had organized the boys into the Messengers National Union. They also said that they had solicited a hearing at this "forum" because, with the exception of the *Call*, the socialist newspaper, the press of the city had either refrained altogether from stating the facts involved in the strike or had misstated them.

Mr. Gelder said that the strikebreakers employed by the Western Union and Postal Telegraph companies were obtained from the Bowery Mission and the Y. M. C. A. and excoriated these two "pseudo-Christian organizations" for assisting the corporations to break the state law against the working of boys under sixteen over nine hours per day and over fifty-four hours per week and after seven P. M., and against the exploitation of child labor. These strikebreakers were paid four dollars a day.

One of the worst features of the situation as it existed, Mr. Gelder pointed out, was the environment in which these children were compelled to live and the character of work they had to perform. He said they were not only raised in the atmosphere of Wall street, where they imbibed the gambling spirit, but at night were used as guides in the "Tenderloin" district and at their age, which was more nearly twelve than fourteen, they knew more about the vice of the city than men four or five times as old.

In the discussion which followed the speeches, it was brought out that this strike has had the usual accompaniment of beating up strikebreakers by the strikers and injury to the boy strikers by the police. A number of speakers dwelt upon the lack of interest shown by the press. On the day following the meeting, only a few papers had articles on it, and these were mostly of a desultory character, and emphasized the childish qualities of the boys' speeches without catching their real significance and without stating the facts about the strike which were brought out at the meeting. It also developed that the organizers of the boys had written to both telegraph companies asking for interviews and had received no replies; that they had then telephoned to them and had been informed that the companies would treat only with the boys individually.

There is no doubt plenty of the grotesque and the humorous in the stammering, ungrammatical and broken English of men so anxious and eager in their serious desire to be heard that they are unconscious of everything but their grievance and their remedy. If the newspapers wish to transform themselves into comic dailies, at the expense of the least understood and most pitiable of our citizens, they exhibit a blindness and a brutality for which there will be some sort of punishment, the least of which will be public condemnation.

The strikes that we are hearing about at the present time are perfectly commonplace phenomena, and the corporations whose names are associated with them should be intelligent enough to perceive that they mean nothing more than that the time has come for them to organize their business and their employes into shifts that do not require so many hours a day, for each individual, and to pay wages with some reference to their own profits.

The alternative may be government supervision or government ownership, for such ideas have been fostered in the public mind by recent events. The parcels post is being hastened by the attitude of the express companies. A messenger service under the Postoffice Department has flashed into the public mind because of the messenger boys' strike.

A member of the audience which listened to the discussion of the messengers, said that the meeting made him think of a roundhouse, out of whose many chimneys steam was emitted. Each speaker found himself free to say what he pleased without let or hindrance, which to many of them must have been a surprise and to all a personal relief; while to the listeners the occasion could not help being the source of a wider sympathy, if not a more accurate mental analysis of conditions.

The same gentleman pointed to the advantage that London had in the free expression of opinion it permitted to orators of all sorts of explosive views, who ordinarily are heard in the neighborhood of Hyde Park. The policy of silence and suppression toward uncongenial views, which is that of most of the newspapers and of the Police Department, is not only obnoxious to democracy and an absolute denial of the basis of popular government, which is free discussion, but bottles up and increases a wrath which in a final united explosion might prove destructive.

RAPID TRANSIT AS A SOCIAL WORKER

JOHN MARTIN

Problems of rapid transit and of franchises in cities—problems under active discussion today in New York, Cleveland, Chicago, Detroit, and likely to become acute at any moment in a score of growing places—are usually determined with little regard to the main social purposes which rapid transit should fulfill. The welfare of the mass of the citizens, the rentpayers, is often lost sight of, even when the interests of the taxpayers are properly protected.

First among the aims of officials in determining city policy with respect to street railways, elevated lines and subways should be the distribution of the city's population over an ever-widening area, in order that cheap land, on which workmen's residences may be built, shall

be brought into the market as fast as the city's population increases. If the city be badly provided with good, fast, cheap transit service extending beyond the built-up districts, then population cannot spread, the pressure upon the old housing accommodations increases and rents inevitably rise. Rising rents lead to the construction of tenements and to overcrowding in rooms, with all the ill results on family life and morals which have so often been described. Essential to the prevention or cure of this worst form of congestion, the suffocation of family life in narrow, stifling quarters, is the continuous opening to residence of new tracts within swift and easy reach of factory and office. In medieval times the boundaries of a city were its walls and defences. Nowadays the boundary, equally impassable though less palpable, is the outer limit of convenient transit service at low price. For the rich the automobile and the commutation rates on steam roads widen the possible sphere of residence, until only the time consumed in passage sets the effectual limit to the daily flight to and fro. But the wage-earner, who forms the mass of the city population, cannot possibly afford more than the humble nickel for his ride and for him the range of the trolley car limits the location of a home.

New lines, arranged simply to shuttle the population from one congested district to another, are of secondary importance from the social point of view, though of prime importance to the investor and the franchise seeker. Lines running through districts already occupied will pay from the start, because the traffic awaits the cars; but lines running beyond the existing houses, though their farther stretches may not at first pay money dividends, will immediately, by luring part of the population outwards, return to the citizens dividends of improved health, better living conditions and lower rents.

How slightly these prime considerations are usually weighed is illustrated by the situation in New York today. For several years the Public Service Commission has had new subway and elevated routes under consideration and the strap-hangers have been pleading, threatening, scheming for relief. Many new routes have been approved, among them the tri-borough route with bifurcating limbs stretching far into the unsettled parts of the Bronx on the north and Brooklyn on the south. Upon this route some work is already under way and the Public Service Commission is understood to advocate its completion. But when the plans and specifications for it were issued and bids for its construction invited, behold, they embraced only the parts within the congested areas; they omitted every yard of the sections through undeveloped territories. Fears were expressed that the line, as planned, would not pay, and great was the rejoicing in some quarters when Mr. McAdoo made a responsible offer to operate the lines if certain modifications were made. These modifications, however, make the route still less attractive from the social point of view, because they require the omission of the Brooklyn Fourth avenue section, which will serve a district only partially settled.

Even if the parts of the line be built on which the Public Service Commission has secured bids, so little new land will be brought into use that the effect on housing conditions will be well-nigh negligible; while, should Mr. McAdoo's modifications be made, the effect of the line on rents and housing would be practically nil. Yet the abbreviated plans win support, because people see and feel the discomforts and annoyances of cars jammed to suffocation, of passengers loaded in trains like cattle, and of brutal crushes at bridge terminals,—conditions truly intolerable and crying for relief; but they overlook the indirect consequences of a dearth of transit facilities—rising rents throughout the city, intensified crowding in rooms and worse congestion on blocks.

To secure the maximum social service from transit lines two factors must be considered:

(1). Fare. The flat rate for any distance, usual in America, is more desirable than the rate graduated according to distance, usual in Europe. If the pas-

senger can go a long distance for the same sum as a short distance he will range farther afield for his home. But even the uniform nickel fare is too high for winning the maximum social advantage. Cleveland has demonstrated that a three-cent fare can pay. Great Britain and Belgium offer workmen's cars and workmen's trains at greatly reduced rates (twenty-four miles for four cents and so forth) available in the early morning and late evening. American social workers might well seek reduced fares and improved service instead of payments into the city treasury as the return for franchise privileges.

(2). A low fare on a single route which serves only a narrow district and is soon overcrowded, is of slight social advantage compared with the establishment of numerous routes radiating on all sides of a city so as to bring all the available building land into ready use. Social workers, by insisting that cities arrange for street railway corporations to take the lean with the fat and to run frequent cars at low rates along a number of undeveloped routes together, will serve their clients, the wage-workers, by thus helping to keep down rents, better than they would by later paying part of the rent when it has risen beyond the family means or by starting classes to enforce domestic morality which the living conditions render almost unattainable.

A LABOR PAGEANT

GEORGE B. FORD

The New York Association of Neighborhood Workers has, through its arts and festivals committee, embarked upon a great new work which is bound to be epoch-making. It is trying to bring poetry and music and many of the higher things of life into direct vital touch with the everyday life of the factory and the shop. It would make the workers feel that this poetry, this music is there, right in their tasks, no matter how sordid they may be. It would open their eyes, so that they might see something in their toil other than a monotonous grinding fight for existence. It would make them realize as they never have realized before that the work of the modern shop or factory is something actually noble; something to glory in.

Everyone knows the stigma that often attaches to labor and no one knows it better than the laborer himself. Yet here is the chance to change this stigma into an honor, to give labor a dignity and a meaning such as it has never had before.

Art can accomplish this through the compelling power of symbolism. Art today is by these means expressing some of the greatest truths of life and expressing them in a way that is stirring the world to its depths. The movement is fascinating, wonderful, full of the greatest promise for the future.

It has come to the social workers to apply this to the great problem of uplifting labor. How? By inculcating in the children of the laborers—the workers of the near future—through the medium of music and of the dance, of drama and of pantomime, a deep sense of the great poetry inherent in every phase of workaday life. This can be done. The child is most susceptible to such impressions provided they can be presented to him in a way he will appreciate. And so to this end, the Association of Neighborhood Workers is organizing a "labor pageant," to be held late next spring in Central Park, wherein the beauty of labor, both historical and actual, will be symbolized in the dance and pantomime in a way that will give it a charm and a purpose such as it has never yet had before.

To be done at all, it must be done well. This means special music and much special training, all of the best—and this costs money. A minimum estimate is $1,500. The association has agreed to hold the pageant provided this money is all promised before January 3.

Some of our greatest American dramatists, musicians and painters are most heartily co-operating in this idea, and some of the leaders of trades unions see in it a great force for good. All believe that it marks the beginning of one of the greatest movements of modern times, where labor and art may join, each helping the other to the uplift of both.

COMMUNICATIONS

CLAUSE 79

[The following communication to the editor on Clause 79 of the Page law make a total of twenty published in THE SURVEY in the past six months. Justice Bischoff's decision that the clause is unconstitutional, reported on another page of this issue, has rendered it inoperative in the Night Court for Women and will be held to act as a stay to further communications on the subject in THE SURVEY. The present grist is comprehensive, both in the way in which the different writers have marshalled their points and in the positions taken, representative as they are of the different angles of approach to the problem. With the pressure of other subjects upon our space we can in future accept for publication only letters which do more than repeat arguments which here or in previous issues have been adequately advanced or which are more than expressions of opinion in regard to those arguments. Distinctly new matter will, of course, be considered and THE SURVEY will continue to interpret the sanitary and social aspects of the venereal diseases and the developments with regard to them.—ED.]

TO THE EDITOR:

It is, I think, important that women throughout the country who are following with strong interest the discussion of Clause 79 of the Page law should express through the medium of such an open court as THE SURVEY their feeling in the issue involved. I happen to know the judgment upon the matter of a number of southern women—nurses, writers, professional and home-keeping women. All view the one-sided provisions of this clause with deep indignation.

From THE SURVEY's report (issue for November 19), of the recent meeting of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis I quote as follows: "Not the least interesting part in the discussion was that taken by the women. Without a place on the program, although they formed three-quarters of the audience, with no chance to speak until a motion to adjourn was before the meeting, they nevertheless made an impression on all who were present . . . As discussion, it was emotional and incoherent, but it struck home to many as evidence of an absorbing moral fervor. Under it all lay a sex-consciousness of deep wrongs suffered by women, a storm of protest that has been gathering for centuries and is wreaking itself pell mell on what they regard as a 'hypocritical and pharisaical law.'"

I sometimes wonder if men realize what thinking women are beginning to think of them—not of all men, but of many men. I wonder if they know how odious is growing the word "chivalry," of what cold mockery dwells in the words "the church." I wonder if they know what encampments sometimes seem the legislatures, and how murderous appears the silence of the physician. I wonder if they know how stained shows the cradle in which lies the future race, and how fearfully the motto above the cradle looks like "Degeneracy." Since the law declares that the father is next of kin to the child, the nature and nurture of the future race ought of course to be left to man. If the future race is blind or paretic, was it not his?—and he has had his animal pleasure. But since there is a remote person called the mother, with no place on the program truly, but yet with a chance to speak just before the meeting is adjourned, there may perhaps be heard a comment now and then as to that legend over the cradle and as to what it might be if the man so willed it. It might be "The Super Race."

MARY JOHNSTON.

Richmond, Va.

TO THE EDITOR:

In my paper on the sanitary supervision of prostitution as provided for in the Page bill, to which reference was made in THE SURVEY for November 19, I considered the practical workings of this bill from the sanitary point of view. Some of those who advocated this measure were outspoken in their denunciation of *reglementation*. The inconsistency of this attitude is shown by the fact that a distinction is thus made without an essential difference. The substantial identity of sanitary supervision as employed in France and other countries and that provided for in the Page bill will appear from the following:

Both comprise arrest, arraignment, conviction, registration, medical examination, hospital treatment, and discharge from the hospital.

	Reglementation.	*Page Bill.*
Arrest	By the morals police agent for prostitution.	By the police officer for solicitation on the street.
Arraignment	Before the inspector of the *Bureau des Mocurs.*	Before a magistrate of the inferior court.
Conviction	By the testimony of the morals police agent.	By the testimony of the police officer.
Registration	By inscription on the records of the *Bureau des Mocurs.* (Optional.)	By finger print impressions. (Compulsory).
Medical Examination	By the physician of the *Bureau des Mocurs.*	By the physician of the Health Department.
Commitment to Hospital	Upon verdict of the physician that she has been found diseased.	Upon verdict of the physician that she has been found diseased.
Detention in Hospital	Until cured.	Until cured.
Discharge from Hospital	By certificate of cure from attending physician.	By certificate of cure from attending physician.

In France the law forbids the inscription of minors. If a girl under eighteen years of age is arrested, she is not sent to the hospital, even if diseased. Her parents or guardians are communicated with, and if they do not receive her she is sent to a home or reformatory at public expense. The Page bill is more severe and drastic in its provisions. The girl, if convicted of prostitution and found diseased, is classed as a criminal, without reference to minority.

The French system provides an additional sanitary guarantee by the weekly medical examination of all inscribed prostitutes, in order to detect and eliminate as promptly as possible sources of contagion. If this examination shows the woman to be diseased, she is sent to the hospital; if she is free from disease, this fact is recorded on her card of inscription. This card bearing the certificate of the physician that the bearer has been examined on such a date and found free from disease, constitutes the so-called "license." This certificate permits her to frequent certain streets without police molestation, as a compensation for her submission to the weekly medical examination. Hence, all prostitutes are divided into two classes, the *soumises* and the *insoumises*, the latter, of course, including all clandestine prostitutes.

It will be seen that the sanitary supervision of prostitutes constitutes the essence of *reglementation*.

Perhaps the most intelligent and impartial study of *reglementation* ever made in this country was that made by the Committee of Fifteen whose report was embodied in The Social Evil, now out of print, but on file in many libraries. This states that "the chief distinguishing feature of modern regulation is its endeavor to stamp out the diseases that everywhere attend vice . . . so prominent has the sanitary aspect of the problem of vice become that the term regulation is used generally to denote sanitary regulation alone" (p. 24).

PRINCE A. MORROW, M. D.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

Maude E. Miner has explained in your columns some defects in the working of Clause 79 of the Page law. Will you allow me to repeat some reasons why many people think the whole clause objectionable, however excellent the intentions of its framers may have been?

1. It tends to increase vice. Its advocates question this, and advise us to wait and see. But it must work that way automatically, just as the consumption of tinned meats went up when the government undertook to inspect them and to condemn those that were dangerous.

2. It is inefficient. The effort to protect the health of dissolute men by imposing compulsory medical examination and treatment upon dissolute women has been thoroughly tried out in a score of European countries, and has proved a failure everywhere. It has failed although it has been carried out with a completeness and a degree of high-handed power given to the police which no American community would stand. Paris is the head center of the system. There, it has been rigorously applied for more than a century. Not only the handful of women arrested for disorderly conduct, as in New York, but all the fallen women of the city, so far as they are known to the police, are subjected to medical examination at short intervals. Yet Paris is scourged to a notorious degree with the class of maladies against which this legislation is designed to guard, and the Municipal Council has again and again recommended its total abolition.

It fails for many reasons. One is that the police are never able to bring under examination more than a small fraction of the women engaged in this miserable business. What impression would it make upon an epidemic of yellow fever if one in a hundred of the women afflicted with it were put in quarantine, while the other ninety-nine women and all the men went unquarantined? It may be said that sequestering even a few of the women must do a little good. But it might easily do more harm than good, if it gave the public the idea that an effective quarantine was maintained, and hence people who would otherwise keep away ventured freely into the yellow fever district.

The late Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell worked with Mrs. Josephine E. Butler through the seventeen years' agitation which led to the repeal of this legislation in England. The late Dr. Emily Blackwell was for many years a member of the little Vigilance Committee in New York, made up largely of physicians, which warded off repeated attempts to introduce the system after the Civil War. All my life I have been accustomed to hear the medical futility of such legislation discussed, and to rejoice as one European country after another abandoned it. Forty years ago the majority of doctors in England and Europe believed in it. Of late years three great international congresses of physicians have been held to discuss the best means for preventing the spread of this class of ailments. At each of them it proved impossible to pass a resolution recommending the compulsory medical examination of women as a means to this end. The preponderance of opinion was that this had proved a gigantic sanitary failure. Even in those countries where the system still prevails, there is a strong and growing movement against it.

3. It is unjust, since it makes a wide discrimination between men and women guilty of the same offense. A writer in THE SURVEY has said that the law already makes such a discrimination all along the line. That is true in England. There a husband can divorce his wife for infidelity, but a wife cannot divorce her husband for the same cause.

A woman who annoys a man by solicitation on the street can be arrested and sent to jail, but a man who annoys respectable women by solicitation on the street cannot be punished. American women have boasted that here the law has been impartial. Men and women guilty of disorderly conduct were legally liable to the same penalty, although it has been largely the custom of the police to arrest the women and let the men go. When Colonel Roosevelt was at the head of the New York police, he ordered them to apply the law impartially, and it made quite a stir. He has repeatedly expressed his disapproval of regulation, on the ground that "it is mean and detestable to strike at the woman and to let the man go free." Many women feel it to be a very serious wrong to embody a double standard of morals in the law.

Some upholders of Clause 79 insist that it is not "regulation," because the government does not furnish the women with health certificates. But the men who crowd the Night Court all see if a girl is given a clean bill of health by dismissal, and some of them often follow her out of the court. Mrs. Josephine Butler and her experienced co-workers have always regarded the compulsory medical examination of this class of women for the benefit of their customers as the crux of the whole regulation system, the fundamental iniquity involved in it. This exists in the Page bill. It provides for shutting up the girl not until she is reformed, not until she has been punished enough, but simply until she is safe for her customers.

A correspondent of THE SURVEY recommends that, instead of trying to get the clause repealed, we should try to get its compulsory medical features applied to men as well as to women. There is not the remotest chance of inducing the Legislature to do this. Many years ago a measure much like the Page bill was introduced in the California Legislature. A woman secured the introduction of a parody upon it—a bill just like it, except that its provisions were applied to men instead of to women. The second bill killed the first, and buried it under inextinguishable ridicule.

Clause 79 is radically and fundamentally objectionable, and all friends of righteousness ought to wage war against it. The whole problem of the social evil in a city like New York is terrible and perplexing. But, while it is very hard to see what should be done, there are some things which it is perfectly clear should not be done, and this is one of them. My own opinion is that the problem can be solved only by a systematic campaign of education, something like that which is being made against tuberculosis, and that the underlying causes must be attacked through improved economic conditions, a much larger provision of wholesome amusements for young people, abundant opportunities of free medical treatment for those suffering from the hygienic consequences of wrong-doing, and a sharp application of law to the traders in vice, those who exploit the unfortunate girls for their own profit. At present, in most states, the law provides a heavier penalty for stealing a horse than for stealing a girl.

ALICE STONE BLACKWELL.

Dorchester, Mass.

TO THE EDITOR:

Recollecting the discussion at the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis November 10, it may be of interest to refer to a similar discussion at the meeting of the German society of the same name held in 1903. Speaking to the question of the sanitary usefulness of placing diseased prostitutes in hospital, one of the members said: "A mathematical proposition that is a favorite with regulationists, and that is, when superficially examined, plausible enough to seem as an argument in favor of regulation, is this: One prostitute receives, on an average, four men a day. Now, if a diseased prostitute is interned for twenty days there have been eighty men preserved from infection. But this argument would only hold good if the eighty men were perfectly continent during the time when the prostitute in question was incarcerated. This, however, is by no means the case. If prostitute A is interned, the men seek prostitute B, and if she is interned then C, and so on. This, then, is the reason why the most ideal regulation is useless and why the spread of venereal disease cannot be limited by removing a number of prostitutes from use. If one-third of all are interned, the other two-thirds will be more in demand. If another third are removed as diseased, the remaining third are not enough and new recruits are sought. That was the case in the Middle Ages when pious rulers like St. Louis drove all prostitutes out of their dominions. In a little while the number had reached its former height, and so it will remain as long as the lust of man is allowed to make demands" (page 366, Zeitschr. f. Bekämpf. d. Geschlechtskr. 1903).

As showing how much or how little there is in the claim that the removal of diseased prostitutes, by clearing the streets, reduces the demand the following figures were presented in the same discussion: "In 1899 the Prussian hospitals treated in all 13,971 cases of women with venereal disease. Of these, only 5,489 were prostitutes. The rest were servants (2,504), married women (1,047), children under fifteen years (358), and working girls in shops, factories and stores, etc., who made up the total."

At this same congress Neisser touched on some of the same points that were discussed here in New York, the following quotations from his remarks being pertinent: "To estimate correctly the significance of prostitution as the source of venereal disease it is always to be borne in mind that the diseases of prostitutes are conveyed to them by infected men, and, very frequently, this has not first occurred after the girl became a professional prostitute, but before she had definitely entered upon that life (page 166). Careful ob-

servation showed that, at the end of a five-year period of record and observation, that is to say, in spite of regular surveillance, 66 per cent of prostitutes were syphilitic (page 174). Truly, it is doubtful whether such hygienic benefits as we may have attained by regulation outweigh all the reproaches which, with more or less justice are met with from the moral, social, political, legal, and other standpoints (page 196). Only such methods should be adopted as are free from any shadow of civic degradation (page 217). My experience in Breslau shows that the simple fact of the city hospital having a division for prostitutes drives many women patients away from it" (page 229).

LAVINIA L. DOCK, R. N.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

The first three items in Dr. Morrow's parallel columns may be put aside in the present discussion for as to them the Page bill introduced no changes. His fourth item seems to me misleading in that registration under a licensing system applies to *all* prostitutes, and under the Page bill the finger print system applies only to those who have been arrested and convicted in court. His fifth item is open to the same criticism in that medical examination under a licensing system applies to all prostitutes, and under the Page bill only to those who have been arrested and convicted. His sixth, seventh and eighth points are open to precisely the same criticism.

There seems to me then to be little left of Dr. Morrow's parallel columns. May I suggest a substitute?

	Licensing System	*Page Bill*
Prostitution	Recognized as lawful	Contrary to law
The offence	Being diseased	Prostitution
Medical examination	All prostitutes	Only those arrested and convicted
Disposition of those found healthy	Released	Committed to workhouse; fined (in a few cases), or placed on probation (in a few cases).
The average man	Knows that all prostitutes are supposed to have been medically examined	May have heard that of the small proportion arrested and convicted, those diseased have been committed to hospitals
The attitude of the community	Recognizes prostitution as lawful and tries to prevent disease.	Brands prostitution as unlawful but tries to diminish infection.

Another of your correspondents, writing from Dorchester, Mass., says: "But the men who crowd the Night Court all see if a girl is given a clean bill of health by dismissal, and some of them often follow them out of the court."

Truly a most serious objection if well founded. But where did the writer get her information? The women who, after conviction and after medical examination, are found to be free from disease, do not walk out of the court. They stand convicted and subject precisely to the same penalties as was the case before Clause 79 was enacted. Nearly all of them are committed to the workhouse. A small number are placed on probation, and a small number are fined. The actual figures as to the disposition of the total number of women convicted during the period in which Clause 79 was in operation, are as follows:

Sent to the workhouse on an indeterminate sentence	120
Sent to the workhouse for a definite period	51
Sent to other institutions	2
Sent to a hospital or to the workhouse hospital	80*
Fined	17
Placed on probation	14
Total	284

*Most of these went to the workhouse; but fifteen cases went to the City Hospital on Blackwell's Island.

HOMER FOLKS.

LAW STUDENTS' IDEA OF CHARITY

TO THE EDITOR:

In the practical program of the social worker one of the most important items is the education of the public in matters philanthropic. The answer which the public gives to the question, What is a charity? is of obvious moment to those who are endeavoring to interest the public in the alleviation of social conditions.

An inquiry which I was recently enabled to make in the largest of our western state universities seems to me to throw at least a little light on the attitude which the average university law student entertains toward charities. The investigation embraced 213 senior law students—enough to render the results interesting, if not completely representative. The task was assigned to these students of drawing up a fictitious will. Among the various provisions to be incorporated therein was one providing for the bequest of a sum of money "in trust for a charity." No restriction was placed upon the sort of charity to be favored. Since the chief interest of each student was to draft a will valid in its legal form and phraseology, it is not improper to assume that by far the great majority of them bequeathed their fictitious clients' money to the first charity which came into their minds. Fantastic endowments originated for the occasion might appear, but they would be comparatively few in number and easily detected.

Proceeding on these assumptions I examined the 213 wills drawn up, with a view to ascertaining what sort of thing presented itself

to the minds of these students of the law when the word charity was spoken to them. The results may be partly psychological in interest, but they cannot help but reveal to some extent the state of thought which these young men had reached concerning worthy charities. If a majority of them had turned over money to the use of a committee on standards of living and labor, quite a different state of mind would have been revealed than if the same majority had joined in fostering county almshouses.

My tabulation shows that 176 of these 213 students, or 82 per cent, bestowed their clients' money upon institutions of one sort or another, leaving 37 who favored charities not institutional. The 176 institutions favored grouped themselves as follows:

Hospitals	58[1]
Schools and colleges	44
Orphanages	24
Churches and Y. M. C. A.'s	18
Public Libraries	6
Florence Crittenton Homes	1
Scattering (including homes for feeble-minded, blind, aged, old ladies, poor, homes for boys, etc.)	25
Total	176

Perhaps the institution most conspicuous because of its absence from this list is the social settlement, which found no benefactor among the students.

The thirty-seven non-institutional charities grouped themselves as follows:

Public playgrounds	5
Associated charities	4
Anti-tuberculosis agencies	4
Masonic lodge	4
County poor outside institutions	3
Pasteur treatment of hydrophobia	2
Public parks	2
International peace	1
Widows of Cherry Mine victims	1
Child placing out agencies	1
Cause of prohibition	1
Others (including fantastical)	9
	37

If some of these seem to partake little of the nature of a charity, in the accepted usage of that word, the fact does not reveal any more enlightened views on the part of these students as to what it today regarded as the most needed philanthropic work. Only one of the 213 directed his client's money to the aid of widows, a class of persons who gave rise to one of the chief problems before the National Conference of Charities and Correction at St. Louis last May.

W. D. Lane.

Union Settlement, New York.

[1]Two of these were tuberculosis hospitals.

FATHER RYAN'S ARTICLE

To the Editor:

I meant to have written you commending the very remarkable article by the Rev. John A. Ryan in The Survey of September 3. I am not a believer in the minimum wage, but that is a statement in favor of it which is so fair-minded and shows such a candid appreciation of the opposing arguments as to make converts if anything can, and incidentally to do the more important service of raising the whole plane of the discussion.

Joseph Lee.

Boston.

A SETTLEMENT FOLLOW-UP

To the Editor:

The problem of a shifting population is so comprehensive in scope that a thorough discussion would touch nearly every aspect of the settlement problem. The writer wishes to call attention to a few salient points.

From the settlement point of view, the problem of a shifting population can be more clearly formulated as that of a graduating population. In every city the national groups in settlement neighborhoods shift. Irish are superseded by Jews, Jews by Italians or Negroes, Italians by Slavs, and so on. The movement of a group denotes, in most cases, that it has moved ahead one step, however slight, of the economic and social status of the neighborhood. It is, in the main, not a neighborhood but a city settlement problem. We realize this when we must face the problem of settlement graduates. It seems discouraging at times, when after years of contact with promising young men and women, they leave the neighborhood. It is a sieve-like process. A few keep in touch with the old neighborhood house, but in the main there is a waste of promising social energy. The old neighborhood loses the leaven. This would not be at all regrettable did a new neighborhood gain it. The situation is serious when we realize that the graduating population frequently emerges from a neighborhood with the advantages of settlements and other social agencies into a neglected neighborhood lacking these influences for moral and social progress. It frequently happens that the young men and women in these neighborhoods show the ugly traits of quasi parvenus. They take the conventional pleasures of the new neighborhood and lose the spur to ambition of the one from which they emerged. "I wish there were a settlement house here," said a father to the head worker of a Boston settlement. "My children are so frivolous now." He was a new inhabitant of a new and neglected neighborhood.

How can we meet this problem? Only by inter-neighborhood co-operation. Neighborhood problems are organically inter-related. They challenge us to take a larger city point of view. They must be met by an inter-

neighborhood organization. A real estate operator in New York predicted that a new tenement district would arise in the vicinity of a new loft district. He is purchasing boarding house property and preparing to erect the tenements for the factory workers. He foresaw the drift of population and is preparing to reap a profit. He exercised foresight in the interest of profit. We, as social workers, must prepare for the shifts in neighborhoods by exercising social foresight in the interest of the well being of the new neighborhood. It is incumbent upon us to survey the field and be on the alert to send out outposts. The city should be dotted with a network of centers of neighborliness. For this purpose, inter-neighborhood organizations must cooperate through some form of record system by which a child who leaves a neighborhood house is not lost. If a rigid transfer system like that in the public schools is impossible, there should be some method of referring children who leave a settlement to agencies with similar purposes in the new neighborhood. A more practicable arrangement would be to establish branch settlements in various sections of the city to which members may be transferred. This is only possible if a settlement is willing to discentralize its activities.

Above all there must be a constant survey of the drift of population and a plan devised for placing outposts or new settlements in the new neighborhoods. I use the word outpost advisedly, for in most cases it is essential that neighborhood activity begin on a small scale. Through an efficient secretary at large, a neighborhood workers' association can institute such a campaign of propaganda and plant these outposts themselves, dotting the city with centers of neighborliness.

HENRY MOSKOWITZ.

Down Town Ethical Society, New York.

HELP THE OLD PEOPLE TO HAVE A HAPPY CHRISTMAS

There is to be an attractive sale of articles, suitable for Christmas gifts, made by the aged and infirm inmates in the City Almshouses, in Room 610 of the United Charities Building, on December 14th, from 10 until 6. Some of the work done by this unfortunate class of people, many of whom are hopelessly crippled or blind, is most artistic. Among the articles which will be for sale at reasonable prices are scrap baskets, work baskets, bath room rugs, rag rugs, hammered brass work hobby horses, toy animals, small carved articles, veranda tables, foot stools, individual hat stands, toboggan caps maids' and butlers' aprons, etc.

This sale is arranged yearly by the New York City Visiting Committee of the State Charities Aid Association. No commission is charged on the sale of these articles and the money will be sent directly to the old people in time for Christmas.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

PHILADELPHIA'S GLAD TIDINGS

Public sentiment in Philadelphia has just scored a triumph in early shopping, and Christmas this year will have real meaning for about 35,000 more employes than ever before, through an agreement among the larger merchants to close at 6 o'clock through the holiday shopping season. The story of this victory in Philadelphia is so distinctly a tribute to the power of public opinion, and its achievement has already brought so many questions from merchants and civic bodies of other communities as to how it came about, that it is given briefly here.

In December, 1905, six years ago, every large store in Philadelphia, with one exception, kept its doors open evenings for two weeks or more preceding Christmas. Representatives of the Consumers' League, making nightly inspection, reported that twenty-six establishments in one small district were violating the law which limited the hours of women at that season to ten in one day. The usual schedule for the saleswomen was from 8 A. M. to 10 P. M., in some stores on alternate days; in others, continuously.

In the next two years, systematic notification and visiting of the merchants, and widespread appeals to all organizations of women in and near Philadelphia, to several hundred ministers, and to the general public by means of the newspapers, had begun the change. The inspectors of the Factory Department were kept at their posts during the holiday shopping season instead of having a vacation, and the stores so arranged their schedules that all employes who remained until late at night came in proportionately late on that same day—thus not exceeding ten hours of work. Thus, in 1907, only five establishments were found to be violating the law in place of the twenty-six reported two years before.

During this time a slow but steady reduction of open nights took place in smaller as well as larger stores, and by 1908 ten nights represented the maximum. Last year, however, the first decisive step was taken to close the stores. The Consumers' League, desiring to test to the utmost the power of direct public pressure, suggested to about 5,000 women that they write personal letters to the stores expressing their opinion of night shopping. The character of the response appears in the fact that certain firms found it necessary to issue printed replies to the letters, while others detailed two or three clerks for a number of days to reply to them. Simultaneously the newspapers gladly responded to a request for editorial comment and support of early shopping hours.

The merchants' answer to the public was the announcement that open nights were cut from ten to five, one store establishing 6.30 as a closing hour for the first time.

The approach of the present season brought a new situation. A recent law prohibiting the employment of girls under eighteen and boys under sixteen after 9 P. M. is, for the first time, subject to the test of the holiday trade. A notice calling attention to this provision and asking for information as to plans for the holiday season was sent to all large merchants by the Consumers' League in November.

The answer came late the evening of December 1 over the telephone. The head of one of the largest retail firms called up the Consumers' League to say that he had good news. "I thought that you should certainly be the first to hear it," he said. "While I am speaking for ourselves only, I can add that none of the department stores will remain open after six during the entire season. I congratulate you and the women you represent on what you have enabled us to do."

Anticipating criticism and protest from large numbers of habitual night shoppers, and congestion on coming Saturdays, as a result of this change, the Consumers' League has taken a further step. It is issuing a request to other employers

in Philadelphia to allow groups of their workers to take a mid-week half-holiday, if they desire it, in order to do their shopping. The newspapers—which have been the greatest factor in accomplishing all that has been done—are taking up this matter and issuing the request as an open letter from the league. The plea is that factories and business offices cooperate with merchants in making this most popular gift to the working people of Philadelphia. It is in line with action taken by some offices in New York and elsewhere for a number of years and notably by the Visiting Nurse Association of Chicago for the past six years. Half of the nurses have a half-holiday on Wednesday and half on Saturday the year round, but during the second week of December an additional half day is added to give an entire day for shopping. Of the full staff of sixty-six, half are thus off duty on Wednesday and half on Thursday. One thing only is compulsory—that they take the full day for their own shopping.

CHICAGO STRIKE STILL UNSETTLED

With the exception of the firm of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, the clothing manufacturers of Chicago have reiterated that they "have nothing to arbitrate" and will accept only "unconditional surrender" from their striking workers. This is in the face of an urgent statement by Mayor Busse that the whole community desires the end of the struggle and that "neither side should object to submit its case to a fair arbitration court"; and an equally vigorous declaration by Alderman Merriam that "those who decline to accept it [arbitration] assume a grave responsibility to the community," and that "if industrial war continues the public should know exactly where this responsibility lies." Public sentiment in Chicago almost universally supports this point of view.

Every newspaper in Chicago has condemned the attitude of the employers and, as one editor puts it, "hunger and cold as potent peace makers alienate the sympathy of the great majority of reasonable and humane citizens."

On all sides the basis of arbitration upon which Hart, Schaffner and Marx have agreed, and upon which their 10,000 employes are voting, is recognized as the fairest and most reasonable way out of the difficulty. Among the employes of this firm, the cutters' union on December 5 voted almost unanimously to accept the plan. Further meetings were postponed, however, so that the terms of the agreement, accompanied by an explanation by the strike leaders, might be printed in various languages and a large number of small meetings could be arranged. In these small meetings certain forces which have been at work to dissuade the strikers from accepting the plan will not be able to use the tactics which they might use in larger gatherings. These promptings come from certain employers, who are convinced that if the strikers refuse the agreement they will soon be reduced to accept any terms which may be offered them, thus eliminating all possibility of collective bargaining; and from certain labor leaders, who fear that they will lose power if the settlement comes about through the strike leaders who participated in the mayor's conference, and to whom most of the credit must be given for the reasonable attitude which has characterized the conduct of the strikers.

The strike leaders have sent out appeals calling upon the community to supply means for the strikers to win against hunger and cold, if a settlement is delayed. Mrs. Raymond Robbins, president of the Women's Trade Union League, is treasurer of the fund. She states that every dollar received will be accounted for publicly and will buy a dollar's worth of provisions at wholesale rates. "We need the help of all the people," she declares, "to save women and girls from a hunger bargain—a bargain which means the surrender of civilization."

The commissary stations are helping the strikers who are in the most straitened circumstances. Some idea of the amount of food handled may be gained from the fact that over 9,000 loaves of bread alone are used each day. In fact, one of the important results of the Chi-

cago strike may be said to be the appreciation by labor leaders that strike relief thus administered, involving purchase and handling of food by wholesale, can be made to last longer and to play an important part in keeping the ranks of the strikers solid.

The largest demonstration of the strike took place last week, when a parade of about 20,000 marched through some of the streets of the west side and ended in a great mass meeting at the Chicago National League Baseball Club, which gave the use of the grounds and supplied sandwiches and coffee to the women and girls. With a large portion of the stands and bleachers filled and a big crowd standing in the field, a dozen speakers, some facing one way and some another, some speaking one language and some another, urged the strikers to stand firm until they should win.

THE HOUSE OF GOVERNORS FOR HUMAN CONSERVATION

Conservation of resources, both human and natural, and direct primaries, were the two chief subjects considered by the "House of the Governors" which drew an attendance of twenty-four governors of states to its sessions at Louisville and Frankfort, Ky. Excepting Governors Noel of Mississippi and Deneen of Illinois, the majority believed that the saving of natural resources should be left to the states. The discussion of natural resources was so prolonged that it all but crowded out that of human resources; but perhaps the most important action of the whole conference, which fell under the latter subject, was the adoption of a resolution introduced by Governor Hadley of Missouri, providing that each governor should make a report on the liability and compensation laws of his state. All agreed that the present laws are unsatisfactory. Governor Hadley in his address showed the great number of lives sacrificed on railroads and in mines and the thousands who are injured. Liability insurance costs employers $95,000,000 for the protection secured. The insurance companies pay out for claims only $40,000,000, of which lawyers receive thirty per cent. In but fifteen per cent of those cases where people are injured in industry, does a right to recovery exist. Governor Hadley criticized the doctrine of negligence that prevails in most states, and commended the theory of comparative negligence and a system of optional insurance to which both employer and employe contribute. He hoped the investigations now being made in a number of states would lead to the drafting of a bill applicable in a general way to all states.

The direct primary system was criticized because it allows non-members to vote for the selection of candidates and for the policies of a party, and because it is expensive and tends to destroy party authority. It was admitted that the method had come to stay, and on the whole the plea of Governor Fort of New Jersey in behalf of the plan found approval.

The problem of penal reform, including the vexed question of prison labor, was favorably referred to a committee which will have charge of the program for the next conference.

GROWN ACTRESS AS THE BACHELOR'S BABY

Francis Wilson's successful presentation in Boston of his play, The Bachelor's Baby, with a girl of twenty-three in the part taken in New York by a young child has been watched by New England members of child labor committees with the keenest interest. Last spring Boston theater managers secured thousands of signatures to a petition protesting against the court decision that the Massachusetts child labor law applies to the stage. This bars children under fourteen. The question was discussed at legislative hearings and in a number of communications to THE SURVEY.[1]

The managers' petition stated that "Massachusetts laws prevent the public from seeing such plays as The Bachelor's Baby, Macbeth, The Squaw Man and others." All three of those mentioned have been successfully presented in Boston without child actors, and A Matter of Money with a girl of twenty in a

[1]See THE SURVEY for May 21, June 18, July 23, August 13 and December 3, 1910.

twelve-year-old part, Mary Jane's Pa with a girl of fourteen in an eight-year-old part, My Man with one of eighteen in a six-year-old part and similar substitutions of older persons in The Awakening of Helena Ritchie, On the Eve, The Traveling Salesman, Havana, School Days and A Fool There Was, and groups of child parts in Old Dutch, Joe Welch and Company and the Gus Edwards Company.

Many people in Boston point to these productions as proof of President Emeritus Eliot's contention, that "in general the theatrical profession is perfectly able to use children over fourteen years of age to fill all the parts that ought to be represented on the stage." Francis Wilson contended that this is not true and has kept open the question not only of fact, but of Dr. Eliot's motives, in a succession of newspaper articles and letters. His point was that while a more mature actor might give a pleasing and artistic representation of a child part, the audience would see the difference and lose the sense of illusion which is necessary to dramatic success.

The part of the little girl in The Bachelor' Baby was taken by Ethel Downie, a girl of twenty-three, who has appeared in children's parts in The Awakening of Helena Ritchie and in Old Dutch. The Boston *Post* said of her: "Miss Ethel Downie was the baby and a very cute child she was, giving a realistic portrayal of a five-year-old full of 'kid questions' and strange antics. . . . The value of the piece will not be marred in the least." A correspondent of THE SURVEY writes: "I attended the first performance last night and found it very amusing. The child was applauded when she appeared the first time and when she left the stage. She was very attractive and did not appear to be over eight years old. Mr. Wilson no doubt found technical difficulties in using a woman for the part, but he has repeatedly stated that the best and only adequate test of a part is its reception by the audience. So tested, he has made a success of it in Boston, and found a way to retain children's parts without subjecting children under fourteen to a regular stage life."

PHYSICIANS ORGANIZE FOR MEDICAL SOCIOLOGY

Recognizing the intimate relationship between disease and the social-economic system of today, a number of public-spirited physicians of New York, headed by the venerable Dr. Jacobi as honorary president, have lately organized the American Society of Medical Sociology, which it is hoped will help solve the difficulties long felt by conscientious physicians in dealing with those forms of disease in which the cure lies in improving conditions.

This society plans to include in its membership social workers as well as physicians and to make an unbiased study of all problems of a medico-sociological character, presenting the results frankly and fearlessly regardless of either prejudice or special interests. The questions at present under investigation are:

The need of a federal department of health.
Tuberculosis as an economic disease.
The relation of the increase of insanity to the strain of modern life.
The reported increase of cancer and its causes.
The most humane and effective methods of dealing with prostitution.
The best methods of preventing venereal infection.
Sex hygiene in all its phases.
Abortion in its medical and ethical aspects.
Alcohol (a) as a beverage, (b) as a medicine; physiologic, medicinal, social and economic effects.
Infant mortality; principal causes and prevention.
Occupational diseases.
Food adulterations and their influence on health.
The causes of quackery, Christian Science and other cults, and the influence of the irregular cults of medicine on public health.

Dr. William L. Holt, second vice-president of the society, is at present investigating the treatment of these and like problems in Europe. The results of the investigations will be disseminated by means of meetings, lectures, reports and pamphlets. The society hopes in time to follow up its educational work by legislative activities. The officers are: Dr. A. Jacobi, honorary president; Dr. William J. Robinson, president; Dr. James P. Warbasse and Dr. William L.

Holt, vice-presidents; Dr. A. C. Jacobson, secretary, 12 Mt. Morris Park West, New York.

JOINT MEETINGS OF LEARNED SOCIETIES

Six of those nine societies which met in New York city last December will meet together again this year at St. Louis, December 27-30. Of these the American Statistical Society, and the American Political Science Association have not yet announced their programs. The program of the American Economic Association should be of vital interest at the present time, covering as it does the discussion of the economic aspect of immigration, the problem of poverty, money and prices, railway rates and the taxation of unearned increment, by such experts as Professors J. Lawrence Laughlin, T. S. Adams, Emery R. Johnson, Alvin S. Johnson and T. N. Carver.

On December 28 a joint session of the American Sociological Society, the American Statistical Association and the American Association for Labor Legislation will be held, at which the three presidential addresses will be read, that of Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of the Sociological Society on the Relation of Social Theory to Public Policy, that of Frederick L. Hoffman of the Statistical Association on Fifty Years of Life Insurance Progress and that of Prof. Henry W. Farnam on Practical Methods in Labor Legislation. Practically all the sessions of the American Association for Labor Legislation will be devoted to industrial accidents and industrial diseases. and great emphasis will be placed upon factory inspection and enforcement of the labor law. Among the papers will be Industrial Diseases in America, Frederick L. Hoffman; and Lead Poisoning in Illinois, Alice Hamilton, medical investigator, Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases. Fred. C. Schwedtman, chairman of the committee on industrial indemnity insurance of the National Association of Manufacturers, will discuss Voluntary Indemnity for Injured Workmen, and D. L. Cease, Compulsory Compensation for Injured Workmen.

The program of the Home Economics Association will cover the discussion of dietetics led by Edna May of the University of Kansas; sessions on household management over which Adelaide Shelton of Teachers' College will preside, and on housing and sanitation led by Isabel Bevier of the University of Illinois. Among the subjects to be considered at other sessions will be extension work and the care of infants and small children.

LAWYERS ORGANIZE LEGAL AID SOCIETY

At the annual meeting the St. Louis Bar Association amended its constitution and by-laws so as to make possible the organization and maintenance of a Legal Aid Bureau. This is the first known instance of a bar association making such a provision. The bureau will be conducted by a committee of twenty-one members and will be organized after the plan of the Legal Aid Society of New York. An attorney will be employed to devote his entire time to the work, aided by as many assistants, paid and volunteer, as may be necessary.

Members of the St. Louis bar are enthusiastic and welcome this new means of service. There has been no legal aid society on the plan of other large cities, though the need for one has been fully as great, and attempts made to fill the need by small bureaus conducted by the Provident Association, United Jewish Charities, Self-Culture Hall Association and various institutional churches, have been wholly inadequate. They will be supplanted by the new organization which will have adequate means and facilities for serving all the people.

CHICAGO CHARITIES IN $200,000 CAMPAIGN

A popular and city-wide campaign to secure $200,000 for the United Charities of Chicago has recently been launched. A committee of many influential citizens, pulling together in effective "team work," with vigorous support by the newspapers, is rallying the whole community.

The campaign should prove most valuable educationally. The last few years have seen a wonderful broadening of the work of the organization which ought to be appreciated more fully by the people of Chicago. With administration unified and centralized, with increased efficiency and co-operation through all the district offices, and with far-reaching lines of preventive social work, the organization is grappling more vigorously than ever not only with the problems of relief, but with the conditions which make relief necessary. The infant welfare campaigns which have been carried on during recent summers have shown that back of the sick babies are uncared

Bradley in Chicago *Daily News.*

CERTAINLY!

for mothers, who ought to be relieved of the struggle to earn the family's livelihood and to whom a chance and training should be given to devote attention and better care to their children. Chicago's tuberculosis clinics increasingly demonstrate that a charity organization must not only help bury the dead, but provide funds to help save those for whom there is a chance, and focus effort on the elimination of conditions in individual families and throughout the city which help spread tuberculosis. In many other ways the United Charities has laid hold of the fundamental problems of poverty in Chicago, bringing to bear the most modern and intelligent methods. The people of the city, by the response which they are already making to the financial campaign, are showing that they appreciate this broad spirit and work. One significant gift, by Mrs. Emmons Blaine, provides money for several years to study, tabulate and present effectively facts which come to light in the work of the United Charities.

The fund reached $100,000 on December 2. The progress of the efforts to secure the whole amount are watched each day with great interest. On one of the prominent downtown street corners a large thermometer which registers up to $200,000 shows the progress of the "mercury" column toward the goal. Another thermometer is to be seen on the front of the United Charities building.

CONFERENCE ON CRIMINAL LAW

Many men actively engaged in the administration of criminal law were brought together by the annual meeting of the Wisconsin branch of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. Two justices of the supreme court and eight circuit judges were present, besides a large number of judges of inferior courts and prosecuting attorneys from many counties.

The conference heard and considered the reports of a number of committees of investigation which have been at work for the past year. In many cases affirmative action was taken in recommending legislation which the legislative committee was instructed to present to the Legislature for enactment. Among these was an amendment to the constitution to strike out the clause which forbids compelling a person to testify against himself in criminal cases. It was not the sense of the conference that one should be compelled in all criminal cases to testify against himself; but it was thought that the Legislature should bear the responsibility of safeguarding the privilege against self-incrimination where desirable, and of removing it in the newer,

but fast increasing, classes of corporate and fiduciary crimes, in which the evidence of guilt is almost always in the books and papers of the accused or in the breasts of the officers of accused corporations. Since it will require four years to amend the Wisconsin constitution, it was recommended that the present statutes be amended so as to permit the failure of the defendant in a criminal case to testify in his own behalf, to be considered by the jury in connection with the other evidence in the case.

Other recommendations were that the only expert opinion evidence on the question of insanity, where insanity is pleaded as a defense in a criminal action, be given by witnesses chosen from a commission appointed by the state; and that the age of girls coming under the jurisdiction of juvenile courts be raised from sixteen to eighteen and of boys from sixteen to seventeen.

The following matters were referred to the committees for consideration during the coming year: organization and unification of courts; trial of the issue of mental responsibility; sterilization of criminals and defectives; and classification and segregation of juvenile offenders.

1855—BEVERLEY E. WARNER—1910.

Dr. Warner, who founded Kingsley House, New Orleans, was for seventeen years the rector of Trinity Church.

BEVERLEY WARNER: FOREMOST CITIZEN

The Rev. Beverley E. Warner, who died November 27 in New Orleans, became a national figure in 1905 through the work he did during the yellow fever epidemic. The outbreak came just as he was planning a hard-earned vacation, which he instantly abandoned to enlist with citizens to assist the health authorities. When a central committee of volunteers was organized with branches in each ward, he was chosen chief and worked almost without rest in the great campaign of education to make the public realize and guard against mosquitoes. The theory of mosquito transmission was comparatively new then. The public had to be aroused and in large part persuaded against open disbelief in the efficacy of fumigating houses, screening cisterns, and oiling gutters. Mass meetings were held nightly in all parts of the city, many of which Dr. Warner addressed. There were daily conferences of the volunteer boards, and all the while a vast amount of routine office work which required his supervision. Clashes of authority were not infrequent, complaints of a thousand and one things, done or left undone, were poured into his ears. Many times discouraged subordinates brought their troubles to him.

Through it all Dr. Warner never faltered or complained. He arbitrated disputes, listened to complaints, and either corrected the error complained of or, finding the complaint groundless, pacified its bringer and sent him away an enthusiast in the volunteer cause. Never for a moment was the work to which the volunteers were pledged permitted to flag. Inspection followed inspection, and the danger places were eliminated one by one as they were reported. At the mass meetings and through the newspapers Dr. Warner sent his appeals to the people. Not only his fellow officers and subordinates were fired by something of

his own indomitable spirit, but the entire community was influenced by his enthusiasm, cheerfulness and perseverance.

Dr. Warner was rector of Trinity Church for seventeen years. During all that time he was an eager worker in many fields of social and educational effort. He organized Kingsley House, the first social settlement in New Orleans, and the Round Table Club, patterned after the Century Club of New York. He was a director of the Poll Tax Association, a member of the board of administration of the Tulane Educational Fund, and at the time of his death chairman of the committee which had in hand the erection of the new Newcomb College in which he was particularly interested.

His interest in Kingsley House was constant and inspiring. Eleanor McMain, the headworker, pointed out after his death the strength of his conviction that a settlement should be totally unsectarian. To this end he gathered about him a board of directors which included almost equal numbers of Protestants, Catholics and Jews. He joined in the neighborhood gatherings and was a prime mover for each new settlement activity as it was added—vacation school, recreation center, playground, children's garden and summer camp. It was characteristic that one of the first callers at the rectory after his death was a Jewish rabbi, who told a reporter that New Orleans had lost her foremost citizen and he had lost his best friend. His death came quietly while a service of prayer for his recovery was going on in the church next door. The windows of his room had been thrown open so that he might catch strains of the music.

Dr. Warner was born in Jersey City in 1855 and educated at Princeton and Berkeley Divinity School. He had honorary degrees from the University of the South and from Tulane. Following a brief rectorate at Bridgeport, Conn., he went to New Orleans in 1893 and was rector of Trinity until his death, except for a few weeks in a Philadelphia parish in 1905. He was well known through the South as a lecturer and was the author of Troubled Waters, a novel published in 1885; English History in Shakespeare's Plays, 1894; The Facts of the Faith, 1897; The Young Man in Modern Life, 1902, and Introductions to Shakespeare.

MIXING OIL WITH WATER

In this week's issue of THE SURVEY, we publish a review by Samuel Hopkins Adams of the present public health situation in Pittsburgh. Mr. Adams prepared this material for the fifth volume of the Pittsburgh Survey. It is a postscript to the review of the situation which he made in 1908, as handled in our magazine publication. Mr. Adams speaks from an expert knowledge of public health work in many of the leading cities of the country.

The creation of a municipal department (as against a health bureau), the putting through of plans for municipal milk stations, and medical inspection of schools, have been advances in the last two years which called for a supplementary statement in publishing the report in volume form. They are advances of a sort which would naturally predispose anyone to the new health administration. We have found them, however, accompanied by other developments of a sort, which any man who has known sickness in his own life or has seen a child die would condemn. The city health administration in Pittsburgh is watching other irons in the fire more closely than it is guarding the health of the people which is its trust. It is "attempting to combine practical politics and public hygiene, trying to mix oil with water."

The recent Pittsburgh Health Conference, which has aroused a progressive interest in health matters among the citizens of Pittsburgh, makes it not only opportune, but fairly an obligation on us, to bring out this report in magazine form at this juncture, in order to direct some of that interest to a quarter where death is the issue, and where public officials are trifling with it.

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY
Professor of social legislation, Columbia University

In the language of social workers, President Taft has presented his annual report. The annual message sent to Congress last week is more akin to an annual report than usual, because it deals chiefly with things attempted and achieved and less with the future than the past. It asks for little new legislation and puts forth no considerable program. Its dominant note is the need for greater economy and efficiency within the present limits of governmental activity, but fortunately not without a perception of larger and more positive ends in view than the mere saving of taxpayers' money and the lengthening of the purchasing power of a government-spent dollar. The president says:

> In handling government expenditure the aim is not profit—the aim is the maximum of public service at the minimum of cost. We wish to reduce the expenditures of the government, and we wish to save money to enable the government to go into some of the beneficial projects which we are debarred from taking up now because we ought not to increase our expenditures.

A later message is promised, in which this idea is to be elaborated and a constructive social program outlined. Social workers will await the second message with great anticipation. Nothing could be expected of Congress at this short session and with the impending changes in party power, by way of execution of a social program. The president does well to reserve for a special message at a later date the presentation of his positive program, which will be a state paper of enduring importance if it points the way for the government to go into some of the beneficial projects to which it has hitherto turned a deaf ear, partly on account of the expense involved, but perhaps more largely because of the opposition of selfish and privileged interests and a too narrow view of the duties and constitutional powers of the federal government.

The president is peculiarly fitted to take and defend advanced ground on the duties and powers of the government in dealing with public health, industrial relations, conservation, education, and all the other main divisions of a social program, in which the national government has not done its full part nor set the example it ought to furnish to every coordinate or subordinate division of governmental authority, each acting within its constitutional prerogatives. When his program of economy and efficiency produces results that remove the excuse —too often a hypocritical cloak for a lack of desire—that the nation cannot afford to do its duty in these matters of social welfare, we shall be ready for a message that will mark the beginning of a new era.

The present message is an excellent business document, longer than any of its predecessors, but replete with clear summaries of public business in which the people are interested and about which the message, together with the departmental reports of cabinet officers, furnishes ample basis for a satisfactory understanding. Arbitration in foreign political disputes and in domestic industrial disputes has been tested as never before in a single year and has proven itself successful. Postal savings banks have been authorized and planned for and will be in partial operation on January 1. Parcels post on rural deliveries and steps which promise in the near future penny postage for letters are advocated, but involve asking magazines to give up what the administration regards as special privileges.

Recommendations that renew those of former messages favor, in perhaps too perfunctory a manner to secure results, plans for a bureau of health, for the better distribution of immigration and stricter provisions and enforcement of laws holding steamship companies responsible for the maintenance of our immigration standards, and for the improvement of the city of Washington. On the latter topic more radical steps are proposed than heretofore, looking to the acquisition of more land from the state of Virginia for parks for Washington, and a more economical and efficient school sys-

Morgan in Philadelphia *Inquirer.*
WITH THE COMPLIMENTS OF THE SEASON.

tem under the centralized control of the district commissioners, by abolishing the separate board of education. Ship subsidies, especially for the development of a merchant marine and for the promotion of better relations with South American countries, are advocated. A simpler, cheaper and more expeditious system of judicial procedure is urged and Congress asked to empower the Supreme Court to bring this about.

The frightful loss of life in the forest service during the year is properly the text for a recommendation for a much more costly, but necessary, plan for forest protection, through "the development of roads and trails in the forests, the establishment of lookout stations, and telephone connection between them and places where assistance can be secured."

The reform of the injunction process without its abolition in connection with labor disputes is urged along the lines of the president's well known views, which have been generally accepted and should be tried without further delay by Congress.

Significant among the few industrial topics which were not reserved for the promised second message are the recommendations: (1) that a heavy federal tax be imposed on the manufacture of phosphorus matches in order to stamp out a very serious abuse, in the opinion of the president, who was much impressed with the results of investigations inaugurated by the American Association for Labor Legislation; (2) that the provisions of the present eight-hour law in government service be extended to meet recent court decisions, so that it will cover its application to work done for the government under contract in the building of battleships and other vessels in private shipyards, and to heavy guns and armor plate contracted for and made at private establishments. Such extension of the present law would cover the abuses of the long day, such as were found recently not only at Bethlehem steel works while engaged on government contracts, but also generally throughout the industry; (3) that the widespread interest in the possibility of substituting the principle of compensation for industrial accidents for our unsatisfactory system of employers' liability, justifies our government in inviting the International Congress on Industrial Insurance to meet in Washington in 1913; (4) a contributory system for civil service retirement, with withdrawal features, as a means of maintaining a high standard of efficiency in the government service, without doing injustice or working hardship to the superannuated.

The president submitted with his message, as an appendix, the full text of his St. Paul address (September 5, 1910) to the National Conservation Congress, with its full and valuable statistics corrected to November 15.

A SOCIAL WORKER PROMOTED

HOMER FOLKS

John A. Kingsbury, for the past three years an assistant secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association and in charge of its work for the prevention of tuberculosis, has accepted the position of general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and will take office on January 1.

The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor is one

of the oldest and strongest general relief societies in the country. Established in 1843, it has from the first combined direct and material relief to families with constructive social work. It became actively interested in the improvement of housing conditions from 1845 to 1850. The New York Juvenile Asylum, the DeMilt Dispensary, and the Northwestern Dispensary were founded by it in the early fifties. The Society for the Relief of Ruptured and Crippled Children was founded by it in 1862. It interested itself in pure milk legislation in 1864; in tenement house inspection in 1878. It began its fresh air work in 1883, and built its People's Baths in 1891. It started vacation schools in 1894, and vacant lot gardens in 1895. Through its initiative the City and Suburban Homes Company was organized in 1896. Three municipal baths were established through its efforts in 1902, and the Millbank Memorial Bath in 1904. A seaside hospital for the treatment of non-pulmonary tuberculosis was opened by it in 1904. A committee on the physical welfare of school children was appointed in 1906. In the same year a city branch of its fresh air enterprise was opened on the grounds of the Rockefeller Institute, and $250,000 raised for the Seaside Hospital. "Caroline Rest" for convalescent mothers was founded under its direction in 1907. Seven milk depots were opened in 1908, and the home visiting from dispensaries started. Its president for many years has been R. Fulton Cutting, known perhaps more widely as the head of the Citizens' Union in the successful campaign which resulted in the election of Mayor Low, and as an advocate of progressive legislation.

The position of general agent of such an association, who is its chief executive officer, is therefore one of great importance. The range of its influence, the effectiveness of its efforts in living up to the name of the association, are limited only by ability to secure popular approval of its recommendations and adequate support for its undertakings. Among those who have occupied the position are William H. Tolman, now of the Museum of Safety Devices, Frank Tucker of the Provident Loan Society, William H. Allen of the Bureau of Municipal Research, and Robert W. Bruère, lecturer and writer.

JOHN A. KINGSBURY.

The newly-elected general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

Mr. Kingsbury, a worthy successor, lived until four years ago in the state of Washington. He was educated in the public schools of North Yakima, Wash., where he taught for three years, and was principal of the schools of Prosser, in the same county. After three years as superintendent of schools in Georgetown, a suburb of Seattle, he was principal of one of the largest schools in Seattle. While in Georgetown and Seattle he studied at the University of Washington, particularly in the departments of social science and education. In 1906 he entered Teachers College, Columbia University, to prepare himself more adequately for educational work, but at the beginning of his second year, at the request of the secretary of the State Charities Aid Association, he was induced to take charge of the work about to be undertaken for the prevention of tuberculosis in New York state outside of New York city.

The progress of this campaign is well known to the readers of THE SURVEY. It is undoubtedly the most intensive campaign carried on in any state. It has had unusual results both in the way of legislation and of the establishment of hospitals, sanatoriums, dispensaries, visiting nurses, and other remedial agencies. In its second year, 1908, it secured a law requiring registration of cases of tuberculosis throughout the state, and providing for sanitary supervision, under the direction of the health officers, of all cases of tuberculosis in their homes. This law, which drew some of its provisions from Maryland and some from Wisconsin, has been enacted, with or without modifications, in a considerable number of states. In 1909 it secured legislation authorizing the establishment of a county hospital for tuberculosis by every county. The educational work of the campaign culminated in a conference of local committees on the prevention of tuberculosis, held in Albany last March, at which President Taft, Governor Hughes, Dr. Simon Flexner and Robert W. deForest spoke, and Joseph H. Choate presided. A constructive program, concisely stated in the phrase, "No uncared for tuberculosis in 1915," was adopted.

At the meeting of the board of managers of the State Charities Aid Association held in November, satisfactory progress was reported in the realization of the "1915" program. Already seven cities of the state have a hospital or sanatorium, a free tuberculosis dispensary and a visiting nurse for tuberculous patients. Sixteen other cities have two of these three agencies, and six have one of them. The number of cases of tuberculosis reported to health authorities, excluding New York city, Albany and Yonkers, which do not report individual cases to the State Health Department under a special statute, has increased from 22,098 in 1907 to 32,887 in 1909; and during the first nine months of 1910 is at the rate of 36,306 a year. The number of deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis in New York state, outside of New York city, which was 5,410 in 1907 and 5,449 in 1908, was reduced by 136 in 1909; and the present year shows a reduction thus far, as compared with a similar period of 1908, of 283.

The 4,000 members of the local committees on the prevention of tuberculosis throughout the state, which have been organized largely through Mr. Kingsbury's efforts, will be interested to know that he has been elected a member of the State Charities Aid Association, and will serve as a member of its committee on the prevention of tuberculosis. Thus his interest and participation in the success of the "1915" program will continue.

Mr. Kingsbury's rise in three years to one of the most important executive positions in social work in the country is a striking illustration of the possibility in this field for rapid advancement to positions of great responsibility and large opportunity. Of his personal qualities it would be a pleasure to speak at length, as it has been a pleasure to work in intimate association with him during the past three years. His enthusiasm for large undertakings, his remarkable energy, his intuitive sense of large opportunities, and his temperamental liking for public questions and public movements, all of which have contributed so largely to the success of the tuberculosis campaign, will find ample scope in his new position. The secretary and the assistant secretary of the committee on the prevention of tuberculosis have spent many pleasant and some wearisome hours together in the course of the last three years. Each is inclined to attribute to the other a large part of whatever degree of success the work has met with. Probably the fact is that the qualities and aptitudes of the two workers supplemented each other to a rather unusual extent, and rendered co-operation as effective as it was congenial.

TOMFOOLERY WITH PUBLIC HEALTH

THE PRESENT PITTSBURGH SITUATION

SAMUEL HOPKINS ADAMS

Two agencies only can redeem a city hygienically. A devoted, energetic, courageous and forceful official health organization can do it. Or an aroused and fiercely vigilant public opinion, led by the co-ordinated enthusiasm of the medical profession, may succeed, by forcing a lax officialdom to sustained action. At the present writing, two years after the report of THE SURVEY on Pittsburgh's public health, neither agency exists. This is, perhaps, a dangerous assertion to make in the face of a notably lowered death rate. But the decrease in mortality is due in part to a fortunate subsidence in epidemic disease; in part to the establishment of a purified water supply in which the present Health Department had no share, and in part to the efforts of a supplanted official whose work is being slowly undermined by the counsels of political expediency.

In May, 1909, Pittsburgh took a step forward. What had been a mere subagency of the Department of Public Safety was freed from unscientific control, and was constituted an autonomous Department of Health. The legislation which resulted in this development was one of the progressive steps with which the new administration of Mayor William A. Magee was identified, in its initial stages. Dr. James F. Edwards, the former head of the Health Bureau, was the choice of the medical profession for executive of the new department. He had demonstrated ability, a practical and scientific grasp of the difficult situation, and (perhaps too much) independence of political pressure. Public confidence was behind him. He knew the city. His familiarity with the strategic conditions of the never-ending warfare was expert. He was eminently the man for the place. Mayor Magee appointed Dr. E. R. Walters.

In that appointment Pittsburgh took a step backward toward the twilight-zone of practical politics. The backward step was not as long as the forward step achieved in the establishment of the Department of Health. But it was, nevertheless, a serious and damaging move. Medical confidence was at once diminished, for Dr. Walters is by no means of the scientific caliber appropriate to so vitally important a position. Nor was public confidence inspired by the appointment, which was not only purely political, but of a peculiarly unfortunate political bearing. Dr. Walters had been the president of the notorious grafting Councils, many of whose members are now under indictments or in jail. He himself is under indictment for bribe-taking; but, as his case has not yet come to trial, it would be manifestly unfair to draw any conclusions as to his guilt. Assuming his innocence, Dr. Walters is, nevertheless, until cleared, an object of suspicion to his fellow citizens. On this ground Mayor Magee has been urged to suspend him pending trial. He has refused.

To the mayor's credit, be it said, Dr. Edwards has not been dropped from the department. He was made superintendent of the Bureau of Infectious diseases, perhaps the most important sub-division of the department. Even in his own bureau, however, he has not been supported by his immediate superior, and some of his most far-reaching plans are in danger of proving abortive on this account.

In considering the statistical estimate of conditions, I am confronted at once by a discrepancy between Pittsburgh's figures and those of the United States Census Bureau. Long experience with similar phenomena in other cities, leads me to pin my faith to federal, rather than local, statistics. Pittsburgh claims a death rate of 14.6 per thousand of population. The census gives it a death rate of 15.8. Accepting this latter figure, the mortality is not only creditably low for a city of Pittsburgh's size, but is also a marked decrease from the mortal-

ity of former years, being the lowest in the history of the city. For convenience of consideration, I will list the important divisions of preventable mortality, with comments under each head.

INFECTIOUS DISEASES

The estimate of the department is 1,600 deaths from this cause, a decrease of 396 from the year before. This is largely due to a severe epidemic of measles in 1908, which, subsiding, immunized the city to some extent, so that the death rate from this cause was low in 1909, the decrease in favor of the latter year being 203 deaths. Typhoid fever is also listed under this head, but will be considered separately; as will also infant mortality from diarrhoeal ailments. Credit must be given for the general decrease (apart from typhoid and measles) to the efficient work of Dr. Edwards as head of the Bureau of Infectious Diseases. An important element in the control of infections is medical inspection of school children, since it is largely through schools that the actively contagious diseases are spread. Director Walters, whose strong point is his ability to get his recommendations approved by Councils, has succeeded in obtaining an appropriation for thirty medical inspectors of schools. There has been great delay, however, in making the appointments. This is ascribed to politics. An illustration of how politics was to dominate the new school inspection service in which the health of children was at stake, is the case of a young physician. He had done two years' inspection work for a progressive district school board, and his name, with the board's endorsement, was suggested for an inspectorship. He was told to get the endorsement of his local republican boss! In the early fall, at the demand of civic organizations, the administration was restricted to an eligible list of candidates who should pass a competitive examination before a board of physicians appointed by the Civil Service Commission. Against this Dr. Walters fought openly, but the wave of timely protest overrode him. It is feared, however, that the same influences will still find a way for manipulating the staff for political rather than for hygienic ends. The chief inspectorship was exempted from competitive civil service requirements, and Dr. Burns, leader of the administration forces in Select Council, was appointed to the post, after resignation from Councils.

Provision was made also in the appropriation ordinance of 1910 for the appointment of ten school nurses, but they have never been appointed. No one seems to know why.

TYPHOID FEVER

For many years Pittsburgh was the greatest sufferer among American cities, from this preventable and inexcusable scourge. Now the city may fairly be said to have conquered the pest. The dominant factor has been the delayed filtration plant which was put into operation in 1908, at the outset of a sustained period of low morbidity throughout the entire watershed. With some portions of the city still drinking unfiltrated river water, the deaths, nevertheless, have fallen to 22.7 per 100,000 of population. Consequently it is not too much to predict that, with the creation of filtration facilities for Allegheny voted in the bond issue passed in November, 1910, with competent control of the filtration plant (competent enough to protect automatically the city against epidemic by pollution of the water by the upriver towns), typhoid will shortly become a comparatively unimportant cause of death—as it should be in every community calling itself civilized. Competent control, however, is an essential. And here Pittsburgh may wisely keep a watchful eye on its politicians. Morris Knowles, a sanitarian and engineer of national reputation, the official who supervised the building of the filtration beds resigned last summer from the city service because he would not stand for the persistent application at that time of methods at the city filters which he believed to be unsafe. His departmental superior, who made Mr. Knowles's position untenable, is a former coroner of Allegheny county, and by a singular, not to say sinister, coincidence, is, like Dr. Walters, under indictment. Dr. Vaughn once observed that for every death from typhoid,

somebody should be tried for murder. Pittsburgh will do well to identify the men responsible in case of a return of the death-dealing scourge.

INFANT MORTALITY

Here the best work has been done. Under Dr. Edwards's plan the city was divided into six districts (later, increased to ten), each district having its own milk dispensary and a visiting nurse whose duty it was to make house to house visits, giving care to sick babies and instruction to ignorant mothers. There can be no doubt but that the good milk from the dispensaries and the educational influence of the nurses were potent in bringing down the death rate from Pittsburgh's chief single cause of mortality, diarrhoeal diseases in children under two years of age. Dr. Edwards's own figures show that 42 less babies died from this cause in 1909 than in 1908. But the census statistics are far more favorable than his own. They show 735 deaths under two years of age from diarrhoea and enteritis in 1909 as against 822 in 1908, a decrease of 87. This milk system, even in its initial and but partially developed years, thus brought municipal resources and equipment into a field of work, which for many years had been pioneered with excellent results by the Pittsburgh and Allegheny Milk and Ice Association. Moreover, the city itself was accepting responsibility for the health of its helpless babies; a notable move forward. But again Director Walters represents the backward swing of the pendulum. Early in the fall, with a large balance of the milk fund still on hand, he abolished this invaluable work. The Milk and Ice Association protested. So did Dr. Edwards. His superior pointed out that the period for which six nurses were appointed had expired. This seems rather a pretext, in view of the fact that Councils had given to the Health Department the power not only to carry on the milk and nursery work, but also to employ four additional nurses. The Milk and Ice Associatoin is still in the field. But, so far as the city concerns itself officially, the babies may die of poisoned milk, as before.

TUBERCULOSIS

Pittsburgh's situation in respect to this most terrible of all scourges is desperate. I know of no other word by which adequately to characterize it. Not that it is worse than in many other American cities. Indeed, the whole problem of tuberculosis seems to me to be growing constantly graver, in a national sense. And Pittsburgh fitly exemplifies the gravity of the situation. On the basis of 551 deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis alone in 1900, there were, roughly, 5,500 cases in the city. The census mortality figures of 576 cases would give about 5,750 cases. The total capacity of the city institutions capable of caring for a consumptive, including the poorhouse, is little more than one hundred. Perhaps one hundred more can be sent to the state hospital. True, there are dispensaries, private and public, including the admirable state dispensary; and visiting nurses, both publicly and privately maintained. Little enough can they do toward stemming the tide. There are today nearer 4,000 than 3,000 consumptives in Pittsburgh who are in a condition to radiate the infection. Wisely the city has voted a quarter of a million dollars for a municipal tuberculosis hospital; and work upon it will be started soon. The Tuberculosis League, with its insufficient means and equipment, is doing valiant work, with special emphasis on the educational phase. The Tuberculosis Commission from which so much was hoped is all but moribund. This condition is charged against Director Walters. It is stated that he has never taken the trouble to fill the vacancies now existing in the body.

One hopeful fact is the increased reporting of new cases of consumption. In 1909 2,407 cases were reported, a great increase over previous years, when the reporting required by law was the merest farce. Even now, less than half the cases are officially brought to the attention of the Health Department; but at least there is indication of a healthy awakening and improvement on the part of the medical profession. The most valuable report available on tuberculosis in Pittsburgh has never been published. It is the findings of a house-to-house can-

vass made by the visiting nurses of the Tuberculosis League, and turned over to the Health Department. The league would be interested to know why Director Walters has not published it, but cannot find out.

FOOD AND SANITARY INSPECTION

In the matter of inspection and guardianship against danger from unsanitary conditions of housing and food, there is matter for both encouragement and discouragement. Meat inspection is improved; there is a fairly thorough watch upon the stockyards and the large packing houses, and the sanitary condition of the slaughter houses has improved. Yet an average of 7,411 animals per week were slaughtered in 1909, without inspection. The report of the Division of Meat Inspection for 1909 recommends the establishment of a municipal abattoir, and promises to slaughter, dress, cool, refrigerate and store all animals without cost to the butcher, and still make a profit to the city by the sale of the by-products.

While the quality of the milk sold in Pittsburgh is probably improving somewhat, owing to the education of the dairymen, there is still nothing which can be regarded as adequate inspection. One lone dairy inspector had been, up to November, 1910, supposed to look after conditions in the 8,000 dairies which pour their milk into the city. The inadequacy of this service is too ridiculous for further comment. Three additional inspectors, however, were appointed late in November and provision made for four more, so that there will be one official for each thousand dairies, instead of one for eight thousand. This status still lacks something of being a guarantee of a pure milk supply. There are also milk inspectors whose duty it is to watch the places where milk is sold. One visit in two months is the best average they can maintain. This has its value as a club held over the dealer; but as "inspection" it is otherwise farcical. Formaldehyde and the dangerous adulterants, however, have practically disappeared. Of wide-reaching importance also is the new milk code establishing a basis of bacterial count for the sale of milk in the city.

It is in the Bureau of Sanitation that the exercise of the political pull is most frequent. Illegal tenements, disease-spreading outhouses, filthy cellars used as habitations, all are reckonable in terms of profit and loss, more accurately, and unhappily with more immediate appeal, than in terms of life and death. Hence the work of a political Health Department is reflected in its sanitary activities. "The Bureau of Sanitation has just completed a very active year," says Director Walters in his report for 1909. The activity seems to have been mainly in the line of making visits. And the visits were apparently visits of courtesy. There seems to have been little enough outcome of them. No city has worse tenement conditions than Pittsburgh. Yet as a result of 51,187 inspections in 1909, "living accommodations have been improved in 565 houses," and *six* tenements have been torn down or vacated! The special and crying shame and danger of Pittsburgh has been its old-world, unprotected, filth-disseminating back-yard privies. In 1907, when Dr. Edwards had full swing, 3,590 of these nuisances were abolished. In 1909, the "very active year" of Dr. Walters's administration, 345 were removed. And there are thousands left; 18,000 the report states, though I believe this to be a wide overestimate.

HOSPITALS AND VISITING NURSES

In my former review of the situation, I spoke of the hopeless lack of co-operation, in the private and semi-private health agencies; the guerilla warfare, where the situation imperatively demanded an organized and ordered plan. That lack still exists. But it is no longer hopeless. The Western Pennsylvania Health Conference, held the last of November, took hold of the problem and took hold of it with vigor and promise. In the course of the discussions, it appeared that there are fourteen dispensaries in Pittsburgh, each working independently of the others; that there are seventeen associations maintaining nurses, who do their work with little or no reference to each other's efforts or capabilities; and, in and about Pittsburgh, thirty-three important hospitals, every

one of them going headlong about its business of life-saving as if it were the one and only agency in the field.

Most of these institutions were represented at the conference; and a great majority of the representatives declared unequivocally for complete co-operation under any plan which promised to be feasible. Only among the hospitals was there any marked opposition. One representative spoke most earnestly for individualism in hospital work: "individualism fostering that friendly rivalry which alone makes for the best results." Individualism in public health work! As wisely advocate the principle of every man for himself in warfare, for a public health campaign is warfare of a highly specialized kind. Our American aborigines, I believe, practiced the individualistic style of fighting, but I have never heard that they won many battles thereby. Happily, the earnest representative of mediaevalism in hospital methods found only a few supporters. There went forth from the meeting some hundreds of practical and able men and women, with the formulated beginning, in their minds, of the idea of a city-wide co-operation. That, in itself, is a move of vital importance, sufficient and more than sufficient to justify all the time and toil expended upon the Health Conference, and to vindicate the judgment of the Associated Charities, which promoted it.

To sum up, Pittsburgh's advances are as follows: The establishment of an autonomous health department; a prospective tuberculosis hospital; food inspection somewhat improved; a good milk code, and increased guardianship of milk supply; a brilliant, though not complete nor permanently assured victory over typhoid; a creditable reduction of infant mortality; a promised system of school inspection; improved reporting of tuberculosis.

Its retrogressions are: Increase of political influence upon public health control; failure of the Tuberculosis Commission; failure to provide an adequate system of garbage and rubbish disposal; the forcing out or relegation of expert officials to subordinate posts; relaxation of sanitary guardianship.

Back of all purely official conditions lies the question: What does Pittsburgh really want? Does it want, as a city, sound health? Does it want sound health enough to strive for it, to fight for it, and, finally, to pay for it? The human body fends off death only by unremitting effort. The body politic is not essentially different from the individual in its warfare against the germ. To make a little fight and then relax will not do. Pittsburgh is now in the period of relaxation. If the city is to establish its forces on a war basis there must be concerted effort, eternal vigilance, some sacrifice of material considerations, and the education, not of a part, but of the whole, to the fundamental truth that when you attempt to combine practical politics and public hygiene, you are trying to mix oil with water, a death-agency with a life-agency. Finally and primarily, Pittsburgh needs another field-general. The wrong man is carrying the flag.

Sometimes it happens that a city is roused to hygienic reform only by the terrible lash of epidemic disease. Panic, misery and death drive the lesson home. If I use words of sensational import, it is because I have seen other communities, struggle up, stricken and weakened, from the morass into which their own neglect or fatuity has plunged them, The great city of steel has only half learned its lesson. If the medical profession lives up to its highest ideals, if the physicians prove indeed to be *doctors*—teachers of the people—the lost ground may yet be recovered. And I have thought to feel, on this last visit of inspection, an awakened professional and ethical consciousness in the medical fraternity; a bracing together for the fight, a tacit acceptance of the subtler responsibility of the physician for the public health. Definite signs are not lacking; the increasing interest of the medical men in organized hygienic work; the greater respect for technical public health regulations hitherto disregarded; the reorganization and regeneration of the city's representative medical college on a sounder ethical basis; and finally, the hearty and universal support of the Health Conference, which cannot fail to have an awakening and an inspiring effect upon all Pittsburgh.

COALESCING A CITY'S HEALTH FORCES

THE PITTSBURGH CONFERENCE

Co-operation and social service were the key-words of the Health Conference held in Pittsburgh November 29-December 1, under the auspices of the Associated Charities. Dr. Richard C. Cabot of Boston, in summing up the results of the thirteen sessions, said he did not know of any conference of the kind before held anywhere. He said that he was going home with the determination that there should be such a series of meetings in Boston.

Canfield in the Pittsburgh *Sun*.

AN OUNCE OF PREVENTION.

Among the characteristics of the working scheme of "The Western Pennsylvania Public Health Conference," to quote its full title, were the following:

1. Preparatory work covering a period of six months and involving the organization of a committee of three hundred which, through its officers and nine sub-committees, made all arrangements for the conference.

2. Eighteen dispensaries, seventeen nursing associations, thirty-five hospitals, three anti-tuberculosis forces, three city departments and a number of other philanthropic agencies brought together, through representatives, on the preliminary committees and the program.

3. Eight out-of-town speakers of national standing.

4. One hundred and one local speakers definitely announced to take part in the discussions, while others, unannounced, spoke extemporaneously at various sessions.

5. Three organized sessions daily, for three successive days, 10 to 12 A. M., 2 to 4 and 8 to 10 P. M., in one of the largest meeting places in the city. An extra luncheon conference down town and a "young men's rally" at 4:30 on the last day were added to the regular schedule. Informal luncheon conferences from 12 to 2 daily with a dozen extemporaneous short talks on topics suggested by the morning session.

6. A detailed printed program, suggesting practical means of co-operation and service in a series of questions and themes, brought out the main elements in the situation before the conference.[1]

7. Exhibits displayed in the large corridor and adjacent rooms around the meeting hall, dealing with such subjects as Infant Mortality, the Prevention of Blindness, Tuberculosis, the work of various local Hospitals, the Milk Commission, the Health Department of Pennsylvania, the Children's Bureau and the Associated Charities.

8. Extensive advertising, including a series of personal letters to a special mailing list of 7,000 selected persons; many columns of reading matter, pictures and cartoons in seven dailies and eighteen weekly papers; display cards hung in the reception rooms of doctors, vestibules of churches and hallways of philanthropic institutions; 27,000 invitation circulars distributed in the packages delivered by five department stores; six large banners stretched across prominent city streets; street car sign cards donated by private advertisers; invitation notices in the newspaper advertising space of business firms; posters on the front dash boards of street cars; pasted seals on private correspondence; and 9,000 copies of the twenty-page program mailed in advance to appropriate people. There were also several preliminary meetings, in which plans for the conference were discussed and interest aroused. These included a complimentary supper, to which the president of the Associated Charities invited representatives of the twenty-five daily and weekly newspapers.

These extensive efforts at advertisement and the enlistment of interest are mentioned as characteristic features of the conference, because the fundamental purpose of the conference was Community Education, as set forth in the opening statement by the chairman of the committee of three hundred, Dr. William H. Mercur.

Dr. Sidney E. Goldstein, formerly assistant superintendent of Mt. Sinai Hospital, New York city, delivered the principal address at the opening session Tues-

[1] This was declared by many people to be an educational document in itself. It is suggestive to residents of other cities. Copies can be had from the secretary of the conference, Charles F. Weller, secretary, Associated Charities, Fulton Building, Pittsburgh.

day morning. He was able to speak specifically of Pittsburgh health problems which he had investigated for the Pittsburgh Survey. His advocacy of co-operation, social service, and the development of a central hospital and health bureau was echoed or stated in various ways by many subsequent speakers. Six local speakers took ten minutes each in discussing the unorganized ambulance service, the excessive number of general hospital bids already available, the need for conferences as to rates to be charged to corporations and others, and the need for differentiation of hospitals as to territory covered or cases treated.

Dr. Cabot, who attended every session and contributed to the discussion at each, opened the Tuesday afternoon meeting with an address on Dispensaries: Their Place and Function; Methods of Co-operation Among Them; Their Responsibilities for Affecting the Home Conditions and Home Care of Patients. He condemned the hasty, superficial, medicine-giving methods of many dispensaries, where neither real diagnosis nor adequate care is possible. Representatives of the eighteen local dispensaries followed with five-minute responses, in which a cordial and growing spirit of co-operation was generally expressed.

Restoration and Prevention was the subject for Tuesday evening. Dr. Cabot and Dr. Samuel G. Dixon, commissioner of the Pennsylvania Department of Health, discussed the Development of Social Service and the Human Interest Point of View, Side by Side With Professional Skill and Material Equipment.

Nursing was the topic for Wednesday morning, with Adelaide Nutting of Teachers College, Columbia University, as the leading speaker. She was followed by representatives of the seventeen local nursing associations, who discussed her suggestion that a central, inclusive visiting nursing association should be developed.

Dr. Henry M. Hurd, superintendent of Johns Hopkins Hospital, opened the discussion on Wednesday afternoon of Hospital Co-operation. Representatives of the thirty-five hospitals were listed to take part in the discussion with five minute talks and nearly all responded. Various attitudes were expressed, but there was abundant evidence of the development of a sentiment favoring the co-ordination of hospital work.

Efficiency and Finance in their bearing upon health agencies were discussed Wednesday evening by William H. Allen of New York and three prominent Pittsburghers, who treated the problems of subsidies, public supervision, financial support and efficiency tests in a stimulating way.

Children's Health Agencies were described at the Thursday morning meeting. Nine local speakers, including Dr. J. F. Edwards of the Health Department, took up such subjects as infant mortality, backward children, obstetrical conditions, sex hygiene, the prevention of blindness and the importance of keeping infants with their mothers. Thirty babies in their mothers' arms, were introduced to the audience by Dr. Amelia A. Dranga, who explained the work of the Milk and Ice Association and the principles of infant feeding.

Investigation and After-Care of Charity Cases, the subject for Thursday afternoon, gave Dr. Charles P. Emerson of Clifton Springs, N. Y., opportunity to make a very clear, convincing argument for social service work in connection with hospitals and other health agencies. Five local speakers, in ten-minute talks, discussed Self-Help, Investigations, After-Care, and the practicability of developing social service work either as a branch activity of each hospital and dispensary, as a department of the Associated Charities, or as an independent central philanthropy. The cost of the different methods was considered, and an argument made for the co-ordination of the work in a hospital and health department of the Associated Charities.

Young Men's Health Problems, Including Sex Hygiene, were discussed frankly at a special rally Thursday afternoon by Dr. Cabot, Dr. Emerson and Dr. Evans. Young men and boys of the local university, technical school, high schools, academies and various boys' organizations made up the audience.

Dr. William A. Evans, Chicago com-

missioner of health, opened the final session Thursday evening, when the general subject was Community Education. Five local speakers followed, suggesting ways in which the public schools, institutions of higher learning, churches, women's clubs and the public press may help in the campaign for the prevention of sickness and promotion of health.

All sessions were well attended. At each of the three morning meetings from about 150 to about 350 persons were present; afternoons, 200 to 400; evenings, 500 to 850. At the luncheon conferences from 100 to 250 were present. The young men's rally brought together about 400 men and boys.

Not only sustained, general interest, but genuine enthusiasm, was in evidence. "I feel," said one of Pittsburgh's physicians who gives much time to social service, "as if I had been taking a course of training. I cannot go to other cities to study social problems or learn what others are doing, but this conference has brought instruction to our very door. I have suspended all other work during these three days and I have felt well repaid."

Dr. Cabot, in a final review of the thirteen meetings, expressed confidence that Pittsburgh has the ideas, the spirit and the people to work out in this field of public health many of the suggested plans for co-operation, for social service and for preventive measures. Hospitals and dispensaries, he said, must grow into a larger realization of their position as public servants. Of his conclusion, the following is a free quotation:

> The specialist in every field needs the help of the social worker. The specialist alone falls into every kind of error. The physician tends to view his patient only as a "case." The lawyer is likely to regard his client as merely a witness, a defendant, or plaintiff. The teacher is in danger of being viewed by his pupils as hardly a human being, but rather a "fair game" for pranks.
>
> These specialists need the all 'round social worker with his all 'round view of human brotherhood. In this conference the social worker has called the medical man into this larger human conception and co-operation. The social worker needs also to press on and perform a similar service for the specialists in the church, the legal profession, and the schools.

DETROIT SEX HYGIENE CAMPAIGN

A. H. FINN
PRESIDENT DETROIT FEDERATION MEN'S CHURCH ORGANIZATIONS

The educational campaign on sex hygiene recently conducted in Detroit reached almost every inhabitant with at least the prime facts regarding the physical dangers and social cost of venereal disease. It came on the heels of a census report which shows a prodigious growth in industries and population in one of our older cities—for Detroit was founded by Cadillac more than 200 years ago—and fits in well with the growing civic consciousness which has recently found practical expression in many ways.

The campaign had its origin in a meeting of physicians and social workers over a year ago, followed by several later conferences, to discuss methods of combating venereal diseases. In the meantime a Federation of Men's Church Organizations was forming, which was formally organized in the early summer. Sex hygiene was one of the lines of social service proposed at the organization, and the two groups quickly got together on a program suggested by the federation. The Pastors' Conference, an organization of evangelical ministers, and the Federation of Women's Clubs promptly accepted an invitation to co-operate.

The Young Men's Christian Association had previously engaged Prof. Winfield Scott Hall of Northwestern University for a series of talks on the subject, and this plan was pooled with the other for a general campaign in charge of a citizens' committee representing the organizations named above and several others. The chairman was Dr. Rollin H. Stevens, and the secretary Eugene C.

Foster, who is boys' secretary of the Y. M. C. A.

On the Sunday preceding the campaign, publicity in the two morning newspapers began with a half page article describing the plan, giving the reasons for it and backed by the strong list of organizations taking part. For the next three days these papers and the three published in the evening had each day a carefully prepared article on the need for sex hygiene and what it means in the conservation of the race. The public was thus fully prepared for Dr. Hall's lectures, which came thick and fast, beginning Friday morning. To show the wide scope of the campaign, I give his schedule for four days:

Friday: Morning, to the boys in the Western Central and Eastern High Schools—miles apart; to the Federation of Women's Clubs at the Twentieth Century building in the afternoon, and before the Federation of Men's Church Organizations at the Woodward Avenue Baptist Church in the evening.

Saturday: At 10 A. M., at Central High School, to women teachers in public and parochial schools; at 11:50, at Cadillac Motor Car Company, to a mass meeting of shop men; at 7:30, to mass meeting of store and factory girls at the Y. W. C. A.

Sunday: At 2:30, to meeting of boys at the Y. M. C. A.; at 3:30, to a mass meeting of men at the Garrick Theater; at 7:30 to another mass meeting of men at the Y. M. C. A.

Monday: At 10 A. M., to the Pastors' Conference at the Y. M. C. A.; at 11 A. M., to a second section of boys at the Central High School; at 6:30, to a meeting of men at the Y. M. C. A., and at 7:30, to the physicians and students at the Wayne County Medical Society's building.

This was probably the most strenuous campaign Dr. Hall ever engaged in, and while it was wearing he gave himself unreservedly to it and captivated his audiences with his gracious manner, his vigorous presentation of a difficult message and his successful appeal to all that is noble and best in man and woman.

Following Dr. Hall's campaign, the Federation of Men's Church Organizations, the Federation of Women's Clubs and the Industrial Department of the Y. W. C. A. took up the important task of carrying the propaganda into local churches, clubs, school buildings, factories—wherever a hearing can be secured. Several physicians, both men and women, have volunteered as speakers, and as a result of this follow-up work an even greater number will hear the sex hygiene message than Dr. Hall was able to reach.

The campaign thus is not ended, but in fact only begun, and in order to put it on a permanent basis and to affiliate it with the national organization, it has been incorporated as the Detroit Society for Sex Hygiene. Dr. Stevens, who was chairman of the citizens' committee, becomes president. The vice-presidents are the Rt. Rev. Charles D. Williams, Episcopal bishop of Michigan; Mrs. George Y. Caron, and D. W. Springer. The treasurer is D. M. Ferry, Jr. The executive and advisory committees are made up of representatives of the various organizations and commissions working in solid phalanx against this evil.

It remains to be said that without the help of the five daily newspapers the campaign could scarcely have been so successful as it was. The whole daily press of Detroit—by name, the *Free Press,* the *News-Tribune,* the *News,* the *Journal* and the *Times*—is thus placed solidly in the small but growing list of newspapers which have the courage to speak out frankly on a subject for which there is crying need of publicity. *Saturday Night,* an ably edited weekly newspaper, had the following to say under an editorial entitled Ignorance and Innocence:

Thus far the Detroit Society for Sex Hygiene has been blessed with wise counselors. The campaign has been opened and continues without sensation or morbidity. Best of all there is no emotional and misguided crusade against the unfortunates of the underworld. The force of the movement has been directed against the custom of sending boys and girls into the streets unwarned and therefore unarmed; against the suppression of facts pertaining to the one element of human life that causes the greatest misery; against the quack doctors with their hateful graft and their cruelly dishonest practices. Knowledge of these things will not bring all sexual crimes and indiscretions to an end; but it will be highly prophylactic. It will help every parent to meet the perplexing problem of how to bring up children safely amid the multiform temptations of a great city. And it is on the parent that the campaign must depend for its largest measure of success.

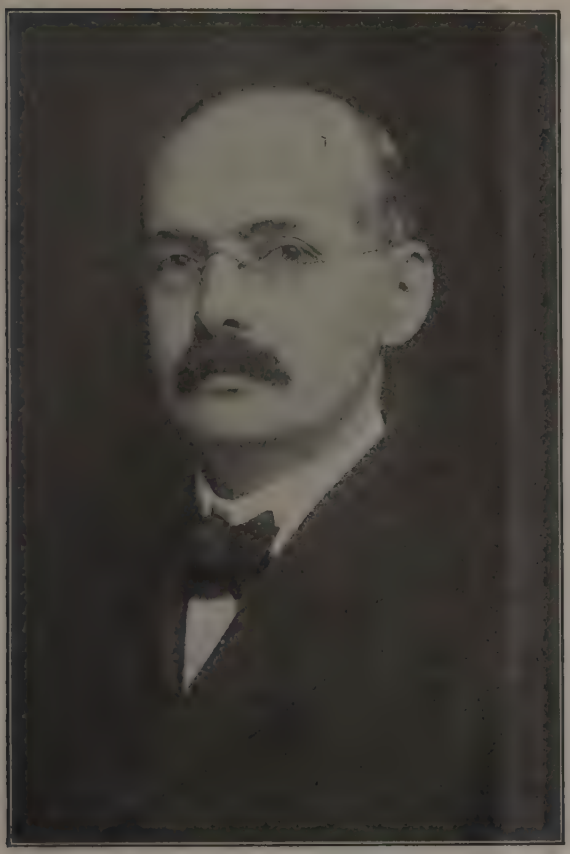
THE ROCHESTER BRICK CHURCH AND INSTITUTE.

This is a "downtown church," the fourth largest Presbyterian church in the country, with 2,400 communicants.

A SIGNAL EXAMPLE OF CHURCH SOCIAL SERVICE

KATHARINE STEBBINS

The reason for writing this article is implied in the title itself. It is because the Brick Church Institute of Rochester, N. Y., which was formally opened last June, is a signal example of what the church can do, must do, and is doing in the work of active social service. Social service is an idea which no longer needs to be defined. It is a phrase that is becoming more and more familiar in the press, in public speaking, and in casual conversation; and the weight of its meaning is bearing down upon us more and more heavily as the lines of its opportunities multiply and develop, and the horizon of its possibilities expands before our eyes. But in the minds of many the ideas of social service and church work are entirely disconnected; in fact, they have never been connected. Social service suggests progressive plans, up-to-date methods, expert direction; while much church work stands for kindly intention, narrow routine, and indefinite results. Needless to say this widespread impression is not a true one, for a rapidly-growing number of churches throughout the country are trying out some phase of institutional work and grappling with the problems of their own neighborhood. Indeed the very conception of social service was inspired fundamentally by the power of preaching, and its branches are now being directed by men and women who bear the impress of a deeply religious spirit. Nevertheless, it is true that many other churches, and many more individuals, consider conventional church work as one



HERBERT W. GATES.
Superintendent of the Brick Church Institute.

tning and the effort to provide amusement and instruction for boys and girls quite another. Indeed there are trained, conscientious workers who say openly that social settlements thrive best where the church is relegated to the background and the Bible taught in disguise.

Therefore, when the fourth largest Presbyterian church in the country erects and furnishes a building for social and educational purposes, at a cost of $105,000, and thereby proclaims itself not only in word, but in brick and stone, as a definite agency for the broadest, most comprehensive service it can perform for the community, the event is emphatically significant. It means, as William R. Taylor, the pastor of Brick Church, stated in his dedicatory address, "our recognition of the comprehensive unity of life, and it is a frank acknowledgment of the legitimacy of the impulses which lead people, and especially young people, to seek society, recreation and sport."

The Brick Church Institute is the unsolicited gift of one man, Henry A. Strong, a member of Brick Church congregation, the cost of furnishing being met by many generous gifts from others. It is a four-story brick building with basement, standing next to the church to which it belongs. It is sixty-one feet wide, 150 feet deep. In the basement are bowling alleys, gymnasium, a plunge bath, and meeting room for boys. The main hall or entrance lobby on the first floor is more attractive than that of many a summer hotel, with broad staircase, convenient office, comfortable wooden settees and chairs, and two large open fireplaces. Fine pictures hang on the walls, and a sense of comfort and hospitality is felt as soon as one enters. Just beyond the hall are church parlor, dining room, kitchen and gymnasium, while on the floor above are classrooms, an unusually large reading room, rooms for small clubs, and an assembly hall provided with a stage and two dressing rooms. The third and fourth floors are devoted to eighty-two sleeping rooms for men, each with a closet, two electric lights, steam radiator and call bell. There is a telephone on each floor. The rooms rent for from two to five dollars a week, and are an unique feature of the plant.

So far the institute is not unlike a modern Y. M. C. A. building or an up-to-date social settlement. The uses to which many rooms will be put are identical in all three, but in neither of the latter will be found one feature which the architect has provided for the institute. On the first floor, at right angles with the main hall, a passageway leads

directly to the church, and this passageway is symbolic of the ideas and ideals which have led the Brick Church from the pulpit to the classroom, and from recreation halls back to the church again. In every possible way this close connection between church and institute is being emphasized.

The formal opening of the building, which took place on a week night, was followed by a Sunday devoted at all its services, including the Sunday school, to the interests of both. At these services Dr. Raymond of Buffalo and Professor Coe of Union Theological Seminary spoke on various phases of the great problem—how to bring the church into helpful and recognized touch with the everyday, commonplace life of the individual and of society.

This problem is no experiment in Brick Church. Ten years ago its solution was attempted, and the present building was erected to supply the demands of a work grown at last to the proportions dreamed of by its superintendent, Winfred J. Smith. Dr. Taylor's confident hopefulness, his far-seeing wisdom, and personal inspiration have led his people into an opportunity of which this equipment, finer than anything of its kind in the United States, is but the tangible evidence. The greatness of this opportunity can hardly be overestimated. The time is come when, to represent Jesus Christ truly, the ministry of the church must consist not only in the stated preaching of the Gospel, but must be commensurate with the threefold ministration of Christ—teaching, preaching and healing. And if the church is to minister to the actual needs of humanity, it must control the formative forces which are turning the currents of our complex modern life. This need for a thorough readjustment of methods the Brick Church recognizes and is meeting in masterly fashion. To quote from a recent sermon by Dr. Taylor: "Our institute represents, first, our effort to conform our life and work as a church to changed conditions; second, to represent what Dr. Judson calls 'organized Christian kindness'; and third, our desire and purpose to do what we can to restore religious education to its proper place in the church."

To give special attention to this last named department, as well as to superintend all branches of the institute work, the service of Herbert W. Gates, of Northwestern University, have fortunately been engaged. Mr. Gates is an expert in this line, and from him, with his efficient co-workers and experienced advisory board, a large success is anticipated.

WILLIAM RIVERS TAYLOR.

Pastor of the Brick Presbyterian Church, Rochester, since 1888.

A MOTHERS AND CHILDREN'S BUILDING

HELEN SOLOMON

HELEN DAY NURSERY, CHICAGO.
A neighborhood center as well as a crèche.

The Helen Day Nursery, the daily shelter for children of working mothers in the congested Jewish district of Chicago, has completed plans for a new home at the corner of Union and Barber streets, opposite Small Park No. 2. The new building will be essentially a mother's building. Its activities will center not so much on the small child as on the mother and the family as a whole. It will aim to be, so far as possible, a constructive force in family life.

Social economy and justice ever more forcefully insist that the mother shall be the guardian of her own family; that she shall be the leading factor in the life of her own children. The Associated Jewish Charities of Chicago is bending its efforts toward a social organization which, so far as possible, will exclude institutional life for children. Pensions for mothers are to replace pay rolls in homes, and already an amazing number of families have been reunited.

Nevertheless, there still is and for many years to come there will be necessity for a day nursery in our congested district. While pleading for a recognition of the new ideal, authorities agree that the task is so great that no near future will bring the abolition of permanent asylums, to say nothing of temporary shelter such as a day nursery affords. The continuing wave of immigration of itself would make the existence of a day nursery imperative. Here the constant change of population is regularly registered. Each week brings to it new protegés whose parents are seeking a foothold in a strange land. Soon the immigrant family is able to adjust itself to the new surroundings and the timely assistance of the nursery has been instrumental in keeping another name from the list of applicants to the charity office.

Of the mothers in the Jewish district who apply daily at the nursery and whose names appear on the roll for an indefinite number of months or years, comparatively few work in factories and shops. The average applicant is the woman who receives some charitable relief which she supplements by her own small earnings. She peddles, or she scrubs and washes and does the occasional job which presents itself, or she keeps one of the stands which line the sidewalks. Her working hours are spasmodic so that she can have her children with her a good portion of the time. The day nursery has made possible the preservation of the home ties, for without its assistance her family would surely have disintegrated.

But the day nursery has not heretofore been inclusive enough in its policy. It has not taken into account the older children of the working parent whose babies it protects. It has not met the problem of the neglected "big" brothers and sisters, branded by the teacher as underfed, who have been tramping the streets after school hours. There is the little boy, our neighbor, who wondered why his mother "borned" him if he were forever doomed to return to a locked house between school sessions to find the crust of bread, his daily fare, left for him on the window sill. We recognize that it is the child in such circumstances, uncared for, left to run wild in the streets, who almost inevitably becomes a ward of the Juve-

nile Court. For him the nursery must be responsible as well as for the babies.

The new nursery will keep its doors open by night as well as by day. A "night nursery" for children whose mothers are employed as scrub women in office buildings after business hours is not needed in the Jewish district. But emergencies constantly arise and the nursery is handicapped in its efficiency because it is unable to keep children over night. Within the week one case of illness and one of death in families in which the nursery is interested, made it advisable to keep children out of their cramped houses for a night or two. Arrangements for temporary lodging can be made in some of the asylums, but the transportation of a child to a remote district for only a few days is seldom undertaken. For a home in which to leave a small baby temporarily deprived of its mother's care, the worker in the charity office is constantly at a loss. The new nursery will be open at all hours. The fact that its cases are referred to the Bureau of Personal Service for investigation insures it against abuse.

In outlining the work for its new home, the board of the nursery has considered every exigency which might arise. It plans to make the "mothers and children's building" a place where children who need shelter and protection by day or night may be cared for during the mothers' working hours; a place which shall provide temporary refuge in emergency; and an industrial, educational and social center for mothers, from which shall emanate standards of respectable living.

The new building will consist of two floors and a basement. In the basement will be storerooms and a fumigator, lockers, bathing facilities, a laundry and a domestic science room, the last for instruction in the proper care and feeding of children as well as in the essentials of sanitary and decent housekeeping, supplementing the work in the cooking class, with which the nursery co-operates, established by the Associated Clubs of Domestic Science in Small Park No. 2. These activities will extend the service of friendly housekeeping undertaken by the nursery several years ago. The gratifying results of this branch of the work have been due largely to two housekeeping funds—one of twenty-five dollars and one of ten, privately subscribed and contributed monthly, which have made it possible for the Home Improvement Committee of the board to clean up many a slovenly home and to start out many struggling mothers with a brighter horizon and a new idea of cleanliness.

The laundry will be open to the neighborhood, and instruction in washing, ironing and even scrubbing will be afforded. It is a well known fact that the earning capacity of some poor women is practically nothing because of their lack of skill in these branches of work, often the only means open to them of gaining a livelihood.

On the first floor will be a dining room, kitchen, doctor's office and an assembly room. The assembly room is to be equipped with sewing machines, and assistance in making and remodelling clothing will be offered. If the present plan is carried out, provision will be made to mend and patch garments contributed in an imperfect condition to the affiliated charity organizations.

The second floor has been uniquely designed to consist of a series of indoor porches. There are to be three dormitories, a playroom and quarters for the matron and her assistant.

The roof will be flat so that in time a solarium may be built. It may be adapted to any roof garden activity, but no definite plans for its use have as yet been formulated.

Of great advantage to the new nursery will be its location opposite Small Park No. 2. The older brother and sister entrusted to the care of the nursery are to be allowed the freedom of the park after school hours, and for smaller children there are wading pool, sand pile, swings and other paraphernalia. Through the past few summers a generous friend has provided a bus twice a week which has annexed Lincoln Park to the life of the crèche. This service has seemed invaluable, not only because it has transported the children and often the mothers from oppressive heat into a pure atmosphere penetrated by the lake breeze, but be-

cause these wonderful trips have revealed to the children of the slums an outlook beyond the squalor of the tenement. A nursery cannot allow its responsibility to end when it has provided shelter, for upon it the child is dependent for whatever of beauty is brought into its life. Park No. 2, the one bit of refreshing landscape in the vicinity, will be a continual source of helpfulness in this direction.

But has the responsibility of the nursery ended when it has given of its best to the child? Shall it close its doors contentedly each evening when the last of its babies, divested of the clean clothing put on after the morning bath, has been sent back in its rags to the stifling tenement cot? Several days or week may elapse before it is again brought in and then the set-back in health is disheartening. The home may be the natural place for the child even though it be better brought up and better cared for at the nursery; but who will wish without inquiry and without further effort to condemn it to the hopeless disorganization, the sordidness and ignorance of the typical slum home? The nursery's responsibility for the child does not end in the nursery. It holds its great opportunity in its relation to the mother and through the mother, to the home. It must be a real force in the education of capable mothers and in the organization of fit homes. The mother must be influenced to occupy her leisure to the best advantage of her children. She must be taught to make her habitation a real home, a place for which her children have a real home attachment. The new nursery will strive to be a factor in the home life of the community of which it is a part. It looks longingly to that utopian day when no mother need work, when every mother within its radius of activity will be able to make a happy, safe home for her children.

THE HOUSING AWAKENING[1]

III.

THE AWAKENING OF A STATE—INDIANA

ALBION FELLOWS BACON

When we wanted to awaken Indiana to her need for a housing law we had to ring and call and hammer. We cried, "Wake up, Indiana,—your system is full of poison, and it's time to take a dose of medicine." And the sleepy state half awoke, just enough to take the dose the Legislature gave it, but not awake in every extremity. Then it turned over again, and dreamed all sorts of dreams, and was very restless. But the medicine is taking hold of the poison. In a nutshell the method used to awaken our state was this—we learned all we could of the conditions, and drummed them into the ears of the public.

To get the flavor of our situation, you will have to know something of our conditions. See if you do not say, "Why, that sounds as if it might be in my own town." I am so convinced that our Indiana problem is, in the main, the problem of all states in the Union, with variations, of course, that I want you to tell me if our conditions are not typical.

Of course, our little unpretentious slums cannot compete with those of New York and Chicago and Pittsburgh, where the housing problem is so overwhelming that it has to be handled by machinery—rakes and steam shovels. Some of our cities need rakes, too, but in some we have to go at the slums with a microscope and tweezers. We realize that our cancer spots are none the less deadly because they are small. Yet that has been the hardest thing to teach the public, that slums are not a matter of size.

To begin with, the public had to be taught that what they had always

[1] The preceding articles in this series are The Housing Awakening, by Lawrence Veiller, in THE SURVEY for November 19. Price, 10 cents, and the Socialist and Slums—Milwaukee, by Carl D. Thompson, in THE SURVEY for December 3. Price, 25 cents.

thought were just poor folk and old houses were really slums. It sounded rather metropolitan—maybe that was why the idea took so well in the small towns. Another new thought was the responsibility of the landlord. We had not learned that the rent collected from our old death traps was really blood money.

The reason why our slum problem had not come to the front before was very likely because the slums themselves were in the rear. They were "out of sight, out of mind." You had to go down the alleys and the back streets to find them. That is why some of our good people did not believe we had any. They were so respectable, and went only on our nice streets, and the slums did not come their way. One woman listened to my tale of the poor and said, "Well, well! I never dreamed anyone lived like that in Evansville. But then I was never thrown among that kind of people."

ALBION FELLOWS BACON.

Being a friendly visitor and the head of the Flower Mission, I had to poke around all kinds of places to find our poor. Drawn by the lure of wretchedness into the haunts of poverty, it was easy to learn where it hid away. The amazing thing was that all the places I found had existed so long without everyone knowing of them. Still, some of the worst places have a respectable front, and one never dreams of the horrors inside without going in to see. Doubtless that is true in all the towns in which people live.

Our campaign grew out of this Flower Mission work. I remember for the first time making a round of our tenements. The houses were shabby old rattletraps, dark and damp, with sodden yards full of ash piles and rubbish. The babies, the mothers, the walls, were all the same hopeless gray.

There did not seem to be any excuse for it, and I asked our secretary: "Why do not the landlords cut some windows in those dark rooms? Why do they not mend those dangerous stairways and those leaky roofs? Why do they not drain the yards, and put in hydrants?" And the secretary answered wearily: "They do not have to. The houses bring good rent anyhow, and there is no law to require it."

No law! The poor had no legal right to air or sunlight or water! They could be charged rent for the house that murdered them! That was the beginning of our campaign—the cause of the war.

It always seemed strange to me that other friendly visitors should dwell on the persistent filthiness of the poor—as if, forsooth, they could be washed without water or dry without drains. None of our tenements had city water. Some-

SOME OF EVANSVILLE'S BAD HOUSING CONDITIONS.

times one cistern had to supply ten or more families, and then they had to be "sparin' of the water," one woman said, as she hung up her line of gray, half clean clothes. In one of our largest tenements, guiltless of drains, one of the top floor tenants eloquently poured her suds over the railing into the hall below.

It is the custom in the "Cotton Mill Block," also unprovided for waste, for the tenants to stand in the doors and unblushingly project dishwater, suds and garbage into the common yard space. Under the August sun the odor is sickening, yet the barefooted babies play over the scum. Of course they have chills there, and typhoid, as they do in many tenements where the seep water runs back into the open cisterns.

Tuberculosis is frightfully prevalent among our poor. In the tenements there are always sick cases; no wonder, with the horrible cesspools under the windows. People hive over warehouses and herd in stables, unsanitary and unclean, like the animals. Yet, with all of these conditions, our people did not know about it, except just a few. Our charity committees did not go to the homes of the poor—do your committees?—they sent the charities secretary, as most towns do.

What frightened me was that Jacob Riis said that fifty years ago the slums of New York resembled those of our larger western cities today. Does not that frighten you western people? Fifty years! What would our tenements be in that time? Would they be full of tortured bits of humanity, as those of New York are now? It got so that a procession of white-faced, wailing babies began to appear in the dead of night, and wave their tiny arms, and cry, "Sleep no more till we are cared for." When you get to "seein' things at night," you are ready for work.

Reports had been coming for some time from our other cities, showing conditions similar to ours. Careful inquiry bore out my conviction that every city, town and village in the state had a growing slum or a slum nucleus. There was good reason to believe that at least a preventive state housing law was needed.

All the charities secretaries over the state were strongly in favor of a housing law. They felt the need of it. Two of our most experienced and wisest leaders, Miss Rein of South Bend and Mr. Grout of Indianapolis who has done such splendid things in his city for better housing, warmly endorsed it and helped plan for it. Alexander Johnson and Dr. Hurty of our state Board of Health, always on the frontier line of reform, promised to help. Then, with Providence and the press on our side, what could not be accomplished?

On the other side, men of experience declared it would be impossible to pass a housing law at the first attempt, maybe not for four or six years. The virgin soil of the whole state would have to be broken up—and that makes hard ploughing—before the seed of the new thought could be planted. There was no organization ready to manage it, no money to pay for investigations or to hire secretaries or lawyers. The cause had few friends and there was bound to be opposition by landlords and builders. It looked pretty hopeless, but that did not make a bit of difference. The time had come to obtain a housing law, and when a thing ought to be done, and has to be done, it can be done.

There were two men whose encouragement outweighed all the millstones of the conservatives. They were Lawrence Veiller and Jacob Riis. No one will ever know how much help and comfort their counsel was all through the campaign. They said, "Go ahead, and get your state law." That settled it.

After that, a great hand seemed to be directing every movement. Somehow, the plans unfolded, the hearts of men were opened up to good influences, the path was made straight. Otherwise the law could not have been won in a year. It was a miracle, nothing less.

After talking the matter over with Mr. Grout, the plan of the campaign decided on was this:

1. To secure as full reports as possible of existing housing conditions all over the state.
2. To draft a housing bill to cure our old tenements, and prevent unsanitary dwellings from being erected. In other words, to check the incipient slums.

No congestion here.

Fourteen people in a two-room flat.

WHERE EXTREMES MEET—SOUTH BEND.

3. To enlist as many organizations and individuals as possible.

4. To secure the active help of all charity organizations in the state in educating the public.

5. To have photographs made of typical unsanitary dwellings in each city, mounted as posters, displayed there, and afterwards before the Legislature.

6. To have illustrated sermons and lectures all over the state.

7. To syndicate several of the largest newspapers in the state, and run a series of articles on "bad housing," local and general.

8. To present the subject to the state conference of charities.

9. To send personal letters, and literature on the subject, to each member of our Legislature.

10. To engage some prominent organization to superintend the passage of the bill.

Was not that last confiding?

Now, that is a very simple plan; but it did not fit in very well with housekeeping. Making laws and concocting soups and salads are widely different fields of action, and it took months for one pair of hands to write all those letters, being all hyphenated with domestic dashes.

First, there were the letters to all the secretaries of the charity organizations in the state, asking about conditions in their town and sending a questionnaire. Of course that is not the scientific way to investigate, but you cannot employ a corps of trained statisticians without money. While the pot was boiling, I went personally to some of the little towns that had no charity organization, to see if each had a young slum coming on. E. T. Hartman, who had initiated me into the principles of housing reform and given me invaluable instruction, had predicted that I would find a slum nucleus in every village. After wading around on foot, through dust and sand and cockle burrs, under the August sun, some of the rarest specimens of slums in our state were discovered. Typical houses, they were, that would disgrace a crowded city.

Then the answers to the questionnaire came in and settled all doubts of the need of a housing law. The answers were amazing. In Indianapolis a scientific canvass of one district had been made by the Charity Organization Society, and the Commercial Club. It showed that hundreds of families lived in crowded, dark rooms, without drainage, sewerage or water, light or air.

In the smaller towns the housing of the poor was uniformly bad. The startling revelation was made that in all our cities new houses were being built daily without windows, even the costliest flats. Of course, every report gave some specific cases in detail, so we had something accurate, surely enough.

If a ship comes into port with just a single case of cholera on board, that is enough to hold the vessel in quarantine. This may be way off the track, but it seems to me that if just one family is allowed to live in a town in squalid disregard of decency and health, there is something wrong with us if we pay no attention to it.

The next difficulty was to get a housing law that would fit our conditions. If

Mr. Veiller's Model Housing Code or his splended book on Housing Reform, had been published, it would have saved so much labor and mental agony. There was nothing left to do but compile the best laws to be found. But the laws made for the big cities would not fit our state. It was like making over grandpa's coat for little Johnnie to trim them down to our needs. Just to cut off the tails was not enough; they had to be taken up in the shoulders, and fitted all over. At last our bill was finished, and one of our best lawyers, J. E. Igleheart, went over it and tightened all the screws.

It was very trying, in drafting the law, to have to keep in mind the poor on one side, the landlords on the other, and the Legislature in perspective. How blithely could we have set about writing a law that would have made things as they really ought to be, if we could have planned for something more than mere decency—just space and water and sewerage! What joy it would have been to decree generous garden plots and noble outlooks, instead of meting out miserly air spaces; what pleasure to bequeath bath tubs with a stroke of the pen to future generations; to plan the City of Our Visions, instead of a City of Compromises!

The next thing was the publicity part. The presidential campaign was on and that engrossed the newspapers, but our plan was to serve up slums to the public, local and general, hot and cold, by articles, editorials, stories, cartoons, in every possible way.

Then there were letters to clubs and individuals, men and women of influence, ministers, teachers, politicians, candidates for office, to get their pledges. Each letter had to go over the lacerating story, to explain the new thought and the old need. Each one had to make a different appeal. For instance, a letter to a business man took up the commercial aspect—showed how bad housing was bad business. Letters to ministers dwelt on the moral and ethical phases. Letters to women's clubs dealt with the impossibility of making homes in the miserable tenements, with the environment of the growing child, the danger to their own children, etc. The purpose of these letters was to arouse public sentiment, and to get the persons addressed to bring pressure to bear upon their members of the Legislature.

Then came the letters to the 150 members of the Legislature. With each one went a copy of *Charities and The Commons*,[1] in which were an article and a strong editorial on the Indiana Housing Problem. The support of this magazine was a big factor in the fight, and the friendly help of the staff is something for which we must always be grateful.

Then the bill was presented to the State Charities Conference, and the Commercial Club of Indianapolis. A member of this club, Linton A. Cox, was in the Senate. Without his wise counsel and hard work the bill must have failed. After it passed he defended it in the lower court, and wrote the brief for the Supreme Court, all without pay; so you know he belongs to the tribe of Abou Ben Adhem, who "loved his fellow men."

Now the fight was narrowed down to the Legislature and every gun was trained on it. Our posters were taken to the State House and hung on wires along the corridor, as one hangs out a washing. It was a great privilege to address the joint committees to which the bill was referred, and still greater to address both houses of the Legislature, as most of the 150 men had to be won over to housing reform. Now, let me tell you that the "plain, unvarnished tale" of the poor was what counted—not statistics, not eloquence, not logic—and it always does count.

I used to think that line in Gray's Elegy was so fine, "The applause of listening senates to command." Maybe in Gray's time it was not a joke to talk about "listening senates." But they did listen kindly to the story of the poor, and what bad housing meant to the poor, bad health, bad morals; and what it meant to the state—the cost of crime and disease and dependence, and the loss of efficiency of the working man. What took hold of the legislators, I think, was the horror of it, "the pity of it." That showed the chivalry in our men. It was like watch-

[1] *Charities and The Commons*, December 5, 1908.

A TERRE HAUTE SLUM—"SAND-BURR HOLLOW".

ing a tournament of knights to sit back and see the friends of the bill, in both houses, fighting for it. The landlords came in force, and it was a bitter fight. The beautiful thing was that the opposition did almost all the lobbying.

After a hard battle the bill passed, mangled and torn, but very much alive. It was cut down to only two cities, but we'll get all the others yet. It is a satisfaction, anyhow, to know that the slums of all the other cities have been ventilated, for once. Of course, the law was promptly contested. It is now in the hands of the supreme judges. Heaven send they may have mercy on the poor!

There would be little use for this recital if our case were isolated. I am convinced that if any of the readers of THE SURVEY were to take up a housing campaign in their state they would find the same need of reform, the same opposition. Their stronghold also would be public opinion. As soon as people know the truth about the slums, there will be no more slums.

There are some things the public will have to be taught. They must be taught that "the slum is the enemy of the home"; that it is not safe to let children grow up in filth and degradation; that the civic—the social—body is all one, and that one festering spot means blood poisoning to the whole body. Sooner or later the housing problem will demand the attention of every state in the union. If you wait till it forces legislation it will be too late. What is needed is to "head off the slums," as Jacob Riis says, now, while land is so cheap and so plentiful.

If we could only lift up our eyes and see the vast, unpeopled plains of our great country, and then have a vision of the crowded towns. There is so much room for everyone in our wide states, with plenty of sunlight in the fields, plenty of air on the hill tops. Yet men, in their blindness, go on building tiny boxes—coops, traps, dens—and call them houses. And they squeeze them together in bunches, and call them towns. And there sad-faced men and women stifle and die for lack of air. Sickly children droop in the close rooms or tumble about over the cinders; children that never played in the grass or daisies. And the voices of all these cry to you: "Give us sunlight and air! Give us room to breathe in and grow! Give us our birthright!"

SLUMS IN BERLIN

JOHN IHLDER
FIELD SECRETARY NATIONAL HOUSING ASSOCIATION

That the Germans are dealing courageously and to a considerable extent successfully with the great social problems is undisputed; but an impression has gone abroad in America that their success has been greater than facts seem to warrant. Notably is this true in the matter of housing, which by many students is considered the fundamental social problem. Germany has built, particularly in Berlin, and is still building, great "model" tenements with interior courts so large that they may be divided into children's playgrounds and gardens. While Americans and some Englishmen are hailing these barracks as triumphs, the Germans themselves are beginning to discover disadvantages and to turn their attention to securing for the worker and his family the benefits of the small house, or cottage, which has been in England and America (except for New York) the home of the people.

But it is not alone from evils inherent in tenements that the Germans suffer. Despite the proclamations issued on this side of the Atlantic that German cities have no slums, German cities apparently do have slums, or slum conditions, such as lack of light and air, overcrowding and utterly inadequate toilet facilities.

A committee of the Berlin Sick Insurance Fund for "merchants, tradesmen and pharmacists" publishes reports which give a distressing picture of the housing of what is far from being the poorest or worst-paid class of Berlin's population. These reports are based on investigations of the conditions under which beneficiaries of the fund are living. Among the beneficiaries are, in the words of the report, "sons and daughters of parents of the better class, who even in time of sickness are above want, as well as a considerable number of such as, by education and position, are used to better conditions of housing, and therefore spend on their housing more than is the case generally."

As its minimum standard the sick insurance fund committee takes a habitation or apartment having a floor area of 108 square feet, a height of eight feet three inches and a net cubic capacity of 540 cubic feet. Compare with this the New York requirement, in force since 1901, that in every new tenement house each apartment shall have at least one room containing not less than 120 square feet of floor area and each other room shall contain at least seventy square feet. Each room shall be at least nine feet high from the finished floor to the finished ceiling, except that an attic need be nine feet high in but one-half of its area.

The committee found that no fewer than 680 men—equal to 8.3 per cent of the total number of male patients visited, and 600 women—equal to 8.2 per cent of the total number of female patients visited—lived in rooms which were below the specified minimum of floor space; in fact, 166 persons were found living in rooms which did not measure even one-half of the floor area required. As regards the height of the rooms, 2,052 men (25.2 per cent) and 1,664 women (22.9 per cent) inhabited rooms which did not reach the minimum height. And lastly, 4,166 men (51.3 per cent) and 3,383 women (46.5 per cent) were deprived of the necessary minimum of cubic capacity of air; 2,591 persons did not have even one-half, and 133 had to be satisfied with less than one-quarter of the cubic air-space which is indispensable for a living human organism—and these were all sick men and women, some with tuberculosis!

The committee also reports that 372 men (more than 4 per cent) and 232 women (about 3 per cent) live in cellar dwellings. The bulk of the dwellings—over 80 per cent in the case of front tenements and nearly 98 per cent in the case of back tenements—consist of but two rooms and a kitchen, or less, while nearly 30 per cent in one case and over 50 per cent in the other were habitations consisting of but one room and a kitchen.

Moreover, the committee found that its patients were in the majority of cases sharing these small rooms with other persons—four, five, six and even more. Of the male patients living as lodgers only 43 per cent had a room to themselves. Of the total number of male patients 39 per cent shared the room with another person, 12 per cent shared it with two, and 3 per cent shared it with four. The conditions of those living with their families was much worse, no fewer than 30 per cent living with three persons and more. To make the picture a little more vivid, the committee reports that 115 persons of both sexes lived in rooms which had no window, 443 lived in damp rooms, and 1,452 had to share their conveniences with more than fifteen persons in each case.

It would be possible to match these conditions in New York and perhaps in other American cities, which are ignorantly congratulating themselves on having no housing problem. But in New York, where the Tenement House Department has been in operation for eight years, no new tenements erected in that time (and such tenements now house more than a million and a quarter persons) would call for criticism on the part of the Berlin investigating committee, while even the old buildings are being brought slowly up to a standard where they will cease to be downright breeding places of disease.

In other American cities, as shown by the series of articles now being published in THE SURVEY, the importance of good housing has begun to be understood and definite steps are being taken toward improvement. Germany has much to teach, but America should study the lessons she presents with discrimination, for America, too, has made considerable progress.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

A VALUABLE BULLETIN

One of the best bulletins which come to this department—interest and value being considered—is that issued each week by the City Club of Philadelphia. This club aims "to gather into membership men of all parties, occupations and creeds from every geographical section of the city, who have in common a sincere interest in the betterment of municipal conditions in Philadelphia." It holds a weekly luncheon, at which an important address is made, which is followed by discussion. The bulletin has been printing this material. One group of papers has discussed in a very informing way what Philadelphia is doing in various respects for her citizens. Other typical subjects have been Scientific Appraisal of Real Estate as a Basis for Taxation, by Frederic C. Howe, and The Immigrant and Democracy in American Cities, by Grace Abbott.

THE BUTTERFLY

The butterfly seems a curious topic for a civic improvement department. One cannot improve butterflies; but once upon a time this testimony was borne: "The butterfly came and hovered over his head and re-inspired him." Accordingly, with this motto a Butterfly Association has been formed which takes as its purpose "the betterment of humanity irrespective of color, creed or race." It publishes a little monthly magazine of no more than leaflet size, but attractively printed and full of good quotations and short, thoughtful articles. One of the best in a recent number discussed Social Centers and Civic Progress. It began with these words, which are well calculated to set one thinking: "Out of the forest primeval came two crossroads, and the first social center was established. The social center is not a product of the past century, but has always existed, changing its form and function with advancing civilization."

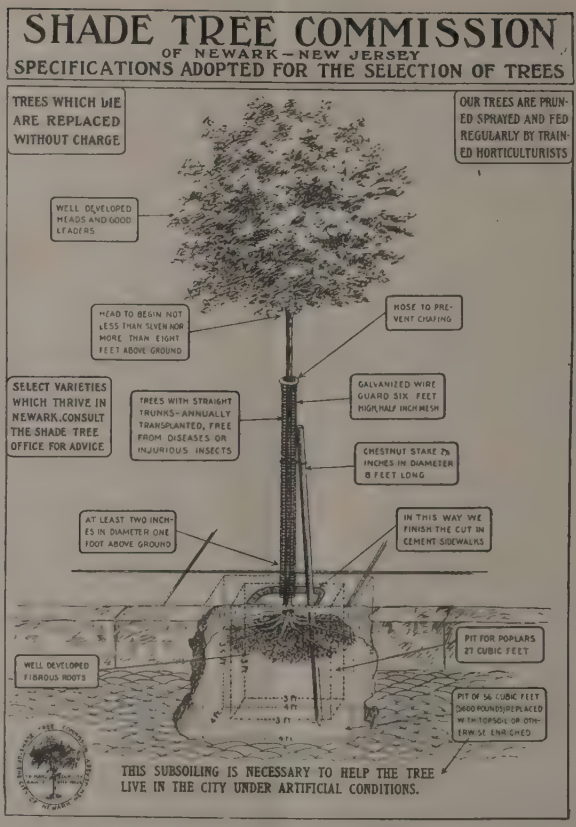
PLAYGROUND OCCASIONS

The latest annual report of the Children's Playground Association of Baltimore is a handsomely printed and illustrated pamphlet. Of the reports which it contains by various officials and committees, perhaps the most interesting, because the most novel, is that by Mary B. Steuart, supervisor of playgrounds. Miss Steuart describes "Occasions." These to the number of thirty-six were given during the summer in various parts of the city, and were, she says, of the greatest value in bringing together in friendly relation children, parents, neighbors and directors. Each entertainment was a neighborhood affair. The children of the playgrounds were the actors, the parents and friends the spectators. There was a great variety. Some of the "occasions" were Mother Goose parties. Others were devoted to illus-

trated songs. Yet others to phantom dances, folk dances, etc. As Miss Steuart says, the possibilities of these local "occasions" are alluring. There is much in the various sections of a city, especially among the foreign people, which may be studied, and here made use of, to preserve traditions and folk lore, and to keep the younger generation in sympathy with the past.

SHADE TREE PROTECTORS

This department has had occasion several times to refer to the activities of the very wide-awake Shade Tree Commission of Newark N. J. The commission has just done another interesting thing. It has organized the children in public schools of the city as shade tree protectors. The constitution and by-laws drawn up for the organization state that the objects of the league are "to inspire its members with civic patriotism, to inculcate in them a zeal for their city's beauty, to enlist them as volunteer aids to the Shade Tree Commission in its care of the street trees and parks, to propagate knowledge concerning laws and ordinances enacted and ordained to protect trees, to promote the setting out of new street trees and to urge young and old to maintain, protect and cherish existing trees."


SHADE TREE COMMISSION
OF NEWARK—NEW JERSEY
SPECIFICATIONS ADOPTED FOR THE SELECTION OF TREES
TREES WHICH DIE ARE REPLACED WITHOUT CHARGE
OUR TREES ARE PRUNED SPRAYED AND FED REGULARLY BY TRAINED HORTICULTURISTS
WELL DEVELOPED HEADS AND GOOD LEADERS
HEAD TO BEGIN NOT LESS THAN SEVEN NOR MORE THAN EIGHT FEET ABOVE GROUND
HOSE TO PREVENT CHAFING
SELECT VARIETIES WHICH THRIVE IN NEWARK. CONSULT THE SHADE TREE OFFICE FOR ADVICE
TREES WITH STRAIGHT TRUNKS ANNUALLY TRANSPLANTED, FREE FROM DISEASES OR INJURIOUS INSECTS
GALVANIZED WIRE GUARD SIX FEET HIGH, HALF INCH MESH
CHESTNUT STAKE 2½ INCHES IN DIAMETER 8 FEET LONG
AT LEAST TWO INCHES IN DIAMETER ONE FOOT ABOVE GROUND
IN THIS WAY WE FINISH THE CUT IN CEMENT SIDEWALKS
PIT FOR POPLARS 27 CUBIC FEET
WELL DEVELOPED FIBROUS ROOTS
PIT OF 56 CUBIC FEET 3600 POUNDS REPLACED WITH TOPSOIL OR OTHERWISE ENRICHED
THIS SUBSOILING IS NECESSARY TO HELP THE TREE LIVE IN THE CITY UNDER ARTIFICIAL CONDITIONS.

HOW NEWARK'S CIVIC PATRIOTISM GROWS.

Membership is open to pupils above a certain grade. Badges will be presented by the Shade Tree Commission to the officers of the league, and to such members as perform some service in the care or protection of the trees in their respective districts. It is optional with the league of each school whether or not dues shall be levied. The offices shall be equally divided between boys and girls. Meetings are to be held bi-weekly in summer and on the fourth Thursday of each month during the school year. Sergeants-at-arms shall be stationed at the entrance of the meeting room, "to prevent strangers from entering and members from leaving without permission, and shall aid the president in preserving order." The school district in which a league is established shall be divided into as many sections as the extent of the district and the number of trees therein may require. Each section shall be in charge of a foreman. Reports are to be made to the foreman, and these reports read at the meetings and subsequently sent to the Shade Tree Commission. There are to be occasional public meetings. The commission has issued, further, two interesting leaflets of instructions for the juvenile shade tree protectors.

A WOMAN AS MAYOR

The only person on whom the city of Oldham in England has ever conferred its freedom, is a woman. The first woman to be elected town councillor in Lancashire is the same person. She is Mrs. Charles E. Lees, and now she has been elected mayor of Oldham. In electing her, Oldham is the first of the great towns in England to place a woman at the head of its municipal affairs. The reason of these honors is set forth in the following statements taken from a recent London paper: "All ranks of townspeople are united in feeling that the honor is thoroughly deserved, for Mrs. Lees has for many years shown a high public spirit and noble devotion to duty. Her benefactions have been numerous, and so judiciously placed as to affect the well-being of every section of the community. Mrs. Lees has taken a leading part in the educational work of Oldham, and was instrumental in forming the Beautiful Oldham Society, which has already relieved the somber appearance of the town. In the opening of playgrounds she has played a useful part, and she gave eleven acres of land to the Hope Sunday-school, and another large estate as a pleasure resort. It is her ambition to see a playground in every congested area. As president of the National Union of Women Workers, Mrs. Lees has long pressed the claims of her sex, and is satisfied that there is plenty

of scope for women in housing and sanitation matters."

A STUDY OUTLINE

E. G. Routzahn, an indefatigable field secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, has prepared a study outline on civics for use by Y. M. C. A.'s and other associations. Among the topics which he includes, the following are particularly suggestive:

Social and civic census: Need of real facts, not "supposed" facts. Listing and studying organizations and institutions of various kinds. The Know Your City Movement.

City plan: Its relation to health, economics and beauty. A "prophecy of practicable possibilities."

Expert knowledge: Need of checking all methods and plans by the experience of leaders. Sources of information: The use of "national" organizations or headquarters and of the organs of social movements, such as THE SURVEY.

Literature: Periodicals, books, and other printed sources of information for study and propaganda. How to get people to read.

The press as a chief educational agency: Making it easy for editors to co-operate.

Speakers, topics and audiences.

Illustrative methods of propaganda: Exhibits, lantern slides, etc.

Committees *vs.* associations: Self-constituted "steering" groups. Co-operation between existing bodies.

Seeing big things and bringing them to pass by doing little things in a big way.

A SCHOOL TO BE PROUD OF

The town of Norwalk, Conn., has built a new high school of which it is justly proud. The building, lot and furnishings represent a value of considerably more than $100,000. Because the town has so much reason to be proud of this school, it secured a special act from the Connecticut Legislature permitting the appointment of a committee, known as the High School Committee, charged with the task of developing the school's highest usefulness. This committee, of which the Rev. Dr. Charles S. Macfarland is chairman, consists of five members, each of whom serves in turn as acting visitor for a period of two months at a time. The chairman serves as general visitor, and is in the school practically every week of the year. The committee holds monthly meetings, which are open to the public and to which all persons having recommendations to make are invited. There are also some special meetings. The committee believes that the pupils of the school ought to become interested in the civic life of the community. To this end, not only is there appropriate study, but a movement is reported to interest the pupils in the care of the building and the grounds about it.

The deep interest of the citizens of the town in this fine new school is indicated by the generous gifts made to it. About half of the school library, which now contains six hundred volumes, was received in gifts. The list of casts, busts, statuary, portraits, other pictures and miscellaneous objects fills five closely printed pages. Probably no other school building in Connecticut is more attractive in its interior decorations. It only remains to be said that the committee has issued an illustrated and attractively printed report describing the school and its own activities. The whole matter seems to be one worth regarding as a notable civic achievement.

THE IMPROVEMENT SOCIETY'S SCOPE

Elkton, Md., is a small town which has lately been through the now happily familiar experience of a civic awakening. An improvement association has been formed, and a committee appointed to consider the scope and plan of the association's activities. This committee has brought in a report which has been printed in leaflet form.

The report is of interest for two reasons: first, the subject which it considers is being considered in a great many other towns, small and large; second, the treatment is of an unusually high character, as shown by the following extracts which deserve to be memorized by civic improvement workers:

"Town improvement associations are very numerous in the United States, especially in the eastern, middle and western portions of the country. They are usually promoted to give expression to the restless and unsatisfied longings of a local patriotism for improved conditions of living, for a higher order of citizenship, the cultivation of civic righteousness and the general uplift of the community. . . . Good citizenship is not made by law but by respect for the law; and the growth of public intelligence, through public discussion of a community's burdens and needs, is the surest preparation for the evolution of such laws as will relieve its burdens, supply its needs, and secure its respect. It is in this manner that these associations become auxiliary to legitimate authority. . . . A good citizen must have a sane mind in a sound body; he should delight in his surroundings; he should not incommode or oppress his neighbor; he should take pride in his own prosperity and rejoice in that of others and of the town."

Five committees are suggested: on general appearance of the town, on sanitation, on schools, libraries, holidays and amusements, on child-life and playgrounds and on industries. In addition, there is to be a general executive committee. An obvious criticism is that there is no committee on comprehensive town planning, but that is a matter which will perhaps be taken up by the committee which has to do with the general apppearance of the town.

FIGHTING THE BILLBOARD

The vigilant Outdoor Art League of San José recently devoted a whole page of one

of the local papers to a discussion of the billboard evil and how to fight it. The page contained several illustrations, which in their way were as telling as the articles, though the leading feature of the page was an extremely well written paper by Mrs. Charles Cox, on billboard evil and how to fight it. The page contained a large number of short articles telling what other cities are doing to abolish the billboard. And all these items, with the local pictures, made a very forcible presentation of the case.

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN B. ANDREWS, Contributing Editor
SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

FOURTH ANNUAL MEETING

At the fourth annual meeting of the American Association for Labor Legislation, in St. Louis, December 28-29, the principal discussions will be focused upon this organization's "immediate legislative program": (1) Prohibition of Poisonous Phosphorus in the Manufacture of Matches; (2) Investigation of Industrial Diseases; (3) Reporting of Industrial Accidents and Diseases; (4) Workmen's Compensation for Industrial Injuries; (5) Enforcement of Labor Laws.

FACTORY INSPECTION

Practically every industrial state is endeavoring this year to secure a more efficient system of factory inspection and better enforcement of the labor laws. Inspectors are selected under civil service laws only in Massachusetts, New York and Wisconsin. Massachusetts, long the leader in labor legislation, now has a state commission interested in bringing greater unity and efficiency out of a system which divides responsibilities and creates unfortunate friction between the district police and the Board of Health. New York, the only other state having medical inspection with comparatively large appropriations, is puzzled to find support for a sufficient number of inspectors to cover even hastily the growing field. Wisconsin, with one of the four best inspection departments in the Union, is seriously considering fundamental changes in the interest of still greater efficiency and economy. Illinois, with re-awakening interest, has problems of interpretation growing out of her new labor code. New Jersey, still shuddering over the Newark factory fire, is eager to make radical changes. Missouri, rapidly developing industrially, finds she is the only one of the thirty-six states having factory inspection laws which limit supervision to cities above a certain size (10,000), and except Colorado, Missouri is the only state which relies for the support of its department upon fees paid by employers. Pennsylvania and Michigan show encouraging signs of discontent, and a conviction is spreading everywhere that the administration of the law is the supreme test.

STATE BRANCHES

The New York branch of the Association for Labor Legislation held its annual meeting and banquet November 10. The Illinois branch met in Chicago November 26 and the Minnesota branch, in Minneapolis, December 8. These local organizations reported gratifying advances during the year, re-elected officers, and adopted definite plans for vigorous campaigns in support of the legislative program of the national association.

PHOSPHORUS PROHIBITION

"What about that girl working in that match factory?" asked C. Croydon Marks of the House of Commons, while speaking recently before an audience of business and professional men at the Chicago City Club. "She works in a match factory and takes the risk. Matches cannot be made with poisonous phosphorus without that risk." "Cannot you make matches without phosphorus? Yes, but it costs a little more. Well, we have settled that problem in England." England, in common with the leading industrial countries of the world, has prohibited the use of poisonous phosphorus in her match industry. The United States, at the present session of Congress, will have an opportunity to give similar protection to her work-people. A bill to place an internal revenue tax upon matches made with the poison is now before the committee on ways and means.

MISSOURI COMMISSION

A State Commission on Employers' Liability, recently appointed by Governor Hadley of Missouri, held its first session December 2. It is composed of twenty-eight members, who include the attorney general, the superintendent of insurance, the labor commissioner, and one woman—Sadie Spraggon of Kansas City.

STATE MUSEUMS OF SAFETY

One of the most popular exhibits at the recent Minnesota State Fair was a collection of devices for the prevention of industrial accidents and diseases. Dangerous machines, each with its own appropriate guard, excited the keen interest of employers. Workmen said: "We will tell our boss about these things." State Labor Commissioner McEwen appreciates the suggestive value of permanent exhibits similar to the safety museums founded by the German government, and through his immediate efforts the Minnesota museum has been permanently installed at the capitol.

A travelling exhibit will be sent over the state to illustrate lectures on accident prevention. Wisconsin has made a similar beginning in a modest way, and the coming year will no doubt see many more such exhibits properly founded by various states.

SPECIAL SESSIONS

Since August 1 special sessions of state legislatures have been convened in Colorado, Texas, Oklahoma and Louisiana. Vermont's regular session opened October 10.

INTERNATIONAL LEGISLATION

Full reports of the sixth international congress of the Association for Labor Legislation, which met in September at Lugano, Switzerland, will soon be printed. Twenty countries were represented by 112 delegates, six from the United States. Reports were received from several scientific commissions, and after days of careful discussion resolutions were adopted with reference to the night work and ten-hour maximum day of women and young persons, the prohibition of poisonous phosphorus in the production of matches, the enforcement of labor laws, the regulation of shifts in continuous processes and hours of work in dangerous trades, the establishment of wages boards for home workers, the study and elimination of industrial poisons, principles for the regulation of work in compressed air, the prevention of accidents, and the encouragement of just plans for workmen's insurance. The next international congress will meet in the autumn of 1912 in Zurich.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

WORKINGMEN'S INSURANCE IN EUROPE. By Lee K. Frankel and Miles M. Dawson, with the co-operation of Louis I. Dublin. Russell Sage Foundation publication. New York, 1910. Pp. 450. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.70.

This is the most important contribution that has yet been made to the literature available in English on the subject of workingmen's insurance in Europe.

In four parts the authors give the essential facts in regard to insurance against industrial accidents, sickness and death, invalidity and old age, and unemployment, in Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, France, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, and Austria. Accompanying the descriptive material is a running commentary which serves to interpret and explain what would otherwise be both technical and uninteresting to the average reader A final section emphasizes the tendency in all these countries for complete insurance systems to be worked out. This is forcibly illustrated by the reform proposals now under consideration in Germany and Austria, which are fully explained.

As a whole the book is both a supplement and a corrective to two other important books that have recently appeared in this field: Frank W. Lewis's State Insurance[1] and Charles R. Henderson's Industrial Insurance in the United States[2]. It supplements them by supplying the facts in regard to European experience, and it corrects some of the conclusions of these writers by showing that this experience disproves some of their assumptions as to the tendencies of certain forms of social insurance.

[1]State Insurance. By Frank W. Lewis. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston. 1909. Pp. 233. Price, $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.36.

[2]Industrial Insurance in the United States. By Charles R. Henderson. University of Chicago Press. 1909. Pp. 448. Price $2; by mail of THE SURVEY, $2.19.

WAGE-EARNING WOMEN. By Annie Marion MacLean. The Macmillan Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 202. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

A pleasantly-written description of groups of working women in a number of different places is the outcome of the ambitious "investigation" conducted by the sociological investigation committee of the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association. But if this was the goal, why an "investigation", involving altogether a staff of forty, including twenty-nine field investigators with a variety of academic degrees, and field work amounting in all to "the equivalent of four full years' time of one worker"? A few weeks' observation by some one already possessed of a background would have done quite as well, and would have avoided the necessity for hampering the narrative with "statistics", which it is difficult to take seriously, both because of the schedules which were used in collecting them (given in full in an appendix) and because they seem to be sprinkled in from a sense of duty, not from any feeling on the part of the author that they have an organic relation to the matter in hand. Why, once more, did not the association utilize its resources by collecting information from the thousands of girls with whom it must, through its employment bureaus, clubs, and other activities, already have had relations? The chapter on Uplifting Forces seems to us curiously out of drawing and the Suggestions for Improvement vaguely inadequate.

As an indication, however, of growing interest in the welfare of working women and girls, and of the earnest purposes of the Y. W. C. A. to promote it, it is entitled to respect and commendation and to the hope that it will reach many readers who will be able to "skip" the statistics and, reading around them, to get hold of the sincere de-

sire that is behind the book, the desire "that the young girl in the shop and at the machine may have life and have it more abundantly."

WHERE SHALL SHE LIVE? By Mary Higgs and Edward E. Hayward. P. S. King and Son. London. 1910. Pp. 213. By mail of THE SURVEY, 40 cents in paper, 55 cents in cloth. Four weeks required to import.

Collaboration was resorted to in this book because it was considered "eminently desirable that the national need should be viewed not only from the emotional standpoint of a woman, but in the cold light of statistics." In order not to mix the two presumably antipodal points of view, Mr. Hayward first presents his "mass of available facts," while the "dangers and difficulties arising from this state of things" and the practical suggestions are left to Mrs. Higgs—the "lady tramp", as she is sometimes called, in allusion to her personal investigation of the casual wards. She, too, tries to write "calmly, almost coldly," until within eight pages of the end, where she breaks the restraint to plead for "a great League of Womanhood to Protect Womanhood."

Some consideration is given to the housing conditions of home workers, and of factory workers (who generally, as in America, live in their own homes), but the problems which take up the bulk of the book are those of clerks and "shop assistants" living away from home. The discussion of the "living-in system" for shop assistants, which is general in London and the larger provincial towns, is of special interest. The shortcomings of existing accommodations, whether purely commercial or partly philanthropic, are made quite clear, but no adequate program is set forth. A list of safe lodging-houses in the principal cities occupies but five pages in the appendix.

The book was prepared for the National Association for Women's Lodging Houses, formed in 1909.

A HISTORY OF CALIFORNIA LABOR LEGISLATION. University of California Publications in Economics, Vol. II. By Lucile Eaves. The University Press. Berkeley. 1910. Pp. 461. Price $4; by mail of THE SURVEY $4.26.

The plan inaugurated by the Carnegie Institution, to have the essentials of labor legislation in each state presented in separate monographs, which taken together would give the basis for an economic history of the labor movement in America, has already borne fruit in notable publications valuable for comparative study. The latest is this volume about California.

An introductory chapter on the San Francisco Labor Movement traces the history of trade unionism in San Francisco from 1850 to date and shows the peculiarities of race conflict, economic and social environment, and politics in a new and richly endowed state that have given rise to a peculiar class struggle. Chinese exclusion necesssarily receives much attention, in four chapters covering one-fifth of the entire monograph.[1] Hours of labor, payment of wages, employers' liability, woman and child labor, health and safety, Sunday laws, employment agencies, convict labor, labor bureaus, arbitration, union label, and judicial restraint of trade unions, are topics to each of which a chapter is devoted.

In summing up results Dr. Eaves properly regards the anti-Chinese and the anti-convict labor legislation as the most characteristic and successful achievements of organized efforts to protect a high standard of living among wage-earners. Californians have generally recognized the right of laborers to organize, and the ensuing legislative activities are regarded as experiments in democracy rather than revolutionary assertions of class supremacy.

THE CHILD LABOR POLICY OF NEW JERSEY. By Arthur Sargent Field, Ph. D. American Economic Association. Cambridge, Mass. October, 1910. Pp. 229. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

This monograph belongs in the series of studies in labor legislation to which reference has just been made. It appears to have been carefully done, but it is safe to say that it would have been more useful even to the specialist in child labor legislation, and certainly to the general student of social problems, if it had been put into fifty or seventy-five pages, instead of over two hundred. Unfortunately it stops short of the important—in a sense culminating—events of 1910.

It may be questioned whether their part in the evolution of a "state policy" is the most significant aspect of the facts which make up such a history as this. In the case of New Jersey, at any rate, it would seem to be less important to trace the development of such state policy as had been achieved up to the end of the year 1909, than to place on record a clear account of the dramatic struggle which has been waged between the protectors of children and the glass and mercantile interests, to secure the prohibition of night-work by children under sixteen and to bring mercantile employments under the general child-labor law.

BISHOP POTTER: THE PEOPLE'S FRIEND. By Harriette A. Keyser. Thomas Whittaker. New York. 1910. Pp. 196. Price, $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.06.

Bishop Potter as "The People's Friend" is here portrayed by Miss Keyser, who was secretary of the Church Association for the Advancement of the Interests of Labor during the years when he was its president. Some of the most interesting details of the picture are the extracts from sermons preached in 1878

[1] In this connection we would call to the attention of our readers the pro-Chinese discussion of Chinese Immigration in the volume by Mary Roberts Coolidge, published last year by Henry Holt and Company, New York. Pp. 532. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.88.

and 1879, long before the day of Tuberculosis Sundays and Budget Sundays, on such topics as The Slaughter of the Innocents (from epidemic diseases and tenement house work), The Homes of the Poor, The Social Indifferentist.

NATIONAL PERILS AND HOPES. By Milton F. Crafts. F. M. Barton Company. Cleveland, Ohio. 1910. Pp. 152. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 56 cents.

The superintendent of the International Reform Bureau herewith adds "a study based on current statistics and the observations of a cheerful reformer" to the thirty-four books he has previously published. After a "general survey of present moral conditions in the nation and in the world" he justifies his self-assumed epithet by the conclusion: "There is enough light—though it is only morning twilight yet—to cheer the most despondent."

EUTHENICS. By Ellen H. Richards. Whitcomb and Barrows. Boston. 1910. Pp. 162. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.07.

Euthenics is described as "the science of controllable environment" and pre-requisite to eugenics. Mrs. Richards evidently has an audience of women in mind—mothers and housekeepers and members of clubs—whom she wishes to rouse to a realization of the importance of favorable living conditions and of their own power to improve existing conditions.

THE COMING RELIGION. By Charles F. Dole. Small, Maynard and Company. Boston. 1910. Pp. 200. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.08

In this book the individual's social consciousness is treated both as a primary source of religion and as being itself the essence of religion. "Man has a bias to belong to something, to some order, fellowship or brotherhood larger than himself. This instinct is the stuff of which religion is born." The expression of this instinct in family, friendly, neighborly, civic and social relations is declared by Mr. Dole to be the "one mighty structure of religion, within and behind which a real and living presence reveals itself," and this deeper religion he finds "behind and under all religions, in all of us, common to man."

For this fundamental religion behind the creeds, a "new necessity" is discerned in the immense pressure of a democratic need. In mediating this democratic gospel, a new necessity is found for the church. It plays the part of "a university for old and young in relating each one's shifting experiences and showing how to relate them together and to turn them into significance." And this social cult of religion must more and more issue in the church's social activity and result in social righteousness.

As in his Ethics of Progress, in which he rooted ethics in religion, so in The Coming Religion, in which he roots religion in ethics, "good-will" is the mightiest of all forces, in which religion and ethics are one.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE SAFETY MATCH

To the Editor:—

I have read Mr. Heaton's article, Making All Matches "Safeties." Matches are made in heaven and are all deucedly unsafe. I don't see what we can do about it, but I'm glad to see you trying.

E. H. W.

Columbia University.

SAVING THE BABIES

To the Editor:

In my report of the first annual meeting of the American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, (THE SURVEY, November 26), I quoted Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur, chief statistician of the Bureau of the Census, as saying that "the system of registration in Baltimore was probably the worst in the civilized world—with those of Chicago, St. Louis, New Orleans and most other American cities as close seconds in the unenviable competition."

Dr. Wilbur informs me that this is unjust to St Louis, "because," he writes, "Dr. H. Wheeler Bond, commissioner of health, has taken an active interest in the improvement of birth registration in St. Louis during recent years, and it is far better than the birth registration in the other cities mentioned. Also, St. Louis, together with all other cities of Missouri, is now under the operation of the new state law for the registration of births and deaths, which is being administered most efficiently by the state registrar, Dr. Frank B. Hiller, secretary of the State Board of Health. I regard St. Louis and Missouri generally as very promising for thorough enforcement of birth registration laws."

I take special pleasure in making this correction, because Missouri is my native state.

ROBERT W. BRUÈRE.

New York.

DR. PARK ON TUBERCLE BACILLI

TO THE EDITOR:

In the *New York Medical Journal* for July, Dr. E. C. Schroeder criticises severely certain paragraphs in the account of the annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, which appeared in THE SURVEY of May 14, as well

as a bulletin for the press containing an abstract of one of the papers presented to the pathological section of the association and issued in advance of the meeting. The criticism refers to the reports of Dr. William H. Park's paper on Types of Tubercle Bacilli as Found in Human Tuberculosis and Their Relative Importance, and charges that not only were statements of fact contained in the paper misrepresented, but that conclusions were attributed to the speaker which he had not drawn and which he did not hold.

As both the bulletin and the article in THE SURVEY emanated from the executive office of the National Association, and as they unquestionably contained errors, I beg the privilege of your columns to make certain corrections.

In the report of the meeting as it appeared in THE SURVEY it was stated that "Dr. Park demonstrated from a careful study of over 400 cases of tuberculosis of all types chosen at random, that only two and one-half per cent of all tuberculosis in New York city comes from infected milk, butter or meat—that is, from bovine sources", etc. There follows a brief statement of cases described by the author, and it is again repeated that "in a total of 436 persons of all ages examined, only two and one-half per cent owed their infection to bovine products."

Dr. Schroeder examines the data presented and shows that they would indicate not two and one-half per cent, but more than seven per cent. This point, so far as the exact wording of the report is concerned, is well taken, the explanation of the discrepancy being that there was an inexact reproduction of a sentence in the advance abstract furnished by the author to the National Association, in which it was stated that it was "estimated" that about two and one-half per cent of all tuberculosis in New York city is due to the bovine type of bacilli. Without working over the data, it was assumed that the figure in question was based upon the cases reported, although it is evident that other data contributed to the estimate mentioned.

With regard to the advance abstract in a bulletin furnished to the newspaper press in advance of the meeting, Dr. Schroeder criticises sharply and with justice certain statements as well as the tone of the bulletin. The bulletin in question stated, in addition to the inaccuracy mentioned above, that it was pointed out "that the significance of these conclusions will be to direct all the energy of the campaign against tuberculosis to combating the spread of this disease among human beings, by preventing spitting, bad housing, overwork, and other conditions bad for the health." It should be stated frankly that Dr. Park did not draw these conclusions, but confined himself entirely to a scientific discussion of the facts which he presented and with which alone he was dealing. He did not concern himself with inferences as to the practical bearing of his studies.

It is perfectly obvious that such a phrase as "direct all the energy of the campaign" is unjustifiable, since a percentage of tuberculosis, whether two and one-half, seven or greater, is of sufficient importance to call for attention and determined action. In other words, it should be admitted frankly that the attribution of inferences to Dr. Park, as well as the somewhat polemic tone of the abstract, was out of place. In explanation it should be said that the newspaper abstract was prepared in a routine way by the publicity bureau of the National Association, and owing to exceptional circumstances existing in the office at the time was issued without being properly censored. It was simply a misplaced exercise of newspaper instinct for publicity and contained no ulterior motive whatever. Since public protest has been made it seems fitting that a public correction should be offered.

LIVINGSTON FARRAND,
Executive secretary, National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

New York.

PHYSICAL CULTURE IN SCHOOLS

TO THE EDITOR:

I was prevented from attending the hearing appointed by the Board of Education to consider the abrogation or perpetuation of a number of subjects hitherto carried on the curricula of our schools, amongst others that of physical culture, also that of a foreign (mainly the German) language. In both, thousands of thoughtful people are greatly interested. I am convinced that there are but few who have not thoroughly studied and weighed the reasons pro and con. In regard to both I sincerely regret that the city government should feel tempted to think of refusing the appropriation usually granted for them. It is true I am not in a position to know how any saving of money could be accomplished or to what extent a transfer of funds would benefit the very subjects above mentioned. In New York city, however, we suffer from many causes of ill health or invalidism amongst the school children, mainly congestion and an improper or insufficient food supply. In my opinion a rational and careful introduction of physical culture in the several curricula is more than merely advisable, it is necessary to improve physical well-being.

A. JACOBI, M. D.

New York.

JOTTINGS

Hospital Association Secretary.—Frederick Davis Greene, for five years assistant general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, has recently been chosen general agent of the New York Hospital Saturday and Sun-

day Association. He succeeds Frederick F. Cook, who has been made honorary secretary after an active service of twenty-eight years. The association collects about $90.000 a year from organizations and individuals, chiefly on the last Sunday in the year and the preceding Saturday. This is disbursed among forty-five hospitals through a committee of which the mayor is chairman.

Mr. Greene, the son of American missionaries, was born in 1863 near Constantinople. He was graduated from Amherst in 1885 and from the Yale Divinity School in 1888, following which he engaged in educational work in Turkey. He was secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce committee on Armenian relief which raised $263,000 in 1895-7 and helped raise the $250,000 fund for famine sufferers in India in 1900. Following six years as financial agent for the American Bible Society and a course in the New York School of Philanthropy, he joined the staff of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

Moral Prophylaxis Meeting.—A stated meeting of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis will be held at the New York Academy of Medicine the evening of December 22. Papers will be presented by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia and Prof. Felix Adler on the Sanitary Supervision of Prostitution. The Control of Venereal Diseases by the Health Department will be presented by Dr. Abraham Jacobi, Dr. Stephen Smith, Dr. Thomas Darlington, and Dr. Eugene H. Porter, state commissioner of health, followed by a general discussion. The public is invited.

Billboards Before Supreme Court.—Those who have been following the crusade against the billboard may remember that some months ago one of the divisions of the Missouri Supreme Court rendered a decision upholding the right of the city of St. Louis to regulate by ordinance the size and location of billboards within the city limits. This decision came after a four years' fight and attracted national attention. The trial court below had held that the municipality had no power to pass such a regulating ordinance and the Supreme Court decision overruled this.

But the Supreme Court decision was not without dissent. As it was the finding of only one division of the court, the case, as permitted by Missouri law, was certified to the Supreme Court *en banc*, the two divisions sitting in a body. On October 25, the case was re-argued and submitted to the whole court. The trial was largely attended and attorneys from St. Louis, Kansas City, and Chicago argued on behalf of a billboard company, and the city counsellor of St. Louis on the right and power of the municipality to regulate it as a nuisance. If the decision of Division No. 1 is sustained, it will mean that Missouri cities have the power to regulate and therefore

Donnell in St. Louis *Globe-Democrat.*

PUZZLE PICTURE.
Find the City Beautiful.

wholly to suppress billboards within their limits. A decision is expected within the next three or four months, and in the meantime the billboards flourish in unmolested luxuriance.

Secretary for Brooklyn Federation.—After a year of effective volunteer work by a number of prominent Jewish business men of Brooklyn in forming a Federation of Jewish Charities, the executive committee has engaged Philip L. Seaman of St. Louis as executive secretary. The objects of the federation are to systematize the work of Jewish charities, to guarantee an income to the best known institutions and to do away with the expensive system of raising money by entertainments. Cash collections for 1910 have been $87.000 and before the end of the year it is expected that they will be nearly $100,000. The maximum amount collected in any year under the old system was about $70.000. During the past year no tickets have been sold for entertainments and no subscriptions solicited except by pledges of annual amounts.

Mr. Seaman has been the general superintendent of the Jewish Educational Charities Alliance of St. Louis. The plan of pensioning mothers, recently inaugurated in New York and in some German cities, was instituted by him in St. Louis. He was also connected with the Legal Aid Society, the Civic League, the Housing and Sanitary Committee, the Society for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis, the St. Louis Pure Milk Commission, the Association for the Prevention of Blindness, and the School of Social Economy. He was born in Warsaw, Russia, coming to this country when twelve years old. He received his

education in Brooklyn and studied law at Washington University. The executive work of the Brooklyn Federation of Jewish Charities has been shouldered during the past year by an executive committee, with Nathan S. Jonas as its president.

Child Welfare Exhibit—A series of conferences has been announced as a part of the New York Child Welfare Exhibit in the Seventy-first Regiment Armory January 18 to February 12. Afternoon and evening sessions of two or three days will be given to each of the following subjects: education, religion, homes, recreation, health, work and wages, the law and the child, private philanthropy. At the end of the conferences a day will be devoted to discussing resolutions and suggestions resulting from each of the sessions. It is hoped that the resolutions will at least outline a suggestive program of action for the whole field of child welfare. The conferences will endeavor to translate the data and exhibits into definite action or suggestions for definite action by citizens and the municipality. The last day will be devoted to the proposed federal children's bureau, as it is expected that the other conferences will furnish material showing the need for it. There will also be choruses of school children, orchestras, gymnastic drills, folk dances, moving picture shows, two pageants, and athletic performances by the Boy Scouts and the Y. M. C. A. boys.

Second Year of Buffalo Seminar.—The Buffalo Seminar has announced its program for 1910-11 on The Social Posibilities of Our City Government: What it is Doing and Might Do. The "doing" and "might do" are divided into seven parts, each under a group leader, as follows: public health, Frederic Almy; public recreation, Thomas F. Cooke; public employment, George H. Chisholm; public intelligence, John Lord O'Brian; public morals, the Rev. William H. Boocock; the Buffalo that might be, Francis Almy; a new city charter, Melvin P. Porter.

The purpose of the seminar this second winter, is "to make a sympathetic study of what the city government is doing for the social welfare of Buffalo, and to stimulate interest in the development of its efficiency in this direction."

Readers of THE SURVEY will recall Mr. Boynton's very interesting report (issue for August 6), of the first year of the seminar, which he described as "a social study of Buffalo, its conditions and needs, by means of an informal union of four churches." The average attendance was over ninety.

Merge Boston City Departments.—For several months past John Rourke, superintendent of streets of Boston, has been endeavoring to consolidate the street, water and engineering departments of the city under one administrative head. Mayor Fitzgerald appointed Mr. Rourke commissioner of streets while the latter was still at the head of the construction work on the Panama canal. In Panama Mr. Rourke saw that increased efficiency resulted from the organization of the canal work under one head and when he came to Boston he immediately urged a consolidation of the three city departments mentioned. There has been considerable opposition to his plan, but on November 14, by a vote of five to three in the City Council, an ordinance was adopted carrying it out and placing one man over the three departments. The present superintendent of streets will act as head of the board. A board of public works, similar to the Boston board, has not been adopted in any of the other larger American cities, where nevertheless a great deal of effort and efficiency is wasted owing to the overlapping of the various engineering departments. As things have been in Boston the Street Department and the Water Department have been continually at odds, and paving work has often been held up at considerable expense and inconvenience to the city. With the new concentration of authority increased harmony and simplicity in municipal engineering machinery are expected to result.

Prevention of Insanity.—The New York State Charities Aid Association's new committee on mental hygiene will hold its first meeting the evening of December 23 at the Academy of Medicine under the latter body's section on public health. The program is especially for those interested in the social and scientific aspect of the committee's campaign for the prevention of insanity, but the meeting is public.

Dr. Albert Warren Ferris, president of the State Commission in Lunacy, will discuss the extent, causes and increase of insanity and the plans of the commission to bring state hospitals in closer relations with the people. Dr. M. Allen Starr of the College of Physicians and Surgeons will speak on the extent of our present knowledge of the causes and forms of insanity. Homer Folks will describe the plan of campaign to be conducted by the State Charities Aid Association to secure treatment of insanity through clinics and dispensaries, and to spread knowledge of its causes. Samuel McCune Lindsay will speak on the new forms of education which have brought success to the tuberculosis campaign, the propaganda against congestion of population, and the campaign for the prevention of blindness.

Training for Civil Service.—Beginning January 1 the department of sociology of the University of Missouri will supervise a course of training to be offered in Kansas City for those desiring to take Civil Service examinations for municipal positions in social work. Three courses are now planned, covering probation work, relief work and tenement house inspection.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHRISTMAS EVE ON BEACON HILL

Beacon Hill! The very name carries Boston with it and pictures fine old homes with handsome doorways and brass knockers and purple window glass with glimpses of mahogany beyond. Part and parcel of conservative Boston is Beacon Hill, a little neighborhood which still holds to some of the traditions of a century back and is rightfully proud of its name.

Now if you should happen to be a late shopper on Christmas Eve—though of course as a reader of THE SURVEY you have shopped early—and should be crunching across the snowy Common with your arms full of bundles and your ears just about frozen off, you might perhaps stop in astonishment if you happened to glance toward the "Hill", for you would see glimmering candle lights in almost every window and there in front of an ex-governor's home you would notice a group of half a hundred men and boys. A strange time for the governor to be making a speech, you think, and you see that gentleman step out into his doorway and, instead of a political address, you hear the voices of the men and boys floating over the frosty Common. They are singing a Christmas carol, and you take a fresh grip on your slippery bundles and climb the hill in time to hear the singers shout "Merry Christmas" to the governor.

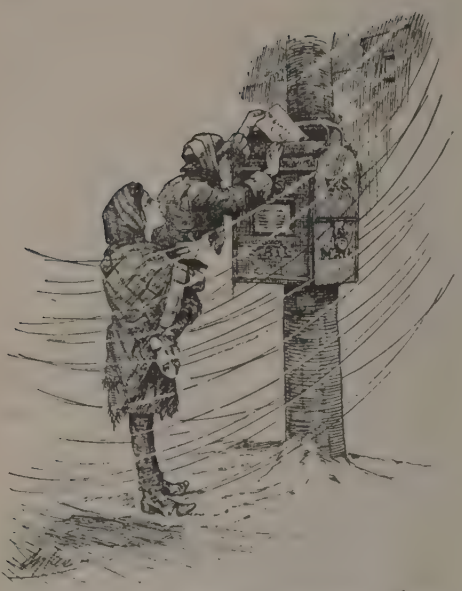
All along Beacon street the windows are aglow with candles. The little company, headed by a boy holding aloft a cross, moves to the next house, stops and sings another Christmas carol. Down a cross street you crunch through the snow to the candle-lighted home of a "shut-in", where the singers again call "Merry Christmas," and answer a hand wave with a verse from Saint Martin's hymn.

"Oh, we sing all over the Hill until midnight," said the boy with the cross. You remember that your bundles must be put into waiting stockings long before then, and hurry along for your car and forget all about the bad temper which you picked up an hour before in the crowded store.

Fifty years ago the rector of the Church of the Advent inaugurated the "Choir Christmas Eve," which has been revived since 1907 and adopted as a regular custom by Beacon Hill neighbors. An old tradition that the way of the Christ Child should be lighted with candles on Christmas Eve accounts for the wavering lights that fill the windows. To the homes where candles burn the singers go, regardless of religious denomination or belief, echo a "Merry Christmas" and sing a carol. Those of the parish who are shut in are sure of a visit, and the singers are

Satterfield in Cleveland News.

SO SAY WE ALL OF US.



Sykes in Nashville Banner.

"OUR HOPES TRIUMPHANT O'ER OUR FEARS."

always as certain of a welcome as they were back in 1859, when the late Bishop Huntington was serenaded by the Christmas Eve singers. He tells the story in his Memoirs and Letters:

> After the house had become still, about ten-thirty, as I was sitting in the study preparing for the holy duties of the day, suddenly most delightful music in youthful voices burst under my window. I raised the curtain and there stood a picturesque group of singers, mostly young boys, with lanterns, under the sparkling sky in the frosty night, pouring out Christmas anthems—genuine old English carols, in music and words wholly picturesque.

"Christmas celebrations are changing," said Dr. William H. Van Allen, the rector of the Church of the Advent, "and this 'Choir Christmas Eve' marks a distinct return to the religious celebration of the day. There is a good Christmas feeling wherever we go and a proper kind of sectional spirit is being developed."

Is Beacon Hill indeed conservative? What would some of the good old Puritan stock of a hundred years back think of the Merry Christmas Eve celebration of 1910?

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION CHARTER

Senator Gallinger has introduced a series of fifteen amendments to the bill which would bestow a federal charter upon the Rockefeller Foundation. This bill, introduced last March, was discussed in its fundamental aspects by the editor of THE SURVEY at that time.[1] The general understanding has been that the proposed foundation is to receive such financial resources from the elder Rockefeller as will surpass all other philanthropic endowments, its broad commission being couched in the following terms:

> To promote the well-being and advance the civilization of the peoples of the United States and its territories and possessions and of foreign lands in the acquisition and dissemination of knowledge; in the prevention of suffering; and in the promotion of any and all the elements of human progress.

As originally introduced the act provided for a corporate body consisting of John D. Rockefeller, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Frederick T. Gates, Starr J. Murphy, Charles O. Heydt and such persons as they might associate with them, clothed with the power of perpetual succession.

When the charter was made public last spring, THE SURVEY noted editorially that "in the presence of such record breaking philanthropy . . . the language of appreciation confesses bankruptcy." Three years earlier, having in mind such comparatively modest institutions as the Russell Sage Foundation, the General Education Board, and the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancemen of Teaching, the editor had pointed out that the brutal power of concentrated wealth, even when embodied in a philanthropic foundation, might not always work on the side of the public welfare. In view of the limitations to which this and all other endowments are thus subject, the editor suggested for consideration three additional provisions which, for purposes of comparison, may be reprinted here:

> That the government should have a voice in the selection of incorporators and trustees.
>
> That it should be stipulated that the annual

[1] See Social Forces in THE SURVEY for March 12 and March 26, 1910.

income during the life of the endowment should actually be expended for the purposes enumerated in the charter, the indefinite increase of the endowments through compound interest being forbidden.

That within a specified period, which might properly be one hundred years or more, any given endowment should be entirely expended, both principal and interest.

The amendments offered by Senator Gallinger modify the original bill with respect to membership, scope and financial stewardship. With respect to membership they provide that:

The successors to the incorporators named herein and the additional members of the corporation and their successors shall be elected by the members of the corporation for the time being, but before such election shall become effective, written notice thereof shall be mailed by said corporation to each of the following named persons at his official post office address, viz.: the president of the United States; the chief justice of the Supreme Court; the president of the senate; the speaker of the House of Representatives; and the presidents of the following institutions, viz.: Harvard University, Yale University, Columbia University, Johns Hopkins University, and the University of Chicago. If such election shall be disapproved by a majority of the persons above named it shall be void; but it shall become effective if and when it shall be approved by such majority, or at the expiration of sixty days from the mailing of such notices if it shall not have been disapproved by such majority.

CONGRESS MAY IMPOSE TERMS

With respect to scope, the following is inserted after the word "progress," in the section of the proposed act stating the objects of the foundation as cited above:

provided, however, that the Congress of the United States may at any time impose such limitations upon the objects of the said corporation as it may deem the public interest demands, and any and all gifts, devises, bequests or property at any time received or held by said corporation shall be received and held subject to the terms of this proviso, and to the terms and limitations which may be imposed by any act of Congress hereafter passed with reference thereto.

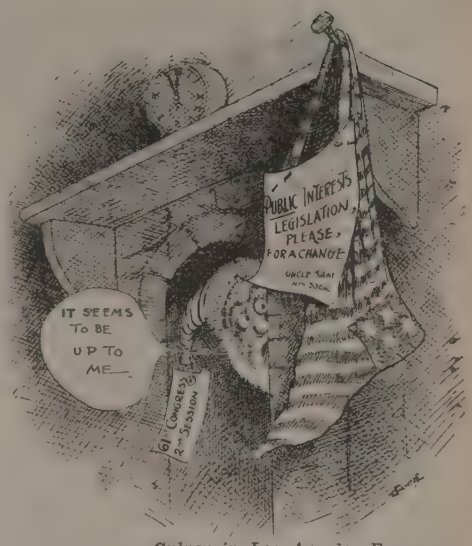
With respect to the property holdings and disposal of income and principal of the foundation, these provisions would be added:

that the total amount of property held at any one time, including that which is held absolutely as well as that which is held in trust, shall not exceed the value of one hundred million dollars, exclusive of increases in the value of property subsequent to its receipt by said corporation.

The income of the property of the said corporation shall not be accumulated or added to the principal, but shall be currently applied to the purposes for which the corporation is created, subject only to such reasonable delay as may be necessary in the wise administration of the fund.

At any time after the expiration of fifty years from the receipt by the said corporation of any property, whether by deed, grant, devise or bequest, the said corporation may distribute the principal, or any part thereof, as well as the income thereof, provided such action shall be authorized by a resolution passed by the affirmative vote of two-thirds of all those who shall at the time be members of the corporation, at a special meeting held on not less than thirty days' notice, given in writing, which shall state that the meeting is called for the purpose of considering a resolution to authorize the distribution of the whole or some part of the principal of said funds; and after the expiration of one hundred years from the date of its receipt by said corporation the said corporation shall distribute the principal, if so directed to do by the Congress of the United States; and all gifts, grants, devises or bequests to the corporation shall be taken and held subject to the provisions of this section.

The section providing "that all personal property and funds of the corporation . . . shall be exempted from



Culver in Los Angeles Express.

A LARGE OPPORTUNITY.

Leet in Detroit Times.

THE REAL BOY SCOUT.

taxation" is amended by the words "by the United States or any territory or district thereof."

The New York *Times*, which took issue with the criticisms made of the foundation by the editor of THE SURVEY last spring, would seem to hold, in an editorial published the past week, that THE SURVEY's suggestions have been met by these amendments. THE SURVEY must reserve to its own columns at some future date any expression of its editorial judgment as to whether or not they meet the positions which it has taken "not in alarm nor in disparagement, but in sober consideration of the great responsibilities to be entrusted by the government and by the founder to the incorporators and trustees of the foundation."

PREVENTION OF ALIEN CRIME

A step which opens up for discussion the whole subject of alien criminality in New York and may lead to valuable investigation into it, was taken December 14 at a conference called jointly by the City Club and the Italian-American Civic League. Resolutions were adopted calling for the appointment of a committee of five to confer with the immigration commissioner, the police commissioner, the United States district attorney, the district attorneys of the counties embraced in the city, and other officials, concerning the exclusion of alien criminals, the deportation of those already here, and the prevention of crime among alien residents of the city. The committee was appointed by Charles H. Strong, president of the City Club, and consists of Howard Gans, former assistant district attorney; C. Blake Orcutt of the Italian-American Civic League, the Rev. Melville Knox Bailey of Grace Church Chapel, J. G. Giambalvo, a lawyer residing in Brooklyn and a Sicilian, and Arthur H. Warner.

The meeting was called to "consider specifically what can be done to free New York city from a large number of Italian criminals and to prevent the immigration of Italian criminals in the future." So strong was the opposition expressed at the conference by prominent Italian residents, to singling out their fellow countrymen as a foreign class disproportionately criminal, that the resolutions, as finally adopted, were made to refer to alien criminals in general rather than to Italian criminals only.

As a basis in fact on which to rest its movement, the promoters of the conference call attention to the statistics showing recent increases in crime among Italians in New York. It was stated that out of 700 Italian immigrants concerning whom certificates of criminality have been obtained from the Italian government, only forty-seven have been deported. To aid in further deportation, it is suggested that the time of residence in this country which shall be a legal bar to deportation be extended from three to five years. This was recommended by the Federal Immigration Commission, but has been held by many to be insufficient. The New York *Times* has pointed out that it merely puts a premium on the shrewdness which postpones detection until the sixth year. A better way, as was suggested at the conference, is the English practice, by which an alien who commits a crime may be deported no matter what his length of residence.

Significant also, because reflecting an attitude that can always be relied upon to make itself felt, were the expressions that came from prominent New York

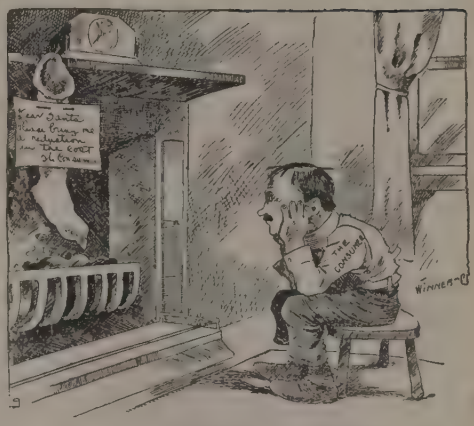
Italians who had been asked to attend the conference. Several of them insisted that excessive Italian criminality in this city is largely a fiction of sensational journalism. The Italian criminals from whom the community does suffer are, they contended, not newcomers to the country, but persons of from ten to twenty years' residence here, who have learned something of our civilization. Such newcomers as do display criminal tendencies become simply the quiet instruments of their shrewd Americanized predecessors. From this it is argued that the remedy for so-called Italian crime is not restriction of immigration, but deportation. Great numbers of present-day Italian immigrants, it was urged, find the doors of too many American manufactories closed to them. They must support themselves and their families, nevertheless, and so they are driven to reliance upon fellow-countrymen who have preceded them to America. This reliance is exploited by a few criminals, and the new immigrant, innocent and reliable when he landed, becomes a pawn in the fingers of the astute crook.

The comparatively small number of Italian detectives in New York was another cause to which was attributed the preponderance, if there be any, of Italian criminality. The remedies suggested by the Italians themselves were adequate work for the immigrant, the enforcement of laws, the creation of an efficient police force, and education.

The Italian members of the Italian-American Civic League, who were the initial promoters of the conference, insist that they have entered the movement in a spirit of national pride. They hope to enlist the interest of the half million or more Italian residents of New York in the suppression of such crime as exists among them. Through the influence of Italians themselves, they believe, the best effects can be produced.

PREVENTABLE DISEASES ARE NOT NOW PREVENTED

That "diseases known to be preventable are not now prevented" was the keynote of a stirring call to arms which Dr. Eugene H. Porter, New York state commissioner of health, sounded at the annual meeting of the Association of Insurance Presidents. He made a well-argued plea for the insurance companies to lead in a great crusade for health:



Winner in Pittsburgh Post.

IS THERE A SANTA CLAUS?

The old days and the old conceptions of disease are passing away The old way has cost more lives than all the wars since Alexander and more gold than has ever been mined. We have learned that if we allow our neighbor to wallow in filth we must expect to suffer some of the consequences. Blocking our way stand the troops of selfishness and ignorance, the twin foes of progress. Far behind this great movement of ours there is a distinct moral question. "Thou shalt not steal"—thy neighbor's health and the Golden Rule lie at the foundation. The rights of one man in health matters necessarily limit those of another. Freedom must be safeguarded by law, and "the limitation of freedom is fair play."

It is evident that the weakest spots in the enemy's line are the mortality rates of tuberculosis, typhoid fever, scarlet fever, measles, and diphtheria There are three strongly entrenched positions that must be moved upon and overthrown—pneumonia, Bright's disease, and cancer. In a somewhat isolated position stands the fort—deaths by violence. We must storm it.

Now let us face the fact that diseases known as preventable are not now prevented and are not likely to be prevented entirely for many years to come We have begun a vigorous campaign against tuberculosis and the results are beginning to show. An effective campaign against typhoid fever would show quicker and more marked results.

But if the prevention of disease is to be the crowning glory of our civilization a campaign of education must be undertaken. The knowledge now possessed by our trained sanitarians and expert laboratory workers must be carried to every home and read at every fireside.

Carter in New York American.

WHAT CAN THE POOR DOVE DO?

Andrew Carnegie's gift of ten million dollars for a Peace Foundation has set the cartoonists at work on a new theme.

No reasonable argument or law could be advanced against a health campaign by life insurance companies, Dr. Porter said, and there are positive reasons in favor of it. The companies have a trained force of 80,000 medical examiners and 20,000 agents working among twenty million policy holders. "I know of no other single agency in all the wide field of sanitary effort so potentially powerful for public health." Further, "public opinion now asks that a corporation cease to be a mere accumulator of wealth. . . . It asks that it shall awaken to its opportunities and develop a human side to its existence."

DEADLOCK IN THE CHICAGO STRIKE

The Chicago garment workers' strike seems to have settled into a rigid deadlock in spite of unremitting efforts to effect a settlement. The new element among the bodies seeking peace is a committee representing the powerful Association of Commerce. This committee resulted from a conference between union leaders and representatives or some of the largest commercial interests in the city. Business men feel that Chicago's large clothing industry is menaced increasingly by each day the strike continues.

The arbitration terms which, as reported in THE SURVEY last week, Hart, Schaffner and Marx are willing to accept, were submitted by the strike leaders to their members. The members refused to consider them until the other employers were willing to agree, so that the whole 40,000 strikers would have a chance to vote and go back to work together—this in spite of the fact that the peace committee, which included John Fitzpatrick, president of the Chicago Federation of Labor, and Mrs. Raymond Robins, president of the Women's Trade Union League, recommended their adoption. The labor members of the mayor's conference sent a letter to the City Council, in which they stated that "the refusal of the representatives of the National Wholesale Tailors' Association and the National Wholesale Clothiers' Association to accept those terms of setlement, and the public declaration of their determination to 'fight to a finish,' have resulted in a feeling of resentment among the strikers and a natural desire to stand or fall together."

While this loyalty of the workers to one another is appreciated, many impartial observers regret that the 10,000 Hart, Schaffner and Marx employes did not return to work and express their loyalty by giving their comrades relief from their earnings.

In rejecting the proposed terms an element of fanaticism played some part, many of the Polish strikers being roused almost to a frenzy of defiance by an independent but misguided priest, who urged the strikers to stick for the closed shop. It is significant that the most tragic occurrence of the strike thus far took place near his church. A clash be-

tween pickets and police resulted in the killing of one striker and the wounding, probably fatally, of another. In the face of this violence the public temper remains calm, patient and fair, though more insistently determined to bring about a settlement. This attitude is well expressed by an editorial in the *Evening Post,* saying that the people of Chicago ought to be careful not to assume that all the 40,000 garment workers of Chicago are rioters because a few have battled with the police.

Impressed by the spirit and need of the strikers, the Chicago Federation of Labor at its meeting of December 18 decided to stand by and support them. This action was taken in spite of the fact that the federation had recommended the adoption of the proposed arbitration plan, and also in spite of a distrust which the federation, even more definitely than the public, has concerning the honesty and good faith of the president of the local garment workers' union. It was charged by some of the delegates that he and his coterie are personally appropriating some of the money contributed for the support of the strikers, and a demand was made that the books of the union be turned over to auditors. It is declared that such a request a few days ago met with refusal. In view of this situation, it is fortunate that much of the money is contributed, not to the local union, but to a strike fund of which Mrs. Raymond Robins is treasurer.

ART IN A DEMOCRACY

It was agreed on all hands that the address of Thomas Nelson Page at the last annual convention in Washington was one of the most charming and graceful of contributions ever made to the American Civic Association. He dealt unsparingly with several national foibles, but his allusions to the barbarous ways of government inspection of art works and the lack of opportunities for artistic education in America aroused enthusiasm. Art and literature, he said, are the only lasting things of a city's civilization, and the spirit of the people is manifested by its art. We go to Rome today, not in admiration of her historic power and commercial supremacy, but for the art which she bestowed upon the world.

J. HORACE McFARLAND.

Re-elected president of the American Civic Association.

Americans have every reason to be great in the things of the spirit. From the lands of the Latin and the Saxon to the land of—whatever we are—we find ourselves heirs of all peoples and of all ages. Yet think of the barbaric monstrosities which in the form of soldiers' monuments we have set up as our standard, as a terrifying spectacle of the best this country can achieve. Even the most devoted American cannot view the collection of effigies in statuary hall at the Capitol without a shudder at the grotesqueness of the group. The good are belittled by the bad.

Is the spirit of our people essentially non-artistic? Is our taste depraved by the soul-destroying cauldron of commercialism, the setting-up of the dollar standard as the measure of all human success and happiness? The artist wants art as free as the air, but government decrees otherwise. The result is that our native artists must go abroad to study and the native school never develops. The pioneers had much within them that was heroic, but in these days there is danger that the heroic will vanish in the mad ambition for money. There never was a time when America had more crying need of the refining influence of art.

Yet in architecture we have done better and the awakening was so unexpected and so great that it brings us much hope. Out of the worst period of American architecture, when we had all gone wild about mansard roofs and the so-called "style" of the much-abused Queen Anne, there suddenly arose a city within a city—a city like a dream of fairy-

Rogers in New York Herald.

TWO SANTAS.

land. Chicago, the parent city, had been regarded as the very center of sordid commercialism, but it gave birth to the "White City" —the "Snowy City"—which sprang up on the shores of Lake Michigan. It heralded the dawn of a better era, and architecture and city planning took a new step in this land of ours. In its planning and construction the White City really represented the greatest example of modern genius. Physically it has perished, but the spirit of its existence will ever survive to give inspiration to human progress, because it has stamped itself upon the imagination and minds of the people. Even now, as I look back upon it after nearly a score of years, it reminds me of one of the fine old mezzotints of Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress—"a city white in the light of God."

To this World's Fair city Mr. Page traced practically all of our subsequent development in finer building and systematic systems of planning.

City planning and one other subject, the extermination or regulation of various urban nuisances, were the subjects to which especial emphasis was given at the meeting. Not a dull or unprofitable moment found place in any of the seven sessions, and even a scoffer at the ideals of civic development must have been impressed by the eminently practical character of the discussions. The association is making valuable contributions to the cause of "a better and more beautiful America," not only a country better and more beautiful to look upon, but more beautiful in the things of the spirit and better suited to be a happy and comfortable abiding place for a civilized people. The national scope of its influence and interest was strikingly indicated by the attendance, which was literally from Maine to California and from Minneapolis to Mexico. More than 130 delegates were present from outside Washington, and there was significance in the number of official state delegates who attended for the first time. In the words of Henry A. Barker, "Perhaps the time is coming even sooner than we dared to hope when American cities will cease to be the ugliest, most inconvenient, and most unscientifically designed of all the cities in the world."

CITY PLANNING

THE PRIME NEED

Experts discussed in thoughtful, definite ways, the work of improvement societies, the attainment of municipal cleanliness, and the regulation of public nuisances. But most significant in its bearing upon the future well-being of all those generations which must for ever live in urban communities, was the special emphasis for the first time given to the subject of city planning. It cut down through all earlier discussions of temporary conditions and remediable things to tackle the fundamental basic structure of towns and cities. Lack of thought and plan at the beginning or in the early stages of growth has piled up an awful penalty against the future. Franklin MacVeagh struck the keynote of this discussion in his simple proposition that "it is wholly stupid not to plan cities, like their individual buildings, with some view to the comfort and happiness of the people who must live in them." The conservation of the resources of nature and the scientific planning of man's artificial creations of cities and towns are supplementary movements upon which most of the future well-being of the nation depends. Most of their underlying principles are rather simple and understandable, but their popular recognition has been delayed in a supposedly enlightened country until the last decade. A notable group of the men who have led in the new profession of civic architecture and urban development participated in the discussion—such men as Frederick Law Olmsted of Brookline, John Nolen of Boston, Arnold W. Brunner, of New York, Harold J. Howland of the *Out-*

look, Charles Mulford Robinson of Rochester, George B. Dealey of Dallas and Clinton Rogers Woodruff of Philadelphia.

In his presidential address J. Horace McFarland put the question, "Are state parks worth while?" and although the answer was a foregone conclusion, his statement of it and the reasons aroused the greatest interest and enthusiasm.

Of other subjects taken up, space forbids even casual mention. Richard B. Watrous, the secretary, gave a full and interesting report of the association's work for the year, and there was a particularly practical discussion of the house fly, which Dr. Woods Hutchinson classed among the most dangerous and deadly of all the wild animals which have ever infected the earth. The moving picture exhibit of flies, which the association has made available for lecturers, was shown. The very wealth of the program and its practical application to local problems added weight to the secretary's recommendation, that two to four additional special conferences be held in different parts of the country to encourage local civic movements.

The officers were all re-elected — J. Horace McFarland of Harrisburg, president; Clinton Rogers Woodruff of Philadelphia, first vice-president; William B. Howland of New York, treasurer; Richard B. Watrous of Washington, secretary.

STATE CONFERENCE INVESTIGATIONS

If argument were needed to justify the cost of a state conference of charities and correction, the nineteenth session of the Minnesota conference furnished it. The number of institutional officials and county commissioners present was held amply to justify the State Board of Control in paying their traveling expenses and in circulating the proceedings. It is a strategic policy, too, to hold the annual business meeting of the State Association of County Commissioners at the same time and place. Year by year these men bring with them a first-hand knowledge of local conditions, especially in rural communities and small towns, such as no others can so readily acquire; and few can carry more widely away or put to more practical use the information and inspiration which are furnished by the conference.

McCutcheon in Chicago Tribune.
"POOR OLD HORSEY! WHERE'S YOUR BLANKET?"

Carrying its meeting to the border of the state farthest removed from the large city centers is also good propaganda, which was appreciated by Crookston's people, commercial club, churches and schools. One of the most suggestive papers was that on Making Country Life Worth While, presented by Superintendent Selvig of the State School of Agriculture, whose students thronged the crowded Opera House for the Sunday sessions. Local leaders conferred with those of the conference on the opportunity for organizing the charities of Crookston, through the incentive given to the town by the conference. A local anti-tuberculosis society was established as the result of the discussion.

Perhaps the most promising feature of the program was the evidence of patient, thorough inquiry into actual conditions with which public agencies and officials are dealing. The demand for such investigation was expressed by a large proportion of the speakers and was notably met by the papers of some.

The study of mental and moral characteristics of prisoners at the state reformatory by Supt. Frank Randall combined scientific spirit with humanely prac-

tical method. The intelligent, continuous, personal touch of the superintendent with each prisoner is supplemented by expert examination by alienists in all state hospitals for the insane. The results of their inquiry, which are to be published when completed, may be appraised by Mr. Randall's interesting reference to the arrested mental development discovered in a large proportion of prisoners. Tests of thirty of these "men," born from eighteen to thirty-one years ago, showed them to be children. One of them had the mental development normally attained at six years of age, two that at seven years, one that at eight, three that at nine, two that at ten, five that at eleven, three that at twelve, and only thirteen of them were developed beyond the twelfth year. Data thus gathered and analyzed will be most valuable for all at work with delinquents.

Fanny French Morse's cottage plan for the new school for girls at Sauk Center, based upon her work in Massachusetts and at Red Wing, had special interest, for she has been vindicated recently both by the Board of Control and by the Board of Visitors from the complaints inevitably arising from her readjustment of school management to modern standards. Her insistence upon the moral and educational value of every girl having her own room was enlightening.

The modern treatment of inebriety and the results and possibilities of adult probation were treated in the same exact and broad way. A questionnaire, including eighty-five counties in the state, proves the judges of the juvenile court to have begun to catch the spirit of this movement, and incidentally proves the efficiency with which Judge E. A. Lewis and his associates of the Probate Court are exercising their jurisdiction over children's courts.

The insight into local conditions and the courage in dealing with them at first hand, which social settlement residents acquire, were finely exemplified by Henry F. Burt, head resident of Pillsbury House, Minneapolis, in a paper on vice. It grew out of his experience in banishing disorderly resorts from the residential district surrounding the settlement. Some influential citizens of Minneapolis take this achievement as a demonstration of the possibility of suppressing public forms of prostitution in the entire city.

PURE MILK

IRA S. WILE, M. D.
New York

The troublesome question of how to secure a pure milk supply was discussed in its city, state and national bearings at the recent conference under the auspices of the New York Milk Committee. The meetings were significant in both program and attendance. From the United States there were official representatives of the federal Department of Agriculture, the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, the New York state Departments of Health and Agriculture, and the New York city Department of Health; and from Canada W. F. Nickle of the Legislative Milk Commission of Ontario and Dr. Amyot, health officer of Toronto. Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston and Washington sent practical men to represent them. The attendance included milk dealers and producers, sanitarians, health officers, philanthropists, and transportation men, who gathered in serious debate over the numerous resolutions that formed an intrinsic part of the program. The four sessions considered in turn Milk Economics, Public Milk Supply and Public Health, Milk Commissions.

In delivering the address of welcome John Purroy Mitchel asked the conference to solve some questions which are disturbing the New York Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Most of them centered upon pasteurization, as it affects the cleanliness of milk and the price to the consumer. So far as the conference expressed an opinion on price it was that the farmer must receive more for his milk in order to raise his sanitary standards. The best method of securing an improved quality of milk was suggested by Dr. A. E. Harding of the Geneva Experiment Station. He would establish various grades of milk with a specified retail price for each, the cleanest to command the highest

price. Deputy Attorney General J. B. Coleman made a plea for a state commission to regulate prices. The constitutionality of such a commission was not established to the satisfaction of the audience, and a resolution recommending its creation was almost unanimously rejected.

A resolution calling for a comprehensive study of the comparative digestibility and nutritional value of raw and heated milk was promptly accepted, in view of the general feeling that the question has not been satisfactorily answered.

A strange note was heard from a legal representative of some small milk dealers, who argued that it was dangerous for the community to use bottled instead of "loose" milk. Experience and progress ruled against him, and there was no hesitation in voting that all milk sold at retail should be properly bottled.

The tuberculous cow received careful consideration, and while the farmers present opposed a resolution prohibiting the sale of cows until proved free from tuberculosis, as far as the tuberculin test indicates, they were willing at a later meeting to vote to forbid interstate commerce in cows not thus tested and found healthy.

The clash between municipal and possible state control of milk supplies came in a resolution that it is the sense of the conference that the work of country milk inspection be carried on by states and not by municipalities; that municipalities adopt minimum standards and refuse to accept milk which falls below them, and that state methods of milk inspection be uniform. The city health officers seemed to fear that state supervision would be inadequate. Their opinions swayed the meeting and the resolution was rejected.

The desire of the sanitarians to place the conference on record as to the grades of milk to be recognized by such state departments as are in a position to secure legislation regarding pure milk supplies, was gratified by the almost unanimous adoption of the resolution approving the classification of A. D. Melvin of the Bureau of Animal Industry of the Department of Agriculture. This recognizes three classes of milk: certified, inspected and pasteurized. The general trend of the discussion, under the influence of experts like Dr. E. C. Schroeder and Dr. John F. Anderson of Washington, Dr. William H. Park of New York, Dr. Amyot of Toronto, Dr. Charles E. North of New York, and Prof. William T. Sedgwick of Boston, was in favor of the perfect pasteurization of public milk supplies as the best method of averting epidemics of contagious diseases.

Appreciating the difficulties surrounding the sanitary questions involved in determining proper standards to safeguard public milk supplies and to regulate the production and handling of dairy products, the New York Milk Committee was requested to invite a committee of experts to confer and unanimously report on milk standards, from which congressional or state authoritities may formulate legislation. A unanimous report was urged, in order to avoid waste of time through the presentation of a minority report, which might confuse the issues involved.

The responsibility of consumers in securing pure milk was discussed by R. A. Pearson, New York state commissioner of agriculture, and F. A. Stadtmueller, health officer of Elmwood, Conn. Education of consumers was urged as to the relative food value of milk, the necessity of a clean supply, and the fact that perfectly safe milk, raw or pasteurized, requires a price which will permit its production. It was advocated that milk be so labelled as to show the consumer the grade he is buying, and that misbranding be held a violation of the pure food law, providing that official recognition be given the classes of milk advised by departments of agriculture.

In order that the resolutions passed might not be lost, and to assure a meeting of the conference another year, a committee was appointed to arrange for a national organization to promote the study and improvement of public milk supplies. The necessity for such an organization was unquestioned for, as Professor Sedgwick remarked, "the milk problem in America today is perhaps the toughest of all our pure food and public health problems."

WESTERN RESERVE CONFERENCE ON CHILDREN

FLORENCE L. LATTIMORE

What one of the local speakers happily described as "a continuous survey of child-life," is being planned as one result of the Western Reserve Conference on the Care of Dependent and Neglected Children, held in Cleveland November 17, 18, 19. Another immediate result is that the local workers in children's agencies have arranged to meet monthly at the various institutions for discussion of mutual problems.

The conference was called by the committee on co-operation of the Cleveland Associated Charities at the suggestion of twenty child-caring institutions. In addition to a three-day conference, with morning, afternoon and evening sessions, remarkable exhibits were made, in order to reveal the various kinds of help available for needy children.

The sessions and the exhibits were in a new and centrally located building. Both were well attended. Nine hundred and fifty individuals interested in children's work were registered at the sessions. About 1400 persons attended them.

Forty-five organizations took part in the conference. There were forty-one exhibits, four of which were from out of town, loaned by the Children's Aid Society of Boston, the National Child Labor Committee, the Russell Sage Foundation Department of Child-Helping and the Speedwell Society exhibit on infant mortality.

That the exhibits were graphic was shown by the crowds inside and out. The broad plate glass front of the exhibit room next the sidewalk was lined with business men, miscellaneous passers-by and children from the street trades staring in to satisfy a newly aroused interest. The room was broken into booths. Almost every exhibit was manned by someone familiar with the special work shown and ready to explain it to visitors. This greatly increased the educational value of the conference. Among the most striking features were the exhibits made by means of real children, such as those illustrating the work for the blind, the equipment and management of day nurseries, the free kindergartens, St. Ann's Infant Asylum and the Cleveland Public Library. Models of the tent colony for tuberculous children attracted much attention. Less graphic at first sight, but centers of quiet groups of thinking people, were the exhibits of the Humane Society, of the orphanages, and of the work done for children by the Associated Charities. So successful was this display that it was kept open by special request after the conference had closed.

In the conference proper a day was given to discussion of each of these subjects: the Dependent Child and the Institution, the Dependent Child and the Foster Home, and Co-operation of Child-Caring Agencies. The out of town speakers were Martha P. Falconer, the Rev. Brother Barnabas, Hastings H. Hart, Edwin D. Solenberger, and R. R. Reeder. One or more of these speakers were present at round table discussions in the mornings, attended the noon luncheons at the Chamber of Commerce, and led the discussion of the afternoon and evening. Every child-caring agency had an opportunity to describe its particular work. Such descriptions, and the many addresses by local people dealing with special program topics, brought out with compelling force the need for further knowledge of each other, and for some general plan by which the local agencies may become in reality what they are already in spirit—a closely knit children's constituency.

The Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant child-caring organizations in the Western Reserve have already developed some degree of co-operation with such investigational agencies as the Associated Charities and the Humane Society; but, although there are many institutions in and about Cleveland, unity of effort is not strong enough to meet the needs of the community. Whether or not the movement for centralization of work should be expressed by a children's bureau, or by some other plan of organization, was discussed by A. B. Williams, Jr., secre-

tary of the Cleveland Humane Society. He said, in part:

It is easy to see the large field of usefulness for a children's bureau in a city where the charities are comparatively loosely organizd and working without much reference to one another. Frankly, I believe that Cleveland is beyond this and that we are ready for an advanced step, which I think has as yet been possible in scarcely any city, but which I believe to be possible here. Our charities are, generally speaking, fairly well organized and efficient. We already have in operation a Clearing House, where last week 549 families were registered—more than ninety a day. If the children's institutions will avail themselves of this piece of co-operative machinery, it will do all that a children's bureau registration scheme would do, and more. . . . In the Associated Charities we have a most efficient investigational agency, which will undoubtedly be glad to undertake any pre-admission investigation for any institution that desires it. A number of the institutions are requesting the Humane Society to advise regularly as to the admission of children. By utilizing either one or the other of these two agencies, any institution desiring to avail itself of the work of expert investigators could easily do so. In the matter of physical examinations, I believe adequate arrangements could be made with certain of the hospitals, the Babies' Dispensary, and other medical charities. That is, the main features of a children's bureau are already at work in Cleveland, or immediately available.

I believe we have passed the children's bureau stage, and are ready to take up together, as we have begun to do at this conference, a systematic, comprehensive study of the entire children's problem of Cleveland and vicinity, and to devise plans together for meeting the need so disclosed. First of all we must know the situation and we must all know it, whether it touches our particular field of effort or not. My suggestion is this: that our conference proceed to organize on a permanent basis, changing the name to the Western Reserve Conference on Child Welfare. This will so broaden the scope of the organization as to cover the entire field of childhood. Let the conference have a definite membership of organizations and interested individuals, with a membership fee small enough not to be burdensome, but which will produce revenue sufficient to run the organization. Let the objects of the conference be the study and solution of the problems of the childhood in Cleveland and vicinity. The work should be done by a number of standing committees composed of interested men and women who should work throughout the year on a particular problem. Some of the subjects awaiting thorough study are, for instance: the causes of child neglect and dependence, non-support and abandonment, infant mortality, infantile blindness, child labor, feeble-mindedness, dependent mothers with infants, play, education (with several possible sub-committees, neighborhoods, street trades.

The creation of these committees would bring about what would practically amount to a continuous survey of the child life of Cleveland. The backing of the conference would open up all the sources of information in the city, and enlist the services of many not perhaps members of the conference itself. The work of these committees would be a continuous city-wide educator. The reports at the next conference would be real contributions to the knowledge of childhood in our cities. Our succeeding exhibits could set forth these conditions in detail, and succeeding conferences take action looking towards making Cleveland the best place in America for children to live in. This plan would furnish splendid opportunities for us all to work together.

The committee on findings reported upon twelve points and made six definite recommendations. The following points received special attention: that family life is the best life for the child; that constructive work should be done in the home of the child; that "if the maintenance of the home be an impossibility, then the best substitute seems to be another home offered by desirable foster-parents, unless deficiency on the child's part require attention which an institution will better afford"; properly supervised boarding homes for children, the cottage system of housing, physical examination of incoming children, the formation of a strong placing-out agency, adequate record systems, thorough initial investigation of every case of neglected dependence before prescribing treatment, proper use of legal machinery, the keeping of infants and mothers together, the importance of breast feeding, the employment of socially trained workers in child-caring work, and special attention to supervision of play and exercise.

The committee urged further utilization of the facilities offered by the Charities Clearing House; frequent meetings of workers in children's agencies for an exchange of experience and method; the appointment of one representative from each organization taking part in this conference to serve upon a central committee on child-welfare; the appointment by this central committee of sub-committees to arrange for future conferences and to co-operate with state, county and city institutions which receive and care for

children from Cleveland and vicinity. The chairman of the conference, James R. Garfield, appointed to serve upon this organizing committee: M. A. Marks, Judge George S. Addams, Cordelia L. O'Neill, Douglas Perkins, with A. B. Williams, Jr., secretary.

OF CHRISTMAS GIFTS

MARY E. RICHMOND

Genius and a penny whistle—both are gifts. When the customer asked what the imitation bronze elephant with a rose in the tip of his trunk was *for*, the clerk replied with dignity and with unconscious humor, "That, madam, is a *gift*." Somewhere between the heaven-sent gift of genius and the elephant and the whistle belongs too the old Saxon use of *"gyft,"* which meant, by a pleasant confusion of ideas, both the dowry and the marriage, and celebrated, in both uses, a relation already existing.

This brings us—not by easy stages but by express—to our real theme; to the type of gift, that is, which celebrates, and fittingly celebrates, a human relation.

If the social workers who know distress at close quarters could speak their minds out freely without danger of being misunderstood, if they could tell the bald, ungracious truth about this wholesale Christmas of ours, they would probably say that they are more saddened than cheered by it. In so far as its giving expresses insight and thoughtfulness and consideration, they love the old custom and would not willingly see it pass; but in so far as it blazons abroad and makes more obtrusively visible the *absence* of relation and thoughtfulness and consideration, as between those who give and those who receive, they cannot love it—they are silent, for the most part, but they count the days when this side of Christmas, with its exploitations of need and its ostentatious distributions, shall have passed away for another year.

Often it is their duty to take the Christmas giver where they find him and to move him on, a half-step at a time, perhaps, to some realization of what desperate poverty really means both to the desperately poor and to the community.

Morgan in Philadelphia Inquirer.

THE SPIRIT OF CHRISTMAS.

The Christmas giver as they find him! He means so well. He wishes (if Anglo-Saxon) that everyone may have turkey to eat, or something equally good, on Christmas day. He pictures this meal as a family rite, partaken around the family board, unless his mind is confused by the schemes of agencies that "hire a hall" and feed at wholesale. Not one little flickering flame of desire on his part to "do good" and be helpful should the social worker extinguish. To end this dun-colored Christmas article just here, therefore, would be little short of a crime.

Extensive and aimless giving to those whose needs are little known, and expensive and equally aimless giving to those who have no needs (that money can meet), will continue in spite of anything one can say. But there is always another way open to those who have begun to feel the waste and the neglected opportunity of Christmas. This is the great family holiday of the year, and its sweetest expression is in a family life wholesomely intact and self-perpetuating. Such was the life of the little family group whence the idea of Christmas radiated centuries ago; such is or can be the life, the relation, that we celebrate today. Side by side with our wholesale, extensive, somewhat bacchanalian Christmas, may be developed quietly a Christmas of human relations and of *intensive* giving.

In so far as this second Christmas has

to do with poverty and want (and it should have a great deal to do with them) it would seek to make its good-will and its recognition of existing contacts permanently helpful; it would strive to see that the recipients of holiday cheer were faring better on the days that were not feast days; it would, for instance, feel ashamed if, before next December, it had put forth no effort to make them better able to shape their own Christmas celebration in their own fashion; and, above all, it would endeavor, in little thoughtful ways, to bring forward the fathers and mothers as the rightful "good fairies" of the Christmas drama, it would magnify the dignity and importance of parents who live in tenements and mean streets.

All this and more was done, very quietly, in some of the district offices of the New York Charity Organization Society last year, and it is being tried again this year. In one of these districts, three widows with small children were pensioned for a whole year out of the Christmas money of a few donors. This meant that these mothers knew every day in the year 1910 just how much to count upon, just how to plan. It meant that a great burden of anxiety was lifted, and lifted by those who could safeguard the family welfare in other ways. For instance, some of the children were given a chance to earn their mothers' presents, and were helped to keep them as a happy little surprise. A church circle of young people, developing this idea further, organized this November a class of children from families known to the district office, and taught them how to make presents for their parents. The office is a safe storage place where the young people of the neighborhood are keeping packages that are to be brought out on Christmas Eve or Christmas morning for the older members of their families.

While widows' families received most attention, help was not limited to them. When a committee member offered to entertain one group at her own home on Christmas Eve, children whose father and mother had both drifted into careless, drunken ways were sent to her, and the parents have since been braced up by close personal work. One elderly single woman with no family had a present of a regular monthly pension.

Around the office tree six parties were held during Christmas week by twelve members of the local committee. Parents and their children came together in small neighborhood groups, and last of all the old ladies of the neighborhood had their own special party. These small parties are still talked about because they celebrated a friendly relation already established.

This was not a statistical Christmas—it made no great showing in figures. We are stupidly possessed with the idea that, in order to do a thing at all, we must do all of it at once from the very beginning. The idea of intensive giving will not grow all at once, everywhere, but it will grow. We can always begin with the next person we know who is having a hard time, taking pains to think ahead for him or for her. We can try to do things that will last; we can try to strengthen the family ties and bring out their lovelier side; we can look forward hopefully to making our help less necessary, to removing the untoward conditions that make it necessary; we can show our pleasure in a relation that, however slight, has within it undeveloped possibilities of sympathy and understanding.

And if, by any chance, we look about us at this Christmas season to find that we personally know only those as well off as ourselves, or better off, if our way of living has brought us to such poverty as this, then at least we can resolve that no other Christmas "shall find us then as it finds us now,"—that we will enlarge the circle of our acquaintance, if only to know the pleasure of that intensive giving which includes both knowing and caring.

OF NEW IDEALS AND THE CITY

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES
Church of the Messiah, New York

The history of municipal government in this country may be said to have gone through three very distinct stages of development. In the first place, there was the period when the city was regarded as a rich field for political exploitation.

The municipal government was simply an overflowing treasury of wealth, for the looting of which the contending parties had their annual political battles. This period covers the entire history of our nation, from early colonial days down to the decade immediately succeeding the Civil War; but its real significance became clearly manifest only in the seventies and eighties, when there began that astounding era of urban development which has not yet ended, as is so convincingly attested by the census of this present year. It was at this time that there began the rush of population to our municipal centers, the phenomenal development in the cities of industrial enterprises of every description, and the miraculous extension of facilities for transportation and communication. Then came the hey-day of the city politician. Contracts for stupendous municipal undertakings had to be let, franchises for public facilities of all kinds granted, industrial permits issued, real estate values appraised, methods of taxation developed, police supervision indefinitely extended; and in all these matters, incalculable sums of money expended. There was millions in it" for the politicians, and, as a result, they flourished as the green bay tree. This was the period, it is well to note, when Mr. Bryce was studying American political life in preparation for writing his American Commonwealth; and it is not to be wondered at, that in this book he characterized our municipal governments as the one conspicuous failure of our civilization.

This period reached its climax with Richard Croker's immortal declaration upon the witness stand, that he was in politics for his pocket all the time. With this brazen confession may be said to have begun the second period of municipal development. In the old days, vast sums of money had been thrown away or stolen. Everything had been run upon a purely political basis, which meant waste, extravagance, and incredible dishonesty. The natural reaction from this saturnalia of civic crime was in the direction of what was called "business administration." The city, it was said, is nothing but a gigantic corporation. It must therefore be run, as any private corporation is run, on strictly business principles. Business men must be elected to office; scientific business methods must be introduced into all departments of administration; above all, strict economy must be practiced in all expenditures of public funds. City administration, in other words, is simply a matter of debit and credit. Let that be fully established, and our municipal problems will once for all be solved.

It goes without saying that this business ideal of city government, which is now rapidly coming into the ascendant everywhere, marks a well-nigh immeasurable step of progress over the old ideal of political freebooting. Most of our cities have become highly organized business organizations, many of them run by trained and honest business men. Waste is being stopped, graft eliminated, downright thievery abolished, and the strictest economy of expenditures everywhere practiced. The people are regarded by the city officials as in a measure the stockholders in the municipal corporation; and the faithful public official is regarded as the man who acts consistently in the interests of these stockholders. In other words, city administration is coming to be regarded as one highly specialized department of American business enterprise; and in the light of this conception the ideal municipal officer, in the eyes of many reform organizations today, is the expert business man, and the ideal administration the one which can show reduced expenditures and a lowered tax rate.

Now it is of course admitted that all of this is admirable, and that every particle of the real progress which has been made here must be conserved. But slowly it is coming to be recognized in our time that there is also a third step of progress which still remains to be taken. Scientific methods of administration, honesty, economy, etc., are all right, and must always be maintained as the established and fundamental details of business operation. But there is nevertheless a basic fallacy involved in the conception of the city as a mere business corporation. It

is all of that, we admit, but it is much more besides. And it is the gradual recognition of this fact, in the minds of charity workers, social reformers, physicians, clergymen, and enlightened city officials themselves, which is taking us into the third period of municipal development, where the city is regarded not essentially as a treasury to be plundered, nor yet as an elaborate business corporation to be managed, but as a great family to be guarded, guided, controlled and uplifted. The true conception of the city is that drawn, not after the pattern of the business office, but after the pattern of the home. The municipality is nothing but a great aggregation of people, confronted with the problem of living together within the more or less extended bounds of a common habitation. The municipality, in other words, is a community, which, as the very word implies, is based upon the conception of the common life. Now this means something more than matters of mere business administration—something more than problems of mere debit and credit in the city ledgers — something more than mere economy of expenditures, the stoppage of waste, the elimination of graft, and the abolition of corruption. It means that the city is "the steward of the public welfare" of hundreds of thousands of people. It means that the city is confronted by the problem of guarding and fostering the interests of all these people, both individually and collectively, just as the brothers and sisters in the home are charged with the task of guarding and fortifying their interests as members of a common household. It means that the machine of city administration is nothing but a mechanical device for enabling vast numbers of people to get together and achieve certain common tasks for fostering the common life. And, most important of all, it means, in terms of practical endeavor, that the basic policy of our city administration must be transformed. The ideal thing today is not a business administration, but a social administration; the ideal city official is not the business man, but the man whose whole life is aflame with the spirit of brotherhood; the ideal achievement of municipal rule is not economy, but the development of new sources of revenue and the construction of new channels of social expenditure. We are still, as I have said, in the period when a city administration believes that it can best justify itself by showing a reduction of the tax rate and a ten per cent cut in the annual budget—for this is the business ideal! But we are coming to a period, I trust, when a city administration will know that it can best justify itself by showing an increased tax rate, justly applied by new systems of taxation to the shoulders of those financially able and morally obligated to pay, and a ten per cent, twenty per cent, or even fifty per cent, increase of the budget for such works as are elementary necessities of the common welfare—for this is the family ideal of "each for all and all for each"!

Now it is the "new social conscience" of our time which is largely responsible for this new conception of the city as a family, faced with the problems of family life; and it is the people responsible for the development of this "new social conscience" who should make it their business to develop this new and resultant conception of municipal affairs. Our cities are today in the hands of business men, who with few exceptions have no ideals of administration beyond those of the business corporation; it remains, therefore, for these cities to be captured by the social workers. Just as the business man conquered and overthrew the politician, so now must the social idealist conquer and overthrow the business man. The end of the political period of city administration was the politician's confession that he was working for his own pocket; the end of the business period of city administration should be the business man's confession that he is working for economy. Economy is all right as a method of government, but all wrong as an ideal; and it is economy as an ideal which is now before us. What we need today are new sources of revenue, new and just systems of taxation, new and larger channels of social expenditure; and these will come as soon as the family conception of civic government becomes dominant in the public mind.

THE STORY OF A FENCE

From the Philadelphia North American

In the current number of THE SURVEY Francis H. McLean tells of El Paso's fence. Mr. McLean uses the story to illustrate the conditions in that border town, where our great empire of Texas meets the empire of Diaz.

It is related that when President Taft and President Diaz had their famous meeting in El Paso, the committee on arrangements discovered that the line of progress at one point was bordered by a most insolent and disreputable row of houses. These were the homes of the common laborers and others of that grade in El Paso. The houses were an offense to the committee's sense of the aesthetic and, we have no doubt, also to its sense of smell. This nest of squalor had been festering lo! these many, many years.

Now the committee on arrangements, as all committees on arrangements are, was composed of the best people of El Paso and the surrounding territory: the solid business men, the eminently respectable guardians of peace and prosperity and property rights. We take it that some of them owned large sections of the dilapidated tenements and had been drawing easy money from the tenants, perhaps for a generation. If this conjecture isn't true, it is only because El Paso is different from Philadelphia.

However, after enduring the sight and the smell of the adobe shacks for years, El Paso suddenly discovered that they were not a proper setting to a royal triumph. They didn't look well as a background for a presidential show.

But El Paso was equal to the occasion. It solved the problem with neatness and dispatch. It built a fence along the highway, so that the noisome shacks were hidden from view.

The shacks were still there, with all their power to breed disease, in all their menacing filth, in all their mute protest against the social and economic wrongs of which they are the product.

But they were hidden from sight of the distinguished visitors. El Paso was saved from embarrassment. Her slums did not mar the beauty of the stage picture.

If the reader has the slightest spark of imagination, he can see in his mind's eye how the eminently respectable and well-groomed committee became deeply interested in affairs of state as the procession passed that friendly fence. He may laugh a little at the desperate attempt of the good gentlemen to hide the insistent aroma of squalor under a cloud of loquacity. No doubt they convinced themselves that by talking fast and hard they kept the minds of the visitors off the miasma that arose from behind the fence.

If they didn't do this, it is because they are different from the eminently respectable men, their brothers in business, of Philadelphia.

And what has Philadelphia to do with El Paso's fence? Nothing, unless it be to compare notes as to the relative serviceability of that fence and of Philadelphia's fence.

"But," says the innocent reader, "Philadelphia has no fence." Yes; and a year ago the same innocent reader would have said that Philadelphia has no slums. That was a pleasing fiction, fondly circulated by Philadelphia's committee on arrangements, the men who keep the fence up. Yet an official report by investigators shocked us by saying that this city had a tenement problem second only to one other in the country.

This fact was widely published, despite the committee on arrangements. But Philadelphia sits contented in her comfortable homes, unmindful of the ghastly menace behind the fence, where disease and death walk hand in hand with squalor, where scanty food and polluted water and filthy air and ceaseless toil for elders and joyless childhood for the young ones conspire to undermine the very foundations of our social structure.

The committee on arrangements may talk long and hard about the blessings of the tariff and the wickedness of sowing discontent and the benevolence of the good men to whom God has intrusted the property interests of the country. But talk as they will, they cannot disguise

the fumes that steam up from behind their fence.

It is just a suggestion on our part. But wouldn't this Christmas season be a good time to break down the fence and let the community have a look at the dangers that lurk behind that flimsy wall of cant and fraud?

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT
Contributing Editor

UNEMPLOYMENT AND TRADE UNIONS. By Cyril Jackson. Longmans, Green and Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 92. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 55 cents.

In Great Britain the problem of unemployment has for some time been a political issue. The question now is the practical one of choosing measures for bringing about reforms which all admit are needed.

Reviewing the measures which have been tried or suggested—relief works, labor exchanges, unemployment insurance, better distribution of work, and so on—Mr. Jackson concludes that in each case success must depend on management by trade unions or their cooperation; and that the only remedies for unemployment that have been tested by experience and have proved successful are those which trade unions have worked out for their own members. He therefore advances the novel, though simple, idea that the government should subsidize the unions for the purpose of extending their methods.

Such a strengthening of the unions as this plan would entail is not likely to commend itself strongly to the British employers, since they do not generally share the author's confidence in the unions. On the other hand, the course laid out for the unions to pursue, in order to get the government's support and subsidies, will hardly appeal to the labor men, since they are counselled to abandon their political activities. It is not probable, therefore, that the scheme will find favor widely.

REVIEW OF LEGISLATION. 1907-8. Edited by Clarence B. Lester, legislative reference librarian, New York State Library. Education Department Bulletin No. 479. September 15, 1910. Price 25 cents.

The topical review of legislation by the different states on a selected list of important topics, which the University of the State of New York has compiled and published for a number of years, is now available for the two-year period ending October 1, 1908. With this number the plan is adopted of issuing the review bi-annually, as in many states the legislature meets only every other year. While the reasons for adopting this plan are obvious it is equally obvious that it will increase still further the interval between the enactment of much of the legislation and the time at which this review is given to the public.

STORY TELLING—WHAT TO TELL AND HOW TO TELL IT. By Edna Lyman. A. C. McClurg and Company. Chicago. 1910. Pp. 227. Price 70 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY, 76 cents.

This looks like a useful little book for anyone who has occasion to practice the art of story telling either as a vocation or as an avocation, in the home, at school, at church, on the playground, in the public library, or in any of the other many places which are being affected by the recent revival of this world-old educational method.

TENEMENT HOUSE INSPECTION. By George M. Price, M. D. The Chief Publishing Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 287. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.58.

Dr. Price has rewritten, and, as he modestly hopes, improved his text-book for candidates for positions of inspector and clerk in the New York Tenement House Department, which were first published in 1904. Pages 127-204 contain the questions which have been asked in the civil service examinations for these positions in the last eight years, and also answers to them.

THE FAMILY HEALTH. By Myer Solis-Cohen, M. D. The Penn Publishing Company. Philadelphia. 1910. Pp. 267. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

This is a handy book of practical medical suggestions, intended for the education of the lay mind, by a well known medical writer. Among the seventeen chapters are those on The Dwelling, Civic and Domestic Hygiene, Insect and Animal Carriers of Disease, Bathing, Clothing, The Mind and the Nervous System, The Eyes and Ears, Food, The Care of the Infant, Domestic Medicine and Emergencies.

A great many subjects are briefly presented in a very clear and instructive way, but it is possible that the treatment is altogether too brief, that is, that the author has attempted too broad a subject in this small volume. One totally ignorant of medical subjects would gain a very clear, if limited, idea of medicine. But there is today no very large number of persons who are totally ignorant of these subjects. The daily papers and the journals have been careful to offer a variety of opinions, and many of the general public who are interested in medical matters believe that their knowledge of certain medical problems is quite equal to that of any doctor. For this reason a book on popular medicine is valuable, not so much as a source of new facts, but in proportion as it can correct erroneous notions. The layman with erroneous notions is not convinced by a simple statement by a

doctor of a medical truth, albeit the statement may be quite accurate. He requires a volume for each of several of the subjects treated in this book, and so, although the author has given very telling figures to make convincing his opinion on some of the most hotly disputed topics, it seems on the whole inadequate, and it is unfortunately not illustrated at all.

THE DIARY OF A SHIRTWAIST STRIKER. By Theresa Serber Malkiel. New York. 1910. The Co-Operative Press. Pp. 96. Price 25 cents (paper) 50 cents (cloth); by mail of THE SURVEY 5 cents extra.

Mrs. Malkiel was not herself one of the shirtwaist strikers, and her book does not sound, to many who were in close touch with them last winter, like a *bona-fide* account of the strike written from day to day by an American-born working girl who participated in it. It is really a story of the conversion of a shirtwaist maker and her "steady" to socialism in the course of the strike, and no opportunity is lost to make bitter comments on every element of society except the "working people" "A certain socialist's impression of the strike" is what the author has really given to the world in this publication.

COMMUNICATIONS

NIGHT MESSENGER SERVICE

TO THE EDITOR:

During the past year the National Child Labor Committee has engaged in an extensive investigation of child labor in the night messenger service. The reports were placed in the hands of local committees in a number of states, resulting in some instances in the enactment of restrictive laws. The most advanced of these was a law passed by the New York Legislature, providing that no minor child in cities of the first and second class should be employed at this occupation between ten o'clock P. M. and five o'clock A. M. This bill was not opposed by any of the companies engaged in the messenger business, but evidently some friends of the industry are not satisfied.

The *Telegraph and Telephone Age* for October contained an editorial denouncing as radical and unreasonable the legislation on night messenger service in New York and elsewhere secured by the National Child Labor Committee with the co-operation of other organizations[1]. The editorial was widely distributed among newspapers and extensively reprinted. On October 7 the New York Child Labor Committee published in the *Evening Post* a carefully prepared reply in which the chief grounds of objection to the employment of young boys at night were set forth and the argument reduced to the simple proposition whether the employment of minors after 10 o'clock at night as telegraph messengers is a desirable occupation.

This statement elicits another editorial in the current issue of the *Telegraph and Telephone Age*, which accepts the challenge and says "there are several interesting points for analysis in this statement of the case."

Proceeding to the analysis, the editor asks three direct questions, to which we are glad to respond without hesitation:

1. "Are the morals of youth any more in danger at the age of sixteen than at twenty-one?" Answer: Yes.

2. "Are the morals of a city more vicious at 10 o'clock than at 9 o'clock?" Answer: Morals are never vicious. Immoral forces in large cities are notoriously more unbridled late at night and presumably there is more danger at 10 o'clock than at 9 o'clock. Those familiar with the evidence gathered, however, would welcome prohibition of this service at 9 o'clock if the editor prefers.

3. "Is the delivery of a telegram at night a more undesirable occupation than the delivery of newspapers or the early morning milk?" Answer: (*a*) Delivery of "a telegram" is a small part of the night messenger's work. The bulk of his service is in gathering and delivering other kinds of messages and performing other kinds of service, not only to and from, but within gambling houses, saloons, houses of prostitution and other equally undesirable places. (*b*) We do not commend the present condition of newspaper delivery. The unrestricted exposure of little boys to this unnecessary work is a reproach to nearly every large American city. (*c*) Nor do we approve the exploitation of the little child or half-grown youth in "delivery of the early morning milk." The profits in the milk business are without doubt sufficient to warrant employment of adults in places now so frequently occupied by children for whom it is far more appropriate as a diet than as a burden.

The editor then proceeds to argue on two assumptions: first, he says, "We assume that the committee now pressing this child labor legislation is actuated by motives to safeguard the morals not only of minors, but also of those past legal age." The assumption is unfounded. The committee which made and published the results of this investigation is a child labor committee. However deeply interested its individual members may be in conserving the health and morals of our general citizenship, it recognizes that as a committee its interest must be confined to those legally wards of the state, viz: those under twenty-one years of age.

The second assumption has better foundation. He says, "We assume that the committee takes into consideration the important feature of not destroying the earning power of the embryo citizen." Precisely, and although the wreckage of juvenile character as a result of contamination in this service has received more publicity than any other feature of the problem, the committee regards the economic aspects of the night messenger service para-

[1] See THE SURVEY for October 8.

mount. It is because this particular kind of work ordinarily contributes to "destroying the earning power of the embryo citizen" that we look upon it with disfavor. If the service from the beginning paid an adequate wage, or if it offered a sure road to industrial efficiency, many would doubtless condone its menace to character and health in view of the economic advantage to be gained. It is therefore fortunate that the thirst of our people for industrial achievement finds no bulwark here. There are forms of labor in which a child may wisely be employed at sixteen or even fourteen years of age, under proper regulations. The night messenger service, to the majority of boys, is an industrial blind alley. Instead of being an avenue to higher industrial opportunities, the work leaves the boy at the end of one or five years as undeveloped industrially as when he began. Meanwhile his years have been absorbed, his energy sapped, his sensibilities blunted, and his ideals shattered.

The editor of the *Age* next attempts to lay upon us the burden of eradicating the so-called social evil, of putting an end to all gambling and disorderly houses; or if immoral conditions, must exist, asks: "Why should not the committee work to have them confined to a certain designated district from which young and tender messengers should be prohibited"? Certainly a modest contract! Again we disclaim responsibility, as a child labor committee, for eradicating evils that have baffled the foremost experts in social reform. We may lay claim, however, to a serious attempt to place such restriction about growing youth that the exigencies of their employment shall not force them into immediate contact with these vices.

The public cannot be led astray by the contention that "of the total amount of duty which a messenger boy must do at night, more than ninety per cent is of an advantageous character" nor that the service "is healthful outdoor work, far better physically than indoor confinement". Whenever the question has been fairly put the public has not been slow to decide whether the purchase of opium for prostitutes, guiding strangers to haunts of vice, catering to gamblers and drunkards, is of an "advantageous character." If the editor of the *Telegraph and Telephone Age* has any statistics to controvert this evidence, he will oblige us by submitting them. We admit that it is outdoor work, and we hold no brief for the "indoor confinement" at night of children and growing youth. But we have no evidence that the kind of outdoor work required in this service, exposing to all sorts of weather conditions, is better physically than even indoor confinement.

The editor closes with a statement he regards as final. He says: "Men will not work as messengers. Only the semblance of men will take the job." This is certainly not complimentary to the business. The answer to the charge is that since October 1 men *are* employed in this city, and so far as we know, with satisfaction to their employers and to the public. Of course the wages are small, for it has always passed as a "boy's job." But we have thus far discovered no kind of employment in which real men are unwilling to engage if the compensation is attractive. It was acknowledged by one of the representatives of a messenger company that their wage scale represents twenty-five dollars a month to messengers. We know of instances in which night messengers are paid not to exceed eighteen dollars a month and we cheerfully submit to the citizens of this country that no industry has a right to utilize the time and strength of our youth without rendering financial compensation sufficient to purchase food and shelter. The industry which fails to do this is partly parasitic, depending upon public charity, emergency hospitals, relief societies, reformatories and public poorhouses to supply the differential between what they pay and a living wage. A service which cannot pay its employes more than twenty-five dollars a month should be re-constructed on a higher economic plane, or abandoned altogether. If, however, public opinion is not sufficiently advanced to demand such a step, we suggest that cripples, elderly persons, industrial misfits and others beyond the probability of being tempted to wrong-doing, and to whom the meager wage would be a welcome alternative to their present poverty, might well be substituted for growing boys.

OWEN R. LOVEJOY,
General Secretary,
National Child Labor Committee.
New York.

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BOOKS OF SPECIAL INTER

Four books published by Charities Publication Committee fill spaces hitherto unoccupie social worker's library shelves. All are finishing a successful first year with early prosp demand for second editions—in the case of Social Forces, a third edition.

OUR SLAVIC FELLOW CITIZENS, by Emily Greene Balch, of Faculty of Wellesley College. Price $2.50

Miss Balch was uniquely qualified to write a study, both critical and interpretive, of these newer elements in our immigrant stock. She spent one year in the peasant villages of Austria-Hungary and another as a resident in the home of a Slavic workman in New York. The book has received unusual attention at the hands of reviewers in such critical journals as "The London Spectator," "The New York Sun" and "The Springfield Republican." It is profusely illustrated with maps, charts, tables, photographs by the author and by Hine and reproductions of old portraits and paintings. Large 8vo, 550 pages, handsomely bound in bright Slavic red.

HOW TWO HUNDRED CHILDREN LIVE AND LEARN, by Rudolph R. Reeder, Superintendent New York Orphan Asylum at Hastings-on-Hudson. Price $1.25

A uniquely interesting description of what is probably the best known "cottage plan" institution for children in this country. Dr. Reeder approaches his subject from the viewpoint of an institution superintendent, a school teacher, a social worker and a father. His thoughtful plans for making each cottage a real home and for developing in the children the sort of training which will fit for life and labor as well as for graduation, has been hailed by a number of writers as something that could profitably be applied to every household in the land.

VISITING NURSING IN THE UNITED STATES, by Yssabella Waters of the Henry Street (Nurses') Settlement, New York. Price $1.25

Miss Waters' book gives a brief history of visiting nursing and a concise description of the organization, the history and the current work of all visiting nurse associations in the country and in department stores, factories, women's clubs and other organizations which maintain visiting nurses. It appeared during the year which marked the fiftieth anniversary of the movement and was also the year of Florence Nightingale's death. Miss Waters writes from a long experience as a resident of the Nurses' Settlement in New York, the pioneer institution in this country. The book is of the greatest interest and value to those interested in visiting nursing, and is indispensable to one planning the organization of such work.

SOCIAL FORCES, by Edward T. Devine, Editor The Survey, General Secretary New York Charity Organization Society, Schiff Professor of Social Economy, Columbia University. Price $1.25

This little book, uniquely printed and bound in brown Japan paper over boards, comprises twenty-six of Dr. Devine's editorials written for "The Survey" under the title "Social Forces." Only those which had a lasting value were chosen. It includes his New View, The Right View of the Child, The Social Ideal, The New View of Poverty, The Breadline, A Christmas Survey, What We Believe, and other of his most widely quoted essays.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

FIRE RELIEF IN MINNESOTA

The report of Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, on the relief work following the forest fires in Minnesota in October, shows an exceptional degree of effective co-operation in bringing about just the right results. Local, state and national authorities secured and administered prompt and adequate relief—the contributions reached $75,000; a threatened epidemic of typhoid and possibilities of disorder were averted; a permanent relief plan was quickly schemed out and applied; and the district, inhabited almost entirely by thrifty Scandinavian immigrants, is already half on its feet again.

The fire started on October 7, and driven by a high wind quickly burned over an area estimated by the State Forestry Board at 1,600 square miles. Governor Adolph O. Eberhart of Minnesota, president of the Minnesota Board of the Red Cross, promptly issued a temporary proclamation calling for funds, sent to the burned district two companies of the national guard, to which later two more were added, called to the front a relief committee composed of Attorney General George Simpson, Secretary Joseph H. Beek of the St. Paul Manufacturers and Jobbers' Association and Eugene T. Lies, secretary of the Minneapolis Associated Charities, who is also the institutional member of the Red Cross for Minnesota. The governor designated men, including the mayors of all cities, to receive contributions of money, provisions and clothing, and the next day went to the scene of disaster himself. The next day Mr. Bicknell was there with him. The railroads carried supplies free and local relief committees were widely organized.

The burned district was pretty thoroughly stripped of all houses, farm buildings and machinery, cut logs and sawed timber, and the live stock and standing timber were killed. About thirty persons lost their lives, mostly on remote clearings. Many were saved by crawling into root cellars and standing in the streams.

The only villages of importance were Beaudette, with 1,150 inhabitants, and Spooner, 850, separated by a small stream. These were completely destroyed except for the sawmill, Spooner's sole industry. Pitt and Graceton, tiny hamlets of forty and twenty-five inhabitants, were wiped out. The farms and little clearings which characterize the district were primitive, but often represented years of the hardest sort of pioneer contest with the wilderness. In all about 2,500 people lost their homes, with little insurance, for which the rates are almost prohibitive.

Donahey in Cleveland Plain Dealer.

"SAY JIMMY, LET'S TAKE DIS LOAD TO LIMPY BILL'S MUDDER."

The relief problem was complicated at Beaudette by a recent epidemic of typhoid, but prompt action by the State Board of Health, backed up by the militia, prevented a serious situation in this and other sanitary matters.

Liquor selling was promptly prohibited, but did not become effective until the guardsmen took possession of the international bridge over Rainy river from Canada to stop the smuggling of bottles.

REACHING THE SCATTERED FARMS

Relief and sanitary work in the villages was quickly put on an effective basis, but there were great difficulties to overcome in reaching the scattered homesteads. Mr. Bicknell reported:

> It was necessary to send expeditions in all directions to search for persons who might be sick or injured, to recover bodies, and to carry relief and medical supplies to those unable to reach relief centers. The wind and fire had blocked the forest roads with tangled masses of fallen trees. In one instance fifteen axemen, working day and night, were two days in reaching a small settlement twelve miles from Beaudette with a wagon load of supplies. Large numbers of horses, cows and other domestic animals had been killed by the fire and it became necessary to organize gangs of men to search for and bury them. The men of the community were pressed into service in the work of burying dead animals, clearing up the ruins, destroying infected outhouses and building new ones, unpacking and distributing supplies, etc. In most instances their services were given cheerfully, but in some cases it became necessary for the military authorities to compel men to help.

A tentative program of permanent relief, worked out by the men on the ground, was adopted by the state board of the Red Cross, Archbishop Ireland presiding. Its administration was placed in the hands of a special committee composed of W. A. McGonagle, president of the Duluth, Missabe and Northern Railroad, chairman; Mr. Beek and Mr. Lies. The executive officer is Colonel F. E. Resche, chief probation officer at Duluth, who had been in the burned district as an officer of the National Guard. Temporary houses had been built, the Treasury Department co-operating by waiving customs duty on lumber from Canada, the only source of a quick supply. The permanent relief plan had for its main feature the building of houses—a prime need in that northern climate. Building operations are going on vigorously, largely by the men themselves under direction of carpenters. Some are able and willing to rebuild their own homes, and to those who prefer log houses the committee gives doors, windows, hardware and lumber for roofs and floors. A warehouse and administrative headquarters have been established, typhoid checked, the guardsmen practically all withdrawn, the local banks reopened for business in temporary buildings erected over their vaults, which escaped the fire and, in Mr. Bicknell's words, "a general air of activity and industry has taken the place of the idleness and depression of the first few days after the fire." Barring unforeseen obstacles, no further relief will be needed beyond an appropriation for seeds and agricultural implements which will be asked of the Legislature.

HALF MILLION RELIEF GIVEN

At the annual meeting on December 6 it was reported that during the past year the Red Cross has assisted in the relief of sufferers from the storm at Key West, Fla.; the mine fire at Cherry, Ill.; mine explosions at Mulga and Palos, Ala.; and forest fires in Idaho, Montana, Washington and Minnesota. In all 506 lives were lost and 7,500 people required immediate help. The Red Cross expended $196,000 in relief and $218,000 more was spent in conjunction with it, making a total of $414,000 for relief in the United States by the organization or through its leadership. It contributed, also, to the sufferers from floods in France, Servia and Japan, and from the earthquake in Costa Rica. Relief was given sufferers from Armenian massacres, and to the captured army of President Zelaya of Nicaragua, which consisted largely of boys from twelve to fourteen who were found in a starving condition. The total contributions to foreign disasters were $66,500, making the total disbursements for the year amount to $480,500.

Encouraging progress toward the endowment fund of $2,000,000 was reported, the committee in New York announcing that it had secured $510,000. Thirty-six states have thus far organized under the new plan, with a board of representa-

tive men in each state who are to be custodians of Red Cross funds and advisers in the conduct of relief measures within their states. The value of such boards has been practically demonstrated during the year. Fifteen charity organization societies have been appointed institutional members, under pledge to lend trained social workers to the Red Cross for executive work in administering relief. During the year such service has been rendered by the Atlanta Associated Charities, the Chicago United Charities, the Cincinnati Associated Charities and the Minneapolis Associated Charities.

PRIVATE HOSPITALS TRY CO-OPERATIVE BUYING

The first report has been issued by the fourteen larger private hospitals in New York which united to maintain a joint bureau of standards and supplies. This marks the initiation of a broad effort at co-operation, which it is believed would prove of great benefit for city and private hospitals in other places to duplicate.

The bureau has made careful investigations to ascertain the requirements of members, and qualities, quantities and sources of supply of different materials used by each. This has been followed by the obtaining of samples, standardization of requirement, drawing up of specifications, and securing and passing upon competitive bids, as preliminary to closing an agreement with the selected supplier. In little over half a year twenty-one agreements were closed for the purchase of about twenty-five different articles. These differ in form from those in ordinary commercial use, but now that the system has been put in operation the work will progress more rapidly.

The agreements are of two classes, local and general. Those in the first group, for such articles as ice, coal, and meats, are advantageous to hospitals within New York, but are not directly useful elsewhere except as a basis of comparative reference or for specifications for independent purchases. General agreements for articles such as gauze, incandescent lamps, paints, blankets, towels and drugs contain special provisions for deliveries outside New York. By a system of non-resident membership the usefulness of the bureau could be made widespread.

The plan of operation involves no interference with hospital autonomy, as orders under the agreements negotiated by the bureau are placed directly by the individual hospital. The expenses of the bureau are slightly less than $12,000 a year and a staff of four suffices for the work. The hospitals contribute to its support in proportion to their total current annual expenses.

The full success of the bureau could be assured by increased membership, which would reduce the proportionate expense of each participant and afford a larger buying capacity and thereby make it easier to negotiate purchasing agreements. Very considerable savings have already been effected by the members, according to the report, and the results show that co-operation in standardization and combination in purchasing are of benefit to hospitals as well as in the business world.

OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS NO LONGER MERE "FAD"

The opening of windows in a Providence school not quite three years ago was so novel a feat that the whole country watched. Newspapers reported it at length and committees came to inspect. The example set by Providence has been followed from coast to coast. Now the open-air school is almost taken for granted. In 1908 three cities had outdoor schools, in 1909, five; at present there are twenty-seven schools and some fifteen or sixteen cities have adopted this new feature of an educational system.

Boston, New York, Chicago, Hartford and Rochester, the pioneers after Providence, have had a number of imitators in the last few months. Pawtucket, R. I., besides establishing a very fine open-air school, has adopted the progressive policy, which also prevails in Boston, of including an open-air room in each new school building. Montclair, N. J., has started a school in a tent, which has attracted wide newspaper attention. In Orange, N. J., the new open-air school is run under the joint auspices of the

Board of Education, the Health Department and the Bureau of Associated Charities. These supply respectively teacher, medical inspection, and supervision of the special diet which it is customary to give the children in these schools. A somewhat similar plan is being started in Philadelphia.

Washington, D. C., Milwaukee, Wis., Albany and Buffalo, N. Y., and Oakland, Cal., have recently adopted the new gospel of fresh air for school children. In Detroit Superintendent Martindale has ordered that on pleasant days all classes in schools with large enough playgrounds shall be held outdoors.

A host of cities are seriously considering the opening of fresh-air schools, among which are Atlanta, Brockton, Columbus, Erie, Grand Rapids, Mich., Minneapolis, Newark, Toledo and Wilkesbarre. Pittsburgh has an open-air school supported by private funds and Philadelphia a private tuition school for normal pupils conducted out-of-doors.

The progress and spread of open-air schools seem to be pretty well assured. In another three years there will probably be such schools in fifty cities.

SOUNDING THE KNELL OF COMMON DRINKING CUP

Examinations in Hartford of 2,000 children suffering from sore throats, showed in nearly a third true diphtheria germs. In Minnesota the inspection of throats of thousands of apparently healthy people disclosed virulent diphtheria germs in nearly one per cent. Such discoveries led to agitation against the common drinking cup.

Recently THE SURVEY noted that drinking utensils for common use are prohibited in streets, public parks, hotels, theaters, public schools, railroad stations, trains, and ferryboats in seven states. In California the pupils publicly smashed and buried every common drinking vessel in each school building the day the new rule went into effect. Sixteen railroad companies now provide individual drinking cups. Forty state boards of health have condemned the public cup.

Some of the cities which have passed ordinances on the subject are St. Louis, Portland, Ore.; Boise, Ida.; Little Rock, Ark.; Wheeling, W. Va.; Fargo, N. D.; Colorado Springs, Camden, S. C.; Elgin, Ill.; Childress, Tex.; New Rochelle, N. Y.; Georgetown, Pa.; Rutland, Vt.; Syracuse, N. Y.; Warwick, R. I., and Cranston, R. I.

The Colfax school district in Pittsburgh from public funds has supplied individual cups to 800 pupils. St. Louis has taken advanced measures to enforce the sterilization of cups, glasses, forks and spoons in all hotels, restaurants, bars and soda fountains, which is an added step much needed.

To make the reform effective it is necessary not only to abolish the old style drinking cup, but to afford proper facilities for obtaining individual cups. In Wisconsin and Massachusetts this fall people have been seen using the cover of a water tank as a drinking cup while others have put their lips to the faucet. Apparently containers must be provided that will make it impossible for unconventional people to pollute the water supply.

While the new laws apply to public fountains and not to drinking places in factories, many of these are voluntarily adopting sanitary drinking systems. A corset shop in Worcester employing 1,500 persons has installed, at a cost of $5,000, a system of forty drinking fountains in the different departments. The water is filtered and passed through an ice-making machine and then is conducted through brass pipes to different parts of the establishment. It is drawn from bubbling fountains which make a cup unnecessary.

The factory inspector of Rhode Island has recently sent out requests to the factories to have cupless attachments placed on their faucets. He claims that the state law requiring that fresh drinking water of good quality be supplied includes the prevention of contamination up to the time it reaches the lips of those using it. This is perhaps the first case where such a request from a state officer has come from one other than the health commissioner.

The crusade for sanitary drinking arrangements, which has led the makers of a popular beverage to supply a paper cup with each five-cent drink, has passed beyond the stage where it was popularly regarded as a Kansas freak, for it was that state which passed the first regulation. The public can do much to help. A soda fountain which put in individual cups to be used if the purchaser requests, serves ninety-nine drinks in glasses to one in the sanitary paper cups, in spite of a conspicuous sign offering them. If there were a demand for them, other fountains would have to follow suit. And a very small protest, we must believe, would displace the single glass which, in the lobby of the New York Academy of Medicine, serves the doctors and such of the laymen as attend meetings on medicine and sanitation.

PLAN TO PRACTICE BUSINESS ETHICS

An organization with an ethical philosophy behind it and an ethical purpose ahead of it has been formed by some of the business men who are members of the Ethical Culture Society of New York. At present it is in the nature of a voluntary committee holding periodic meetings in the new meeting house at the corner of Sixty-fourth street and Central Park West. Stated succinctly, its purpose is this: first, to understand, and then to put into practice, business ethics. The members comprise heads of manufacturing and commercial establishments in New York city.

The organization, according to the statements of its founders, is not one with a definite social program. It has not armed itself with preconceived ideas of reform. It is an outgrowth of the ethical philosophy which briefly put teaches that the individual born into this world is surrounded with social duties; that these duties center in the paramount obligation to aid in the harmonious, all-embracing development of human society; and that the performance of these duties constitutes the chief object of existence. The movement roots in this conception. It is therefore nothing hasty or ephemeral or superficial. Its desire is that its efforts shall fructify in the application by the members in their own business of those ethical principles which are espoused by them as members of the Ethical Culture Society.

At present the committee is engaged in informing itself, through lectures and discussions, as to the best that is being done in civilized countries by employers for their employes; in a word, as to welfare work affecting the wage-earner. It is the object of the members to acquaint themselves thoroughly with the immediate conditions under which employes, especially their own, are forced to live. They frankly admit that at present their knowledge of their employes does not extend beyond the wage they pay them. To go beyond the payroll into the family circle, to discover what sort of home the payroll creates—this is the more immediate plan of the committee. Social cooperation and mutual assistance are fundamental working principles in its activities.

It is hoped that as a result of this campaign of education ways may be opened, both to members of the committee and to other employers, for the removal of those limitations which today render the lives of thousands of families socially undesirable and mock at the ideal of an harmoniously developed community. To make the life of each employe a social asset is the practical aim of the organization.

THE SOCIAL IMPORTANCE OF MAGISTRATES' COURTS

The importance of magistrates' courts from the standpoint of humanitarianism and citizenship was brought out strongly by Alfred R. Page at the New York State Conference of Magistrates at Albany. Mr. Page spoke as a justice of the Supreme Court, and as chairman of the state commission which thrashed out the whole question of minor courts in New York city and resulted in the Page law, which worked great improvements in their organization and administration.

The minor courts include the usual police or magistrates courts, the juvenile courts, and the Court of Domestic Rela-

tions. They form an institution capable of working the greatest social good or ill. Their responsibility is especially great, Mr. Page said, in cases of immigrants whose whole conception of our government often depends on their experience with our police and police courts. A mistake made in a higher court may be overruled in the Court of Appeals, but a mistake in a lower court usually stands uncorrected. In scarcely any other court does the personality of the judge count for so much.

In that he gave the cue for, without expressing, the dissatisfaction which social workers feel for the personality of many magistrates. Partly because of the law, partly for lack of appropriate institutions and efficient probation, and often largely because of their personal attitude, they have been the stronghold of the antiquated system of petty fines and short repeated sentences which shows up badly, for instance, in such a study as was printed in the inebriety issue of THE SURVEY.[1] It was all the more to the credit of the conference, therefore, that it voted to bring to the attention of the Legislature the need for enlarging the State Training School for Girls at Hudson. As a whole the magistrates have been most reluctant to commit girls to Hudson and women to Bedford Reformatory on indeterminate sentences.

This Albany conference was the second such gathering of magistrates in New York, which shares with Massachusetts and Michigan the credit of meetings at which the judges of minor courts gather to discuss methods and procedure. Forty magistrates from twenty-six cities and nine villages, and representatives of the State Probation Commission were present. The meetings resulted in a permanent organization which will seek to study and confer about the problems of the inferior courts of the state and to promote desirable legislation. The president is Police Justice John J. Brady of Albany; the vice-president, Magistrate Otto Kempner of New York; and the secretary-treasurer, Arthur W. Towne, secretary of the State Probation Commission.

Resolutions were passed urging the press not to publish names and descriptions of children taken before the juvenile courts; and recommending that the state establish a reformatory for male misdemeanants, a colony for vagrants, and special institutions for inebriates. There was an interesting discussion of the use of the summons to avoid unnecessary arrests. Judge McAdoo declared the plan had worked well in New York under the Page law, and a resolution was passed urging the Legislature to authorize such practice throughout the state in children's and other suitable cases.

[1] October 5, 1910.

MOUTH HYGIENE MASS MEETING

Careful examination and especially actual treatment of the decayed teeth of school children is a phase of medical inspection which is getting more and more attention. In Rochester, N. Y., the dental society, which with the assistance of the health association and the Board of Education has maintained a free dental clinic for five years, conducted a three weeks' campaign in the public and parochial schools, which ended with a mouth hygiene mass meeting in Convention Hall. Forty schools were visited, and lectures illustrated with 200 views delivered. A small booklet containing reasons for keeping the teeth clean was given to each child. Dentists from all over the country contributed their services. Dr. John P. Corley of Sewanee, Tenn., and William H. Allen of New York were the principal speakers from outside the city. One of the schools gave a special toothbrush drill at the mass meeting, at which the mayor awarded to the dental society the prize of $1,000 given by William Hodge for the most deserving charity in the city.

The Associated Charities of Spokane, Wash., last fall conducted a free dental clinic for children at the City Hall. In Los Angeles the dental association built a bungalow on the grounds of the Children's Hospital, where it gives professional services free of charge to children whose parents are unable to have the work done at regular prices, and who are recommended as being eligible for treat-

ment by the Children's Hospital Committee of the Los Angeles Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations. In Philadelphia, though for years the medical inspectors have reported cases of decayed teeth, it was not until this fall that practical measures were taken to see that the recommendations the doctors made were followed. A number of dentists volunteered their services and many children were brought to the City Hall to be treated. In Indianapolis the Board of Health is beginning to devote special attention to the inspection of teeth, largely through the efforts of Dr. George E. Hunt. These are a few of the instances throughout the country that show an awakening to the importance of having sound teeth to ensure good health.

MUNICIPAL COMMISSION ON NEGLECTED CHILDREN

After careful inquiry made over the whole country, through correspondence, personal interviews, and investigations, the St. Louis Commission on Delinquent, Dependent and Defective Children has outlined its report to be made in February to the Municipal Assembly. The field is inclusive because of a rather remarkable ordinance reading in part: "An ordinance to create a commission to investigate and report as to the best method of the care and education of delinquent, dependent and defective children of the city of St. Louis, and the best plan for the removal and re-organization of the St. Louis Industrial School, and to make an appropriation to pay the expenses and outlays which may thereby be incurred."

The ordinance was the outcome of a conference between the Board of Education, an independent body, and representatives from both houses of the Municipal Assembly. Though the resulting ordinance establishing the commission is extremely broad in scope, the conference was called principally to devise some method for the removal and reorganization of the city's Industrial School. This is an old congregate institution, built in 1850-60, which houses under two separate departments 200 delinquent and 300 dependent children from three to seventeen years old. The Board of Education conducts the school of the institution under contract. Although the institution is well administered, social workers have all, at one time or another, advocated its removal to the country. The report also involves the work of the Board of Education so far as these groups of children are concerned.

HARTFORD REGULATES CHILD STREET-TRADES

For a number of years attempts have been made to secure city ordinances to regulate the street trades in Hartford and New Haven, Conn., and twice bills to the same effect have been introduced in the Legislature, but all such regulation has been systematically opposed by one of Connecticut's leading papers, the Hartford *Times,* which employs about thirty-five newsgirls. For some months past the Juvenile Commission of Hartford, a kind of local children's bureau chartered in 1909, and some interested members of the Consumers' League of New Haven have been at work on an ordinance for both cities, which was passed in Hartford by unanimous vote and accomplishes for that city what the friends of children have worked so long to secure. The text is both simple and brief:

> No child under the age of ten years shall be allowed to sell, offer for sale, or distribute any article of merchandise on the public streets or in any public place within the city. No child between the ages of ten and fourteen years shall be allowed to sell, offer for sale, or distribute any article of merchandise during the hours in which the public schools are in session, or later than eight o'clock in the evening, or until such child shall have obtained a badge or permit so to do from the superintendent of schools. Said license shall be issued without fee and in the discretion of said superintendent, under such restrictions as he shall deem expedient, and shall be revocable at his pleasure; provided, however, that no child shall be discriminated against or refused such license solely on the ground of sex. Application for such license shall be made in the child's behalf by his parent, guardian, or next friend.

The commission published its first annual report March 31. Its first work was to investigate everything that was

being done in the city for children, either by public or organized private effort, and its report gives the results of this investigation. It discovered 883 children between fourteen and sixteen years of age out of school and presumably at work, 487 of whom were at work in factories and stores. The plan of the commission is to co-operate with all the agencies already at work, referring to them cases which come to its knowledge and belong under their jurisdiction.

The success which seems to have been so easily won is probably due to the high estimation in which the members of the commission are held, to the thoroughness of its work, and to the co-operation of the committee on ordinances and the mayor.

The clause regarding newsgirls was included on the principle, that so long as it could not be proved they were demoralized by the work they should be permitted to go on with it. The evidence gathered has shown that "the Hartford newsgirls are a pretty good sort of girl after all." The fight to prohibit them from selling papers has been going on for something like twenty years.

ALICE WILLARD SOLENBERGER

ERNEST P. BICKNELL

Alice Willard Solenberger died at her home in Landsdowne, Pa., on Thursday, December 15, 1910. Behind this simple announcement is the story of a rarely useful and beautiful life, ended just as it rounded into a rich maturity.

Ten years ago Alice Willard was in charge of the central district of the Chicago Bureau of Charities. This district embraced the downtown section of the city and contained a great number of cheap lodging houses for men as well as other resorts into which gathered, particularly in winter, larger numbers of drifting, homeless, degenerating men and boys. Into the noisome stagnation of these institutions came unsophisticated young men from the country, lads who had run away from home, broken men on the borderline of crime, professional beggars and fakirs, petty criminals, sturdy laborers who in the summer had earned a little money in the harvest fields of the Northwest or on the lakes, and had come to spend the winter in idleness or in a vain search for employment.

Many hundreds of these men and boys within two or three years wandered into Alice Willard's little office. Some required food, clothing, or medical care. Others pretended need. All found a welcome and a friend, but none a dupe or victim. Those who went to deceive surprised themselves by telling her the truth. A confidence-impelling power was hers which often led to the most unexpected results. Beggars and tramps, confirned in their manner of life, gave her the real facts about their homes and families and transgressions. More than one hardened fellow became her ally, and helped her search out the young boys and persuade them to go home to their parents. She had so many sources of information that her power of securing hidden facts from the lodging houses and saloons and dark places seemed almost uncanny.

It was a logical development that Alice Willard became especially interested in those stubborn problems which make the homeless man one of the most difficult obstacles in the path of social betterment. With unusual opportunities for the collection and study of data and with admirable thoroughness and patience, she gradually gathered together a body of information of the greatest value. Throughout the eleven offices of the Bureau of Charities all the superintendents and visitors knew that Alice Willard was the authority on homeless men, and her advice was in constant demand. Eventually an order was issued that all homeless men applying for help in any office of the bureau should be sent to the office of the central district. Here was a cheerful, attractive, fun-loving and wholly normal young woman, unquestionably recognized as the most skillful and best informed person in a city of two million people in all matters pertaining to homeless men and boys.

It was while both were connected with the Chicago Bureau of Charities, about

seven years ago, that Alice Willard and Edwin D. Solenberger were married. Although her active relation to the bureau ended, Mrs. Solenberger lost none of her interest in efforts for social betterment and continued her study of the problems of the homeless man. When Mr. Solenberger's appointment as general manager of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis required their removal to that city, Mrs. Solenberger entered actively and influentially into social movements there, and later became a strong and helpful member of the social workers' group in Philadelphia, after her husband had become general secretary of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society.

The valuable data which Mrs. Solenberger had collected upon the subject of homeless men and the unusual success of her work in their behalf led the Russell Sage Foundation to invite her to prepare a book embodying her knowledge and views upon this topic. It is stated that the manuscript for the book was recently completed and that it will soon be published.

Mrs. Solenberger was of a high type of womanhood. Large minded, deeply and actively interested in many movements making for social improvement, she was yet a devoted mother who brought to her family the patience and tenderness and wisdom which must make of her home a fragrant memory to those who knew its happiness.

CONSULTING HOUSEKEEPERS

MARY K. SIMKHOVITCH
Headworker, Greenwich House, New York

In these days of standardization the home is left marooned. The consulting physician is summoned in hours of illness by the anxious mother; the father employs a standardizer to come in and set his factory right; the town in which the family lives employs an engineer to perfect a town plan; the architect plans the house and the landscape architect the grounds; the children go to a school, which presumably has some sort of a duly considered educational program; the hospital knows what it is about from laboratory to operating room; even American cities are taking themselves in hand and asking how they can use their incomes to the best advantage, although they are not yet alive to the more important question of how that income can be increased.

In all this modern maelstrom of organization and efficiency where is the home?

In many of our states farmers can get expert advice in regard to the use of soils. They can learn how to obtain a maximum productivity for the least expenditure. But the farmer's wife, like everybody else's wife, has been left to go it alone. She is governed by tradition on the one side and her belief in her own capacity on the other. She thinks very little of training and is inclined to believe that she can work out her own economic salvation without outside assistance. This does not show any inherent weakness in the individual woman, but simply indicates that organization, which has developed in every other field, has not yet penetrated to the home.

Women are wise. They know that much so-called training is nothing but a new way of spending time foolishly, and that experience is the most valuable of teachers. They are not averse to learning, however, if they are convinced that the method is sound. They merely view with suspicion, often well grounded, any scheme which has not been thoroughly worked out. The love of the new and exciting, common to men and to very young women, fails to appeal to the mature housekeeper. But she will not prove impervious to ideas of efficiency and standardization if they are presented in a concrete and practical way.

Not only every agricultural school, but every training school teaching household administration, should include the development of a corps of Consulting Housekeepers (capital C. H. you notice). The work of such a Consulting Housekeeper would be to go into a home, study the situation thoroughly, and make a careful report on how that household could be administered with a maximum of efficiency on the income available. The time

necessary for such a study and the nature of the report would vary according to the size or complexity of a given household. Fees would vary in proportion. Such a Consulting Housekeeper would naturally on request install proper bookkeeping, would indicate what proportion of income should be devoted to the different elements of the budget, would give instructions necessary in simple sanitation, and would in fact thoroughly overhaul the household management.

It is possible and probable that a certain amount of useful work could be done in bringing about efficiency in the home life among small wage-workers, but it is in families with an income of from $1,000 to $10,000 that this plan would be of the most use. In the lower income groups the income is so small that necessity proves of itself a sort of automatic standardizer. The emphasis in such families should be placed rather on procuring a larger income.

THE TREND OF THINGS

A very interesting booklet is the first annual report of the United Charities of Chicago. The story of the first year's work of the organization, formed by the Relief and Aid Society and the Bureau of Charities, is well told, well printed, and illustrated by charts and remarkably good photographs. A few of the latter—one, for instance, of a sick man surrounded by his family—invade home privacy perhaps more than they should, but for the most part the pictures are not open to this criticism, but are illustrative of fresh air and nursery work. The work of each of the eleven districts is described well and succinctly. Through these and the registration bureau, the United Charities, during the year ending in April, 1910, came into contact with 14,191 families, or 55,894 persons. For food, fuel, clothing and rent, $55,986.16 was spent. In the Home for Men 436 men, many of them convalescents needing special care, were provided for at an expenditure of $1,497.48, and advice or employment was given many other stranded men. Besides distributing 750 tons of coal for the Coal Dealers' Association and acting as almoner for the Soldiers' Home Committee, the United Charities has carried on many and varied social activities. In the Mary Crane Day Nursery, where a daily average of fifty-three children ranging from three months to ten years were cared for, the relief department supplied both work and instruction for mothers through the domestic science kitchen, the laundry and the sewing room, where work is done for the various departments of the association's charitable work and not for the market. The nursery is equipped with a kindergarten, a milk depot, a dispensary, and a roof garden. But the work for children is not limited to the nursery. The summer infant welfare work carried on for several years by the Relief and Aid Society was very much extended this season with the co-operation of the Board of Health. The work was centered around the thirty distributing stations of the Milk Commission, to which a corps of nurses was assigned; five tents, some on the roofs of houses, were equipped, partly by private contribution and partly by an appropriation through the Board of Health. Visiting nurses, doctors and lecturers were employed and by the end of the summer the Board of Health reported a death rate sixteen per cent lower than the preceding summer.

The Fresh Air Department sent 2,640 children on two-week visits to friends of the society in the country or to the society's summer home, Camp Algonquin.

For tubercular children the United Charities, in co-operation with the Board of Education, conducted an open-air school with forty-nine pupils and the record of the year's experiment shows a gain for these children in weight, energy and intelligence. Other branches of the United Charities' activities are the social Service Department of the Cook County Hospital and the Inquiry Department which furnishes information in regard to charitable institutions. The total expenditure for the year throughout all branches of the work of United Charities was $195,622.64.

* * *

The American Steel and Wire Company has gotten out a pamphlet on the accident relief plan inaugurated by the United States Steel Corporation. It gives the terms of the plan in thirteen languages: Polish, Slavish, Croatian, Hungarian, Swedish, Norwegian, Finnish, Greek, Turkish, Armenian, Italian, German, American.

* * *

The last number of the *American Journal of Sociology* contains a study of "non-family" men in lodgings in Chicago. These are not 'hoboes' but the steadily working, unskilled laborers in the steel works, on the streets or railroads or in lumber camps—those classes "whose life is dominated by industry . . . all whose other interests are subordinated to the chance of a job, and whose family life is given up for sordid surroundings, inadequate wages and unremitting toil—the latter broken by sleep and periodical unemployment."

Eight hundred and fifty men were studied in ninety-six groups. A large proportion were in the prime of life and forty-seven per cent had wives and families at home whom they hoped to bring over in time. In the meantime they were permanent lodgers living in rooms, the vast majority of which proved to be crowded to such an extent as to violate the law. Croatians, Servians and Bulgarians—

hewers of wood and drawers of water"—for the most part lived under a lodging boss at three dollars a month, occupying a bed and paying for their own food, which was cooked by the boss or his wife, who sometimes also did the laundry for the group. In other cases they lived on a co-operative basis without a boss and shared expenses for lodging and food alike. A large number of these worked at the steel works earning sixteen dollars a week for a twelve-hour day. Practically all were unskilled.

The Italians, of lighter build and of longer residence in this country, were not for the most part engaged in heavy or ill-paid work, but were many of them union members employed in the building trades, working only eight hours a day. Few even of the unorganized worked a twelve-hour day. Lodging conditions were much the same as in the case of the Bulgarians, Servians and Croatians. The study covered also thirty-nine Greeks, whose condition presented individual elements in that all but four men were in business on their own account as bootblacks, fruit and flower dealers, etc., and very few were married. Their lodging arrangements were peculiar to themselves. They lived on the co-operative plan, hired whole houses, generally of the small two-story frame variety, in the lower story of which they stabled their horses and stored their pedler's wagons. Except for the presence of these stables the houses occupied by the Greeks were the only ones that were clean and well cared for. Some light is thrown on the bad housekeeping in most of the houses as well as on the complete lack of family influences by the fact that in the lodgings of these 850 men only eighty-nine women and children were found.

* * *

The Women's Municipal League of Massachusetts reports an interesting experiment in prenatal care made by its committee on infant social service. In the past eighteen months a visiting nurse has had supervision, up to within a few weeks of confinement, of some 600 pregnant women, advising them in matters of simple hygiene and seeing, when their symptoms demanded, that a doctor was called in. The year and a half's record shows no deaths at confinement, only three miscarriages, and though almost one-eighth of the women cared for showed the first symptoms of eclampsia, so promptly were they treated that not one case was allowed to develop. When to this record is added an average weight of the babies born of nine per cent above the general average, the committee feels that its prenatal care has been justified by results.

* * *

The word orphan is not used in all Australia, nor is there an orphan asylum—facts interestingly brought out in the report of the Children's Council of South Australia, which has a population of 250,000. THE SURVEY is indebted to Dr. Bayard Holmes of Chicago for a summary of its contents. Its method is common to all the Australian states.

During the year ended June 30 last, 1,479 children were under its control, 1,220 of whom were boarded out, seven in hospitals and thirty-two in institutions for defectives and delinquents The total budget was about $100,000, of which fifteen per cent was for central administration. The expenses for the children boarded out, including administrative expense, was twelve pounds a year, or about five dollars a month, each. Some of these children, working part time after they are thirteen, earned and deposited in the Postal Savings Bank a total of $6,500 . Applications for children, which are always greater in number than the children to be placed out, totaled 364. Visits and reports on the homes selected are made by both official and volunteer inspectors.

One of the most notable results of the council's work is the reduction of mortality among illegitimate children from 27 per cent to 4.58 per cent. All illegitimate children, whether destitute or not, are in its care and it has charge of 231 lying-in homes.

* * *

"To provide those who are called upon to contribute to the financial support of these institutions, societies, or clubs, with specific information which will be useful in determining the preferable channels for the distribution of that financial assistance which the average business man is daily called upon to render," is the ambitious purpose of a report just issued by the Rhode Island Bureau of Industrial Statistics upon the Charitable and Philanthropic Agencies in Providence.

The pamphlet, which was compiled by George H. Webb, commissioner, and Carol Aronovici, special agent, contains a synopsis of the report of each organization arranged in alphabetical order. The name and address of each institution are given, the object and scope of the work undertaken, under what auspices it is conducted, the names of officers, members of executive committee and directors, who decides upon amount paid or assistance to be rendered, limits of work, number of beneficiaries, property valuation, income from private contributions and from public funds, how funds are collected and whether or not accounts are audited regularly. The investigation excluded all charitable or philanthropic agencies which were conducted strictly as branches of church or parish work.

The report contains a serviceable classification of the organizations whose activities it describes, and a discussion of the work done in each field of effort. Four agencies failed to reply to the inquiries sent. The report states that "in so far as we have been able to gather data concerning the cost of charitable and philanthropic work of the city of Providence, this is, so far as we are aware, the first study of its kind.

COMMUNICATIONS

THE WESTMORELAND STRIKE

To the Editor:

I have read with much care and with keen interest the article on The Westmoreland Strike, published in The Survey for December 3, and I wish to compliment the writers of the article upon their comprehensive and thoroughly impartial review of the causes, the progress, and the status of this industrial contest.

During the ten years of my presidency of the United Mine Workers of America, I became quite familiar with the policy of the coal companies operating in this field and with the character of the workmen employed in the mines; and it is entirely within the lines of conservatism to say that no group of employers has been more hostile to the establishment of trade organizations, or more inconsiderate of the welfare and safety of its employes than has the group of coal operators in the Westmoreland field of Pennsylvania. These operators have always refused to pay as much wages or to concede as reasonable hours of labor as obtain in the competitive coal fields located east and west of them.

The coal seams underlying Westmoreland county are so advantageously situated, that the companies operating the mines there are able to ship their product to both the eastern tide-water markets and the western Pittsburgh market. This is an advantage enjoyed by no other coal field in Pennsylvania; and because of the favorable location of the mines, these companies are well able to pay the rates of wages prevailing east and west of them and to accord their employes the same hours of labor and conditions of work that are now enjoyed by the miners in the central district of Pennsylvania, to the east of them, and in the Pittsburgh district, on their west.

The refusal of these companies to treat their employes with that broad spirit of justice and fair play that has been the predominating factor in promoting industrial peace and prosperity in other coal-producing counties of Pennsylvania is the genesis of the present strike in Westmoreland county.

No amount of subterfuge on the part of these coal companies will convince anyone familiar with the situation that the responsibility for this strike should be placed upon anyone else. It is puerile for them to say that the strike was caused by the machinations of "agitators" from other fields. Men do not strike for nine months to gratify the ambitions of the "agitator"; they will not endure the long, weary struggle of hunger, eviction, and idleness unless they have real grievances to correct; men will not subject their wives and babies to the cold winter blasts, to the danger of living in tents, suffering the indignities and hardships that the men and their families in Westmoreland county have undergone, unless some great principle is involved.

The miners of Westmoreland county are fighting for the right to live their own lives in their own way; they are contending for the right to have a voice in determining under what conditions they shall live and work. This principle is as dear and as fundamental to them as workmen as are the blessings of liberty to them as citizens.

John Mitchell.

New York.

IN THE NIGHT COURT

To the Editor:

Homer Folks asks in your columns where I got my information that "the men who crowd the Night Court all see if a girl is given a clean bill of health by dismissal, and some of them often follow her out of the court." My informant was Lavinia L. Dock, who says that she has seen it with her own eyes. Of course, the statement does not apply to the girls who were sent to the hospital while clause 79 was in effect, or to the workhouse, but only to those let off with a fine.

Alice Stone Blackwell.

Dorchester, Mass.

"ON AGAIN!"

To the Editor:

I have sent The Survey to several friends. One, a prominent manufacturer, writes: "I wish to thank you for several recollections since you were here, but mainly for The Survey. This is quite a wonderful magazine for, like Finnegan's letter to Flanagan, 'it boils reports down to almost the ultimate word'."

Frank A. Manny.

Western State Normal School,
Kalamazoo, Mich.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

Changes—See new dates for Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, and New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction.

International (previously announced).

International Congress on Tuberculosis. September 24-30. Rome, Italy. Secretary-general, Professor Ascoli, Via Lucina, Rome, Italy.

International Association for Labor Legislation, September, 1912. Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basle, Switzerland.

International Prison Congress (Quinquennial). London, 1915. Secretary, F. Simon van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

National (New)

National Conference on City Planning. March. Philadelphia, Pa. Secretary, Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

American Society of Municipal Improvements, September 26-29. Grand Rapids, Mich. Secretary, A. Prescott Folwell, 239 West 39th street, New York city.

National (previously announced.)

National Civic Federation. January 12-14. New York city. Secretary, D. L. Cease, 1 Madison avenue, New York city.

December 31, 1910.

Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, January 24-26. Washington, D. C. Corresponding secretary, E. B. Sanford, D.D., 81 Bible House, New York city.

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Second Thursday in February and April. New York, N. Y. Corresponding officer, James Pedersen, M.D., 29 West Forty-second street, New York city.

Federated Boys' Clubs, Annual Meeting February 15. Fall River, Mass. Executive secretary, Arthur B. Leach, Room 308, 35 Congress street, Boston, Mass. Annual Conference, June, Brookline, Mass.

Religious Education Association, February 14-16. Providence, R. I. Secretary, Henry F. Cope, 193 Michigan avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Child Labor Committee, March. Birmingham, Ala. Corresponding officer, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, March or April. New York city. Corresponding officer, Waldemar Groszmann, Plainfield, N. J.

Convention of the Young Women's Christian Association of America, April 19-27. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, Lois J. Viele, 125 East Twenty-seventh street, New York city.

American Federation of Arts, May. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Leila Mechlin, 1741 New York avenue, Washington, D. C.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, June 7-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Alexander Johnston, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

National Probation Officers' Association, June 5-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Roger N. Baldwin, 903 Security Building, St. Louis, Mo.

National Women's Trade Union League, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer, Mrs. D. W. Knefler, 5,273 McPherson avenue, St. Louis, Mo.

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, J. T. Exnicios, 914 G street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children. June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.

National Conference of Poor Law Officials, June 7. Boston, Mass. President, Dr. Robert W. Hill, State Board of Charities, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

American Academy of Medicine. Annual meeting, June 24-26, Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, Charles McIntire, M.D., 52 North Fourth street, Easton Pa. Subject of both meetings: Medical Sociology.

American Medical Association, June 27. Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, George H. Simmons, M.D., 535 Dearborn avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Education Association of the United States, July. San Francisco, Cal. Secretary, Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

National Fraternal Congress, August 21. Mackinac Island, Mich. Secretary, C. A. Gower, Lansing, Mich.

American Hospital Association, September 19-22. New York city. Secretary, J. N. E. Brown, M.D., Toronto General Hospital, Can.

American Prison Association, September. Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Joseph P. Byers, 13 Central avenue, Newark, N. J.

American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, October 10-13. Milwaukee, Wis. Secretary, Cornelius H. Patten, 14 Beacon street, Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Catholic Charities, September, 1912. Washington, D. C. Secretary, William J. Kerby, D.D., Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

STATE AND LOCAL (NEW).

New York City Conference of Charities and Correction, May 9-11. New York city. Secretary, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth avenue, New York city.

Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Kansas City, Mo. Secretary, W. T. Cross, State Board of Charities and Correction, Columbia, Mo.

New York Conference of Charities and Correction, November 14-16. Watertown, N. Y. Secretary, John A. Kingsbury, 105 East 22nd street, New York city.

Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction, November 14-16. Pittsburgh, Pa. Secretary, Fred S. Hall, 1533 Real Estate Trust Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

STATE AND LOCAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED)

Colorado State Association for the Prevention and Control of Tuberculosis, January 15. Denver, Colo. Secretary, S. Poulterer Morris, Room 29, State House, Denver, Colo.

New York Child Welfare Exhibit, January 18-February 12. New York city. Secretary, Roy Smith Wallace. Room 5,105 Metropolitan Building, New York city.

Alabama Conference of Charities and Correction, March. Birmingham, Ala. Secretary, Maurice Willows, Birmingham, Ala.

Connecticut Conference of Charities and Correction. April. New Haven, Conn. Secretary, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn.

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, April 2-4. Princeton, N. J. Secretary, J. Byron Deacon, 1701 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, Pa.

Arizona Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Bisbee, Ariz. Secretary, John W. Flinn, Prescott, Ariz.

Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction, May 8-12. Hamilton, Ont. Secretary, F. M. Nicholson, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, Ont.

New England Conference on Street Cleaning, June. Springfield, Mass. Corresponding officer, Carol Aronovici, 55 Eddy street, Providence, R. I.

Northern Baptist Convention, June 13. Philadelphia, Pa. President, Emory W. Hunt, Denison University, Granville, O.

Sagamore Sociological Conference, June 27-29. Sagamore Beach, Mass. President, George W. Coleman, 348 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

Stony Brook Assembly, August. Stony Brook, L. I. Director, J. W. Jenks, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities, October 10-12. Indiana, Pa. Secretary, L. C. Colborn, Somerset, Pa.

Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Toledo, Ohio. Secretary, H. H. Shirer, 805 Harrison Building, 21 S. High street, Columbus, Ohio.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

THE U. S. IMMIGRATION COMMISSION'S REPORT

What of a tale of adventure in forty volumes? That, after all, in spite of its statistical tables, in spite of its encyclopaedic length, in spite of other and sundry disguises, is the report of the Federal Immigration Commission now in press and introduced to the readers of THE SURVEY in this issue. For, when all is said and done, it is a narrative of exploration on the part of tens of thousands of "undistinguished Americans," as Hamilton Holt calls them, into the fastnesses of a new world and into the economic frontier of our civilization; and a tale of discovery also, on the part of the staff who prosecuted the inquiry. The agents of the commission, to quote its secretary, W. W. Husband,

spent days and nights in the wilderness along the Mexican border studying methods of gangs organized for the purpose of smuggling Chinese into the country, they traveled in disguise in the steerage of transatlantic ships, they lived in immigrant homes, sought work through immigrant employment agencies and visited the haunts and studied the methods of traffickers in white slaves. Their work was carried on in the congested districts of great cities, in industrial centers, in remote mining regions and construction camps, in agricultural colonies and communities.

TAKING THE PART OF THE IMMIGRANT.
An agent of the federal commission in the garb in which she took ship to this country.

When somebody said that the three-volume novel was extinct, Kipling, his ire aroused, wrote his ballad of The Three Decker, in which he held

Spite of modern notions, I find here first and best,
The only certain packet for the islands of the blest.

It is not so much the blessed isles as the continents of desire, for which the heroes and heroines of this governmental chronicle are bound, and whether Kipling would stand for the sailing qualities of a Forty Decker, still less for the Lettres de Marque of this one, is a matter for speculation; for in praising the old romance, he said:

We asked no social questions—we pumped no hidden shame,
We never talked obstetrics when the little stranger came.

And those, after all, were the sailing orders of this governmental expedition, for not only has it been dealing with the adventures of a migrant people, but with a perilous experience through which the nation has been going for the past few decades and on which new light was sought.

The recommendations of the commission (page 603), together with a brief statement of its findings, were presented to Congress on December 5, and these offer points for endorsement and dissent, such as Mr. Lee and Miss Abbott bring out in contributed editorials on another page. But it will be a matter of months before the full body of material upon which these or other conclusions may be based, will be available for analysis and review.

SCOPE AND MEMBERSHIP

In 1882 the federal government first assumed the function of controlling immigration and in the succeeding twenty-five years public opinion became more or less divided between the advocates of two opposing policies. The federal commission created by section 39 of the immigration act of February 20, 1907, has been called a compromise between the immigration restrictionists and the anti-restrictionists in Congress, and therefore, from the congressional point of view, its work may fairly be regarded as an inventory to find out whether the existing policy of the government respecting immigration ought to be continued or whether present conditions demand actual restriction.

In the summer of 1907 six members of the commission spent ten weeks abroad, visiting ports of embarkation and the districts from which immigrants come. Certain lines of inquiry were inaugurated under various committees, but this first year the work was tentative and scattered. In the second year it was centralized and a staff built up for carrying on sustained lines of inquiry, the industrial investigation involving the study of twenty-five leading industries, a study of city congestion, and of agricultural distribution, which may be said to have been the major lines, although several others, as will be noted, are of all but equal rank. To quote Mr. Husband:

> In the course of the investigations original information was secured from, or concerning, more than 3,000,000 individuals, or about one-thirtieth of the total population of the United States. One-eighth of all the public school children in the country were included in the inquiry and in some of the leading industries as many as fifty per cent of the total number of wage-earners employed were canvassed. About 300 communities were more or less exhaustively studied, and every state in the Union and practically all the larger cities were included in some phase of the inquiry.

After what might be called the preliminary explorations and before the field work in the industrial investigation was taken up, a detailed plan was mapped out. Special agents who had been in charge of the experimental work, together with statisticians in the employ of the commission, met in Washington in a ten days' conference, drawing up schedules to be used in the various lines of investigation. In the industrial investigation, for instance, field work was begun in the summer of 1908, and continued until July 1, 1909, the force numbering in the latter part of the year as high as 200 agents. 750,000 individual schedules were taken, 23,000 families were visited and detailed reports made on 250 communities. A similar work was carried on in the Rocky mountains and on the Pacific Coast under a separate staff, which specialized in its inquiry of Japanese and Hindus, but studied also European and Mexican immigrants in manufacturing, mining and farming.

Among the other specialized studies of immigrant groups, mention should be made of the schedule-census of the children of immigrants in schools, in which for one day the public school teachers of thirty cities and parochial school teachers of twenty-four acted as unpaid agents of the commission; the study of alien criminality, which included a case investigation of more than 500 individuals in New York and vicinity and which brought out incidentally the utter lack of uniformity in American criminal records; the study of immigrant charity seekers in forty-five cities, conducted with the assistance of the secretaries of the various associated charities; and the study of immigrant hospital cases in Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, New York.

Another group of specialized inquiries, which required expert work, often of a detective nature, was that of immigrant banks (this included the inspection of books and records), of labor camps, berry and fruit picking districts, railroad and other construction work involving

[1] It organized under the chairmanship of Senator William P. Dillingham of Vermont, and included as members Senators Lodge of Massachusetts and Lattimer of South Carolina, Representatives Howell of New Jersey, Bennet of New York and Burnett of Alabama. Charles P. Neill, commissioner of labor, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell and William R. Wheeler of California were appointed by President Roosevelt. Senator Lattimer died in 1908; his successor, Senator McLaurin of Mississippi, in December, 1909, when Senator Percy was appointed to fill the vacancy.

the floating immigrant labor supply; the investigation of steerage conditions, including every line engaged in Atlantic coastwise trade and twelve transatlantic ships—(in some instances the agents began their journey at some point in the interior of Europe, traveled on immigrant trains to the point of embarkation and after landing in the United States proceeded to their destination on the trains provided for immigrants)—; the so-called white slave inquiry carried on by a special corps of agents; and that of immigrant homes, employment agencies and aid societies to which agents of the commission applied in the guise of immigrant girls and men.

From a scientific standpoint, possibly the most distinctive contribution of the commission is Professor Boas's report on changes in the bodily form of descendants of immigrants. A dictionary of European and other immigrant people by Daniel Folkmar will be a unique feature.

The last year and a half of the commission's work was devoted to the tabulation and preparation of data. At times more than 200 statistical clerks under Fred C. Croxton, chief statistician, and a large corps of writers, were employed at the Washington headquarters. Nevertheless, in the time remaining between the completion of the field work and the dissolution of the commission on December 5, it was not possible to tabulate the mass of incidental data secured, and tons of schedules will be turned over to the Department of Commerce and Labor, containing a great amount of undigested information along all lines.

A brief summary of the commission's conclusions and recommendations, with views of the minority, has been issued the past month; a summary volume will come from the presses in January; the forty volumes of from 700 to 900 pages each will follow in the course of the year.

The reports are largely of a statistical nature and while some of the statistics were derived from already existing sources, in the main the volumes represent entirely new data collected by the commission. The commission's task would have been a large one, even for a well-organized and equipped government bureau, but in this case it was necessary within a limited time to study the field, plan the work, and create the machinery for carrying it on and completing it. It would be out of place for me to comment on the value of the commission's work, but if plans and hopes have been realized, the reports will stand as an interesting, valuable and, so far as may be, conclusive exposition of the subject of immigration, and also as a correct picture of industrial, economic and social conditions in the United States at the present time.

A FIRE COLLEGE FOR NEW YORK

Within the past fortnight, the establishment of a fire college has been announced by the New York Municipal Fire Department, so that, to quote the *Sun*:

> The lore of fire fighting gained by individuals in years of fighting thousands of fires, might be preserved instead of dying with the individual.
>
> Practical work in machine shops, lectures on explosives by well known chemists, talks and demonstrations by electrical engineers on the new problems offered by the high voltage electrified railroads, the handling of blazes in Singer buildings, a better understanding of the high pressure system and very practical lessons in the scaling of walls, jumping into life nets and the handling of all kinds of tools used by firemen—all these subjects and many more of a practical nature will be taken up and drilled into the force by the fire college.

It is believed that the establishment of this school will create new standards of efficiency in the work of *extinguishing* fires, carried on by the city as a municipal function. It, however, calls attention to the failure of American cities to create fire *preventing* agencies at all comparable to their extinguishing service. The record of the new-law tenements in New York—in which there have been no fire fatalities—shows what the application of progressive standards in construction and sustained oversight can do for a given class of buildings. The hazards of another great group of buildings, equally freighted with defenseless human beings, have been called to public attention by the recent Newark factory fire. This is made the text of a series of three articles in the current issue of THE SURVEY, two of them by

experts who have made a scientific study of different phases of fire prevention. A branch of the Newark Fire Department was directly across the street from the factory which burned. It could not have been better located from the standpoint of convenience to get at its work. Yet it was unable to put out the blaze in the first half hour and in that half hour twenty-five people were killed.

The contention of the students of fire prevention science is that a fire, so far as fatalities are concerned, ought to be out, not in the first half hour, but six months *previous;* and that while there will remain an irreducible minimum of property destruction due to fires, the human risks involved should be eliminated by precautions devised with this sole end in view. Their plea is one of common forethought and constructive optimism, which challenges the finality of such a verdict as that of the Newark coroner's jury:

> We find that Carrie Robrecht came to her death by misadventure and accident caused by a fall, and not as the result of a criminal act, either of omission or commission, on the part of any individual or individuals, whether as private citizens or public officers.

PROPOSE A FIRE INSTITUTE

They assert that fire prevention, panic control, and life preservation are practicable, that here is a great field of municipal activity to which the cities have yet to direct their energies. Mr. McKeon puts it that fire is a disease of buildings; and in a campaign for its prevention the same sort of educational propaganda is needed as in preventing tuberculosis.

In this connection Mr. McKeon has made an interesting proposal for the creation of a fire institute, "to improve living conditions in so far as they are detrimentally affected by fire." His plan for the institute includes research along remedial lines, not only to place the fire problem on a scientific basis, but also to use the accumulated knowledge in devising practical measures for securing safety from fire in homes and dwellings. The program he suggests for such an institute folows:

RESEARCH: STUDY OF FIRE AS A DESTRUCTIVE SOCIAL PHENOMENON

a, Compile records of fires for statistical information, such as number, locality, character of buildings, class of persons affected, causes of origin and extension, results in person and property loss.

b, Analyse causes of death and injuries to persons to ascertain if due to habitation, employment, housekeeping, accident, arson, absence of life saving appliances.

c, Determine effect on living conditions such as increased cost of living due to payments for fire insurance, fire tax, higher rents, uninsured property destroyed. Reduction of income for individual and family by loss of employment, or injury or death of wage-earner. Break-up of family due to death of parent as wage-earner, or as home-keeper.

d, Report on precautions exercised in homes and dwellings, such as structural features of buildings, condition of heat and lighting apparatus, housekeeping methods, use of fire alarms, extinguishers, and escapes.

REMEDIAL: DEVELOPMENT OF FIRE PREVENTION AS AN APPLIED SCIENCE.

e, Educational: The preparation of instructive articles for publication in newspapers and magazines. The delivery of lectures in public and private lecture courses and centers. The advocating of fire prevention as part of the courses for domestic science and home economics teachers. The advocating of some instruction in fire prevention for public school children. The conducting of practical courses for janitors, housekeepers and others having charge of buildings and institutions. The maintenance of a bureau of information.

f. Engineering: An exhibit of mechanical appliances, devices and systems used for fire preventions. The study of engineering methods of preventing fire. The inspection of homes and dwellings and the recommending of proper safeguards. The examination of plans for new buildings. The training of fire prevention engineers.

g. Insurance: The preparation of a plan for furnishing fire insurance at a minimum cost and by installments.

h. Legislation: Calling the attention of public officers to the enforcement of existing fire laws. Securing the revision of defective fire laws. Agitating the adoption of new fire laws.

THE TOWNS IN WHICH POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS WERE OPENED WITH THE NEW YEAR.

Bessemer, Ala.	Decorah, Ia.	Nebraska City, Neb.	Bristol, R. I.
Globe, Ariz.	Pittsburg, Kan.	Carson City, Nev.	Newberry, S. C.
Stuttgart, Ark.	Middlesboro, Ky.	Berlin, N. H.	Deadwood, S. D.
Oroville, Calif.	New Iberia, La.	Rutherford, N. J.	Johnson City, Tenn.
Leadville, Colo.	Rumford, Me.	Raton, N. M.	Port Arthur, Tex.
Ansonia, Conn.	Frostburg, Md.	Cohoes, N. Y.	Provo, Utah.
Dover, Del.	Norwood, Mass.	Salisbury, N. C.	Montpelier, Vt.
Key West, Fla.	Houghton, Mich.	Wahpeton, N. D.	Clifton Forge, Va.
Brunswick, Ga.	Bemidji, Minn.	Ashtabula, O.	Olympia, Wash.
Coeur d'Alene, Idaho	Gulfport, Miss.	Guymon, Okla.	Grafton, W. Va.
Pekin, Ill.	Carthage, Mo.	Klamath Falls, Ore.	Manitowoc, Wis.
Princeton, Ind.	Anaconda, Mont.	Dubois, Pa.	Laramie, Wyo.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS START AT PENNY SIZE

The postal savings bank system starts this month on a small scale, the appropriation limiting the number opened to one second-class post office in each state. The important thing is that a plan for promoting public thrift, which in other countries long ago became a big factor in the economic fabric of the nation, is to have a trial at last.

The board of trustees for the postal savings bank system selected towns that range in population from three or four thousand to twenty-five or thirty. From the accompanying map it is easy to see how scattered they are. A line drawn from the middle of the northern boundary of North Dakota to the southernmost point of Texas would scarcely come within 200 miles of a postal savings office. An enormous belt through the populous heart of Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee is untouched.

The communities picked are said to be those which have greatest need of this service. Over twenty have for their chief industry mining, smelting, foundries, or blast furnaces, a dozen or so are factory and mill towns, while nearly half a score are devoted to shipping or lumber interests. These are all industrial cities where facilities are in demand for depositors who can make only modest savings. But one or two are quite small farming communities, one is a summer resort and another a suburb of commuters, and it is a little hard to know why they were chosen. Four have a considerable foreign population which is accustomed to postal savings banks and tends to distrust our privately managed institutions.

Scarcely half a million of our great population can possibly be served by the

offices that have been established. It will be a long time before the results of the trial will be known, and not until more postal savings banks have been opened and arrangements completed for making deposits at branch offices in the larger cities, will it be possible to judge fairly the success of the system.

In cities possessing sound savings banks under state supervision, depositors will prefer these because they pay almost, if not quite, twice as much interest as the government. But in rural sections and communities devoid of well established facilities for saving, post-office banks will furnish a strong incentive to thrift.

CONSERVATION OF EYESIGHT

The agencies at work to promote the public health by preventing unnecessary disease, injury and strain, have a most promising recruit in the National Association for the Prevention of Blindness and the Conservation of Vision, which will be organized as a result of a recent conference in New York. The aptly descriptive terms of the name will make strong appeal to the groping, bespectacled sons of civilized men. The association has opportunity for the widest usefulness in this twentieth century, when every condition of work and living make constant, disastrous war on eyesight.

By the terms of the resolution which led to the appointment of a board to effect a permanent organization under Dr. F. Park Lewis of Buffalo as chairman, the field is charted off in three parts:

Prevention of infantile blindness.
Prevention of blindness from industrial and other accidents and from diseases.
Conservation of vision through improved hygiene during school life and in industry.

The association will invite the co-operation of all societies interested in the blind, in social purity and sex education, in preventing infant mortality, in safeguarding industrial occupations and all medical, educational, commercial and labor bodies, women's clubs, and organizations dealing with social and economic questions. It will become a clearing house for the conservation of eyesight.

The organization is due immediately to the conference which was called by Dr. F. Park Lewis of Buffalo, chairman of the committee on blindness of the American Medical Association; Edward M. Van Cleve of Columbus, president of the Ohio Commission for the Blind; and James P. Munroe of Boston, president of the Massachusetts Commission for the Blind. But the interest to which this committee and the association itself owe their existence was created by Louisa Lee Schuyler, chairman of the New York Committee on the Prevention of Blindness, and Dr. Lewis, who called a similar conference a year ago. The nation-wide effort to prevent unnecessary blindness springs from the quiet efforts of these two workers who, in organizing the New York committee in 1908, formed the first lay body in the country.

The study of midwifery by the New York committee was presented by its executive secretary, Carolyn C. Van Blarcom. It led to an offer by Dr. John W. Brannan, president of the board of directors of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, to co-operate in furnishing the first training for midwives in this country. The importance of such a course may be realized from the fact that about one-half the children born in large cities are delivered by midwives and about one-half the cases of preventable blindness are due to infection at birth. A few states have attempted the supervision of midwives, and three, New York, Rhode Island and Massachusetts, give free prophylactic treatment at birth. Aside from this midwives are free to go their way, unregistered, unsupervised, often untrained, but charged with responsibility for thousands of babies each year. The responsibility of physicians is even greater because of their larger numbers and the larger number of confinements which they attend. Of 116 cases of *ophthalmia neonatorum* (infantile blindness) recently investigated in Boston, 114 were of children delivered by physicians and two of children delivered by midwives; of 33 investigated in New York, 22 were by physicians and 11 by midwives. Of the

22 physicians responsible for blindness only one had used prophylactic treatment, while of the eleven midwives three had used it. The new association thus offers a fresh and interesting example of the need, and the recognition of the need by medical men, of co-operation by laymen in the prevention of disease.

The prevention of infantile blindness is first and perhaps most pressing of the association's work, but other phases were strikingly brought out at the conference. They include better birth registration, the effect of tobacco on eyesight, work-accidents, infection in swimming baths, *phlyctenular keratitis* in undernourished children, bad lighting, particularly in schools and factories, and "department store" eyeglasses.

TERMS OF LICENSE FOR HARMLESS PHOSPHORUS

The instinct to "fear the Greeks even bearing gifts" has made many wonder if the Esch bill in Congress to prohibit poisonous phosphorus in matches would not establish a monopoly, since the largest company favors this measure and has patent rights to the most widely used non-poisonous substitute for white phosphorus. The Diamond Match Company drew up licenses upon fair, if not generous, terms to govern the use of sesqui-sulphide of phosphorus by other manufacturers. Eight companies accepted the conditions and have paid in whole or in part their share of the cost of the patent protecting this non-poisonous composition.

Although each licensee was allowed to produce an unlimited quantity of matches or to use any other form of non-poisonous phosphorus, of which there are several, some have feared that all the agitation against white phosphorus was but a scheme to place the small independent companies at the mercy of the trust which owns the patent for sesqui-sulphide. To make this suspicion impossible the president of the Diamond Match Company, in a letter to Representative Esch, the author of the bill, calls attention to some changes which have been made voluntarily in the licenses already issued. A royalty of four-tenths of a cent for the use of sesqui-sulphide for every thousand matches beyond the quantity which a company was entitled to make, on the basis of its percentage of the number manufactured for the year ending June 30, 1910, has been remitted, and all restrictions as to the number to be contained in a box waived.

As the president says in his letter, however, "there still remains the problem of how we can best formulate a proposition in respect to granting licenses in the future" to existing manufacturers, or to any other companies that later on may desire permits. He offers to assign the patent in trust to any department or bureau of the federal government or to any official of any department and his successor in office, in order that "licenses may be granted on such terms as may appear in the discretion of such department, bureau, or individual equitable and fair." If no department, bureau, or official will accept such an assignment the company offers to execute it in favor of any corporation, association, or individual who can give reasonable assurance of prompt and just treatment of applications for licenses.

The cause of this remarkable offer is said to be the fear of the manufacturers that if federal legislation is not passed the agitation about the dangers to the workers in the trade will result in state legislation, which will not be uniform throughout the country. In fact a law to prohibit the use of poisonous phosphorus has already been recommended in New York by a high state official.

PROGRAM TO PREVENT INCREASE OF INSANITY

The first public meeting in the campaign of the Committee on the Insane, of the New York State Charities Aid Association, whose plans were described in THE SURVEY of November 12, was held under the auspices of the American Academy of Medicine two days before Christmas. The speakers represented all the elements which are to co-operate in the effort to prevent insanity, that is, the School of Philanthropy as interested in all matters of social importance, the medical profession, the State Charities Aid

Association, and the State Commission in Lunacy. The representative of the state commission was its president, Dr. Albert W. Ferris, who gave the actual figures of insanity within the state, showing the state hospitals filled beyond their capacity with 35,520 dependents with mental defect, of whom 31,606 are insane, and whose care costs one-sixth of the total public expenditure. Adding to these the patients cared for at home the state shows as a whole 54,520 persons with mental disease or defect, an average of one to 167 in the population. Almost half the institutional cases came from New York city.

Even more alarming than the actual figures at the present time, is the increase in insanity as compared with population increase in the last twenty years, for within this time the population of New York state has increased only 49.9 per cent as against an increase of 103.9 per cent in the number of the insane.

To find the cure it is necessary to analyze the causes of insanity. This was done by Dr. M. Allen Starr of Columbia University, who outlined the classification made by Dr. Kraeselin of Munich and showed the probabilities of prevention and cure in each class. Of the so-called internal causes, inheritance, development and education, education alone is susceptible of regulation. Preventive work has already been started in the special classes for defectives in the public schools, and in the training of normal children in habits of attention and self-control, as well as in the special instruction given in sex hygiene and the dangers of alcoholism.

The second class of causes is external and includes the use of alcohol and drugs, which is, according to the figures of the lunacy commission, responsible for 28.9 per cent of all cases of insanity; and syphilis which is responsible for 22 per cent of the men patients from metropolitan districts. Other external causes are certain infectious diseases, like typhoid and grip, and auto-intoxications due to chemical defect in the digestive system. Though not so directly preventable as those that can be dealt with by education, a certain percentage of these cases are undoubtedly preventable. The proportion of the third class, the psychical causes: overworry, overwork and overstrain, that could be prevented, is hard to estimate; but probably one-third of all cases of insanity are preventable.

The campaign to prevent this one-third was described by Homer Folks and Dr. Ferris. It includes what Samuel McCune Lindsay spoke of as the distinctly modern element in education, the movement for publicity in all matters of practical social importance, by means of lectures, leaflets, exhibits, and moving pictures. Besides this education of the public, the educational side covers the re-education and diversion of patients, and the special teaching of backward children. For after-care of the patient and prevention in his family the State Lunacy Commission hopes to extend widely the dispensary system, to employ at each state hospital one physician and one social service visitor for each of the eighteen state hospitals, who will look after discharged patients in their homes. The work of the hospital will be further supplemented by the work in the home of the prevention and after-care committees of the State Charities Aid Association.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE RESTRICTION RECOMMENDATIONS

JOSEPH LEE
Boston

The gist of the Federal Immigration Commission's report is in its conclusions—first, that there is an oversupply of unskilled labor in the industries of the country sufficient to demand a restriction upon the further admission of unskilled labor; second, restriction should be sufficient to produce a marked effect upon the present supply of unskilled labor; third, in making the exclusion, the aliens debarred should be as far as possible those who, by reason of their personal qualities or habits, would least readily be assimilated or would make the least

desirable citizens. The practical recommendation is summed up in this sentence:

> A majority of the commission favor the reading and writing test as the most feasible single method of restricting undesirable immigration.

From this conclusion only William S. Bennet dissents.

The commission, therefore, comes out squarely, not merely for selection, but for restriction of immigration, and bases its conclusion upon industrial grounds. Its most important finding as to facts is that the continued large immigration of unskilled laborers has kept conditions in the semi-skilled and unskilled occupations from advancing; that the presence of the recent immigrants in constantly increasing numbers has prevented progress among the older wage-earning class in certain sections; that the standard of living of the newcomers "is so far below that of the native American or older immigrant workman, that it is impossible for the latter to compete successfully with them"; that the numbers of recent immigrants "are so great and the influx is so continuous, that even with the remarkable expansion of industry during the past few years there has been created an oversupply of unskilled labor." In some industries this condition "is reflected in a curtailed number of working days and a consequent yearly income among the unskilled workers which is very much less than is indicated by the daily wage rates paid; and while it may not have lowered in a marked degree the American standard of living, it has introduced a lower standard which has become prevalent among the unskilled industry at large." In short, practically unlimited immigration of unskilled workers keeps the unskilled class of labor in this country permanently below the American standard of living. It is to remedy this condition that restriction is called for entirely apart from all other considerations.

With this view it would seem that all who believe in a living wage, or in any standard of living for the working people of this country, or in any effective attempts to raise that standard, must agree; for it is certainly the case that so long as every rise of wages operates merely to suck in unlimited thousands of the surplus population of Europe and Asia, no permanent raising of our own standard can be hoped for. The net result of present immigration is simply to spread the unfortunate conditions which the poorer immigrants represent over our own country and to leave their home problem as far from solution as it was before. It is the old case of the English sparrows over again; there are not permanently fewer of them in England since they came here and drove out our native birds.

The placing of this industrial question of the standard of living as the foremost consideration in the report is justified, not only by the effects of immigration on this country, but by the motive and nature of the immigration itself. That the motive is now chiefly industrial is shown by the accuracy with which the waves of immigration follow the labor market; by the facts, noted by the commission, that forty per cent of the immigrants return home (chiefly with the receding of the prosperity waves), that seventy-five per cent of the new immigration consists of males, and that it remains to a great extent in cities and does not settle on farms.

A large part of the present movement, especially from southern and eastern Europe, is made possible through assistance of relatives or friends.

> A large number of immigrants are induced to come by quasi-labor-agents in this country who combine the business of supplying laborers to large employers and contractors with the so-called emigrant banking business and the selling of steamship tickets.
>
> Another important agency in promoting immigration from Europe to the United States are the many thousands of steamship ticket agents and sub-agents operating in emigrant-furnishing districts of southern and eastern Europe. . . . The steamship agent propaganda flourishes everywhere.

The existence of the propaganda "is a matter of common knowledge in the emigrant-furnishing countries, and it is fair to assume is acquiesced in, if not stimulated by, the steamship lines themselves." To the steamship companies the emigra-

tion from southern and eastern Europe is peculiarly attractive because so many of the immigrants from these countries go forward and back, so that the company gets a fare both ways.

In short, our present immigration, thus fostered for purely industrial purposes, is largely a cold business proposition. It has behind it, partly, the same business motive—the desire for a supply of cheap labor—which formerly brought about the African slave trade (although, of course, the two cases are not closely parallel in other respects), and partly the natural desire of the steamship companies for larger dividends.

A natural consequence of this selection largely by steamship agents is that the types selected are not such as easily to assimilate with our present population. The absence of family life among a large proportion of the immigrants, the overcrowding and congestion in cities, the fact that "the tendency to become naturalized citizens, even among those who have been here five years or more, is not great," are all natural and consistent consequences of the purely commercial motive on the part of the importer and of those imported.

The fact that the bodily form of some children has been found to differ in type from their foreign-born parents is the most hopeful discovery made in this connection. But until the Negro, who was imported very much earlier and has been subjected to American conditions now for many generations, has become more fully assimilated in form, color, and other perhaps more important attributes, to the white race, any conclusions drawn from changes in bodily structure of other immigrants cannot be accepted as indicating a reasonable hope of early social assimilation.

The commission is of opinion that our present restriction laws are safeguarding us against disease, insanity and pauperism. This may be so under the present administration at Ellis Island; that it was not wholly so under the previous administration, I think the New York Lunacy Commission might be willing to testify. In the matter of crime certain improvements in the restriction laws and procedure are suggested. The commission considers that the immigrants show no marked excess in this direction, except for a foible for homicide among the Italians.

That the illiteracy test will have a considerable effect in lessening the present flood of immigration is shown by the fact that more than thirty-five per cent of it is made up of illiterates, as compared with less than three per cent of the old immigrant class. It is also fortunate that the illiteracy test will not hit that portion of our immigration which still might be classed as political, because caused by political persecution, inasmuch as the Jews can almost all of them read and write.

The commission's conclusions are based upon a belief that

> the measure of the rational healthy development of the country is not the extent of its investment of capital, its output of products or its exports or imports, unless there is a corresponding economic opportunity afforded to the citizen depending upon employment for his material, mental and moral development.

Such an opinion will come as a shock to many people. The development of our natural resources is sometimes regarded almost as a religious duty. To some people it seems a terrible thing that we should not run through our national patrimony in the shortest possible time. So long as there is an unexhausted mine or foot of soil, or a forest not yet cut down, there seems a sort of furor to remedy such oversight. The commission, however, seems to me to have taken a sound basis when it says:

> The development of business may be brought about by means which lower the standard of living of the wage-earners. A slow expansion of industry, which would permit the adaptation and assimilation of the incoming labor supply, is preferable to a very rapid industrial expansion, which results in the immigration of laborers of low standards and efficiency, who imperil the American standard of wages and conditions of employment.

ADJUSTMENT—NOT RESTRICTION

GRACE ABBOTT
Director Immigrant Protective League, Chicago

The student of immigration should perhaps postpone any discussion of the finding of the United States Immigration Commission until all of its reports have been made public. But a "brief statement of the conclusions and recommendations" of the commission has just been submitted to Congress, which will undoubtedly be widely circulated and become the basis for legislation before the publication of its forty volumes of evidence has been even authorized. For this reason some discussion of these conclusions is prematurely forced on all those who are interested in the problem of immigration.

The commission has recommended that the Division of Information and Distribution shall be developed; that steamship lines shall be required to improve steerage conditions; that the exploitation of the immigrant shall be reduced by better federal supervision of existing agencies and the enactment of more effective legislation by the states; and finally, that because of the character of the "new immigration," and because of the oversupply of the kind of labor it furnishes, immigration should be considerably restricted by means of a literacy test. Public attention will probably be focused on this last recommendation and it is necessary, therefore, to consider with some care the reasons on which it is based.

Regarding the character of our recent immigrants the report says that conviction for crime is not more common among them than among the native born (p. 25); that they are not diseased and are rarely found among the victims of alcoholism (p. 27); that pauperism is "relatively at a minimum" among them (p. 27); that their homes are in "reasonably good or fair condition" (p. 28); and that their children attend school in such large numbers as to indicate that the advantages of an education are appreciated by immigrant parents. But all of these facts are outweighed in the eyes of the commission because it believes that the "new immigrants" do not intend to remain here permanently; that they come only to take advantage of the higher wages paid for industrial labor in this country and expect to return in a few years. While admitting this is not true of them all, the report says it is sufficiently common to justify "referring to it as characteristic of them as a class." This is the usual argument advanced against the immigrant of today and it has done service against those of every generation.

Admitting that it is true, it might be urged in the immigrant's defense that he has never been known to take back with him the railroads, canals, and subways he has built, or the great industries that have been developed through his labor. But, as a matter of fact, it cannot be shown that these new immigrants will not remain in this country. The commission finds that forty per cent return to Europe and thirty per cent remain there. Moreover, among the thirty per cent who remain are many who have not acquired a competence, for among those who return, according to the report, are the victims of disease and industrial accidents, the aged, the temperamentally unfit, and the widows and children of immigrants who have died here (p. 16).

What thirty per cent do is usually not regarded as indicating the motives of the whole group and if the thirty per cent is made up very largely of the unfortunate victims of American industrial life, is it reasonable to say that even thirty per cent intended when they came to remain only temporarily in the United States?

The reason for emigrating, the commission finds, is no longer a desire to escape "intolerable conditions", and the public is therefore warned not to consider the immigration movement from the "standpoint of sentiment", but to look upon it as an "economic problem." When from among the many stories of Russian atrocities, that of the young Russian Jewish mother who saw her baby's eyes burned out and her husband killed in one of the "pogroms", and who is saving enough to bring over the remainder of her family to America so that they may know some years of peace, is contrasted

with the very mild persecution suffered by those Puritan ancestors whose courage we have been taught to respect, it would seem that an entirely new standard of "intolerable conditions" has been adopted by the commission. As a matter of fact the causes of immigration today are not really different in principle from those in the seventeenth or in the nineteenth century.

The Letts, Lithuanians, Finns, Poles, and Russians who are coming from all parts of the Czar's dominions are fired with the same political idealism which the German revolutionists contributed to American life; the Jews from Russia and Roumania, the various racial groups that come from Turkey, and the Spanish Protestants are seeking a religious asylum, just as the Puritans, the Huguenots, the English Catholics, and the Quakers did so many years ago; the south Italian, like the Irish immigrant, comes to escape a landlordism which keeps him and his children in abject poverty; others, better situated, are coming from all parts of Europe because they have decided that the only hope of real economic and social independence lies in a newer country; still others are plain adventurers, and it is probably safe to say that about the same per cent of these are succeeding today as have succeeded in every century since the time of Columbus.

As for the economic reasons for restriction, the commission's statements are somewhat difficult to reconcile. It finds that "comparatively few immigrants come without reasonably definite assurance" that they can secure employment, and "that as a rule they know the nature of that employment and the rate of wages" (p. 17). Moreover, according to the commission, they are quick to adjust themselves to changed conditions, and return home when a period of industrial depression like that of 1908 leaves them without employment (p. 28). On the other hand, the commission declares that there is an oversupply of unskilled labor, and so recommends that a "sufficient number" of immigrants should be "debarred to produce a marked effect upon the present supply of unskilled labor." In other words, the commission finds that under existing conditions we seem to have a quick response to an increasing or decreasing demand for labor, and recommends restrictive legislation which would mean the adoption of a quite inflexible system.

With regard to the argument that the immigrant is responsible for the introduction of a lower standard of living in the United States—and the commission does not show that he is—it should be pointed out that the immigrant *prima facie* would never intentionally underbid in the labor market. No one is more eager than he to raise the standard of living, for it is the hope of accomplishing this that has been a determining factor in his decision to leave home. Unwittingly he may accept wages below the market rate if he falls into the hands of disreputable labor agents and unscrupulous employers, who take every advantage of his ignorance of American conditions. Protective measures could, of course, be devised to prevent these practices, but the public unfortunately continues to be more interested in restriction than in means by which these immigrants may be saved from industrial exploitation.

Certain classes of immigrants are, in the opinion of the commission, to be regarded as peculiarly undesirable. It is especially recommended, for example, that men who come unaccompanied by their families should be excluded. While those who are familiar with the immigrant question realize that large groups of men living together present a problem with peculiar difficulties, they are none the less convinced that our efforts should be directed to a solution of these difficulties, rather than to devising some test by which some of the men will be excluded. As a matter of fact the best men, that is the best husbands and fathers, usually emigrate before their families. The man who seriously considers the welfare of his wife and children and is not driven by immediate persecution will precede them to America, learn something of the country, secure employment, and have a little home ready for them when they come to join him. To discourage this practice would seem to be wholly undesirable.

As for the literacy test, it is difficult to find anything to recommend it as the best means, or even as a good means, of selecting our future citizens. What we desire is a character test, and the ability to read and write has never been regarded as a means of determining honesty or thrift. It is not even a test of ambition, for the immigrants come without this meager educational equipment because they have been given no opportunity to attend school in the countries from which they come. There is nothing which is so much the result of conditions over which the immigrant has no control as his ability to read and write, and no deficiency which we are so well equipped to supply.

As for the other tests considered by the commission—an increased head tax or the requirement that an immigrant bring twenty-five, fifty or a hundred dollars—they fail also as tests of a man's "economic fitness." The man who comes with several hundred or thousand dollars may be much less "desirable" than the intelligent and adaptable man who emigrates while he is still young and begins his industry in his new home.

The recommendation that as a condition of admission to the United States the immigrant must present his official police record showing no convictions should never be adopted. The German students of the forties and fifties, to whom America is greatly indebted, would have been excluded under such a requirement, just as the Russians would be at the present time. The commission's searching study of crime in New York city failed to show that crime is any more prevalent among the foreign than among the native born. Skilful criminals will get into the country no matter what rules are adopted, and it is certainly unwise, in an attempt to reach these few, to exclude those who have declared for American political principles in Europe and have suffered conviction in consequence.

In conclusion it may be well to point out that whatever tests are adopted the immigrants will continue to come to us by the hundreds of thousands every year, so discussion of the pros and cons of restriction is quite futile. The real national problem to which we should devote our money, our energy, and our intelligence is how the industrial, social, and political adjustment of the immigrant may be accomplished with the least possible loss to himself and the community.

AN IMMIGRANT LABOR TARIFF

PAUL U. KELLOGG

The sobering generalization clinched in by the findings of the Federal Immigration Commission is that in America today common labor is paid less than a living wage. This is not news. But because this common labor force is largely made up of foreigners and because this federal commission dealt solely with immigrants, its findings visualize this great underlying labor group in its national aspects with fresh and tremendous distinctness.

If, by self-support, is meant for the adult male the ability to maintain a family on his earnings; if, by poverty, is meant the failure of a man to attain such self-support, then American day laborers fall as truly below the poverty line as the 27 per cent of families that Roundtree found in York or the 30.7 per cent that Booth found in London. With us, the rapid expansion of industries and the constant inflow of new immigrants have disguised the situation; but the figures which Mr. Lauck gives, drawn not from one industry but from twenty, not from one community but from two to three hundred, clear away these disguises, and we see the crude, brutal fact that the common laborer, immigrant or native born, who attempts family life in the United States, must supplement his wages by the earnings of wife or child, or must take in lodgers with resulting overcrowding and infant mortality. We read of Asiatics in the Himalayas, the meagerness of whose pasturage has led to polyandry. In an economic sense, we have a counterpart in the thousands of boarding boss establishments in the industrial districts, where one woman keeps house for a dozen men. Unless such a woman supplements the wages paid her man by corporation or contractor, she

cannot bring up children even according to the peasant standards of East Europe. As a social group, American common labor is shown to be bankrupt in the sense that a business, with the same ratio between receipts and expenditures, would be bankrupt. And "this fundamental common labor base," as Professor Willis points out, "lies at the root of the present industrial system of the United States."

Enormous impetus has been given to American industries by the exploitation of this raw labor supply. It is as if the chambers of a coal mine, once cleared with pick and chain-saw, were automatically to flood themselves with new fuel to be had for the digging. In weighing its influence on American labor conditions in the past, Professor Willis's favorable verdict is not altogether convincing, although we have no means for knowing the array of data on which he bases this generalization; but with his judgment as to the undermining effect of such an uncontrolled stream of raw labor in the future, there is instant agreement. It is not enough to urge that this sort of common labor is good for the immigrants who engage in it; that it means unaccustomed opportunity for savings to the single men; for if present policies of treating immigrant labor are to be defended as a philanthropic exercise, sophistry will be bent double. Nor is it enough to urge that unskilled labor is transitional work, and that the men scatter into the country districts. Crowded tenements, insanitary milltown courts, construction camp barracks, and the shacks of outlying mining towns are scarcely reasonable way stations to country life; if we are seriously engaging in the business of distributing immigrants, machinery less socially wasteful could be devised. It is, in fact, the very surplus of immigrant labor that more than anything else depresses these living conditions to levels which would never be known were the employing corporations seriously confronted with the business of attracting to their doors workmen self-resourceful enough to make choices. Nor is it enough to urge that the unskilled men move up to the highly paid grades. Even if this were so the group remains—sixty per cent of the whole force in steel production, for instance,—and, unless there is a change in industrial policy, hundreds of American towns will permanently bear the stamp of household life at under two dollars a day.

If we cannot have cheap, ready-made clothes unless the garment manufacturers can turn needle-workers adrift on the street with every sag in the market; if we cannot have cheap transportation unless the steel car manufacturers can use successive groups of raw immigrants to hammer down the rates of pay of the older men; if we cannot have cheap meat without a crowd of men clamoring for work each day at the gates of the stockyards,—then as a nation better for us to pay more for these things and less for our hospitals, our orphanages, our courts and our prisons, and the other social institutions where the waste of industry comes back as a toll upon humanity.

The very fact of immigration has blocked comprehensive trade union activity to raise the rate paid common labor in the United States. American notions of freedom of contract and inter-state competition have seemed to stand in the way of legislation looking toward the establishment of minimum wage boards—a governmental resource in England and Australia for dealing with the depressed trades,—although Father Ryan's address at the St. Louis Conference of Charities and Correction, last May, voiced a rising sentiment in this country to give serious consideration to such social measures. But the very fact that it is oncoming immigrants who perpetuate and depress this low income group in the American population, suggests the channel through which the situation could be controlled. Yet the two most discussed proposals for restricting immigration — property and educational tests—have the disadvantage that only indirectly do they reach the economic springs of what is distinctly an economic inundation. An alien with a full purse may yet underbid a native for a job; it is not the cultural deficit of a husky country lad from Croatia that threatens American standards; he may be eager for night schools. Is it, therefore, beyond American invention to devise

some instrument to reach the economic sources of the problem more deftly than by the restrictions named? Would it not be possible to apply minimum wage standards directly and solely to the currents of immigration? That is, provide that until an immigrant has spent five years in America he cannot be hired for less than a living wage, say, for purposes of discussion, $2.50 per day.

This adaptation of the principle of child labor certificates to the employment of immigrants is, so far as the writer knows, a proposal hitherto unadvanced. It is ventured while this issue is in press, without testing it in its various aspects, but with faith that there is a working principle here which, once it were threshed out by lawyers, legislators and reformers, might be made the basis of a national program of immigration control more comprehensive and simple than any yet advocated. The suggestion presents various allurements as it is turned over in the mind. As it would involve aliens, who may be disposed to have a different constitutional status from natives, it would seem to a layman that a measure could be framed which would avoid the question of freedom of contract in its ordinary form. There is indeed a precedent for restricting the foreigner's right to contract in the existing contract labor laws. The measure might also conceivably be limited to corporate employers (and contractors for corporations) who are recipients of special legal advantages not possessed by individuals, and might therefore be subjected to the imposition of this restriction in hiring—a point which, on the face of it, lawyers would perhaps be less ready to accept. By such a provision, the application of the plan could be limited largely to those industrial operations where crude labor is handled in the mass, to the detriment of the general welfare; it would not interfere with the minor employments of farm and store which absorb a proportion of each year's newcomers, and which under such an immigration law would claim far greater numbers. Such a plan, affecting equally all states in which immigrants settle, would put none at a special disadvantage. Its proposal would give new alignment to the forces for and against immigration restriction in this country. It would smoke out the exploiters of immigrant labor, who today are glad to have others do the work of agitation against restriction. The various patriotic organizations which are opposed to shutting off America as a refuge for the oppressed would find in such a law no impassable barrier, and at the same time it would tend to bend their energies toward constructive schemes for distributing their co-religionists and fellow countrymen throughout the country and upon the farms. Its tendency would be to stave off congestion in the centers of corporate industrial employment; to check oriental immigration without international discrimination, and to cut down stimulated immigration of all sorts. Its conceivable reaction on American industrial conditions would be even more important, for its tendency would be to force American managers to devise scientific methods of handling crude work other than by means of the back muscles of young country boys. If $2.50 worth of labor had to be gotten out of a man in a day, the work would be put into his hands as a developed stint and not as a piece of lumbering drudgery. Such restriction could not fail to tone up wages in all industrial grades, and its effect on the organization and pay of skilled labor would be cumulative; nor would the change come at once in such a way as to dislocate industry.

The idea of enforcing a minimum wage standard upon unnaturalized immigrants bristles with suggestiveness in its every relation; it has in truth that infectious quality which leads you to suspect some radical flaw. But if, on analysis, the legal and administrative obstacles in the way were to resolve themselves, much tried and tested argument for the enactment of such legislation could be found in the political archives of the last half century. For in essence a minimum-wage immigration certificate would give promise of being—what the wool schedule and the steel schedule and the cotton schedule have failed to prove—a "tariff for the protection of American labor."

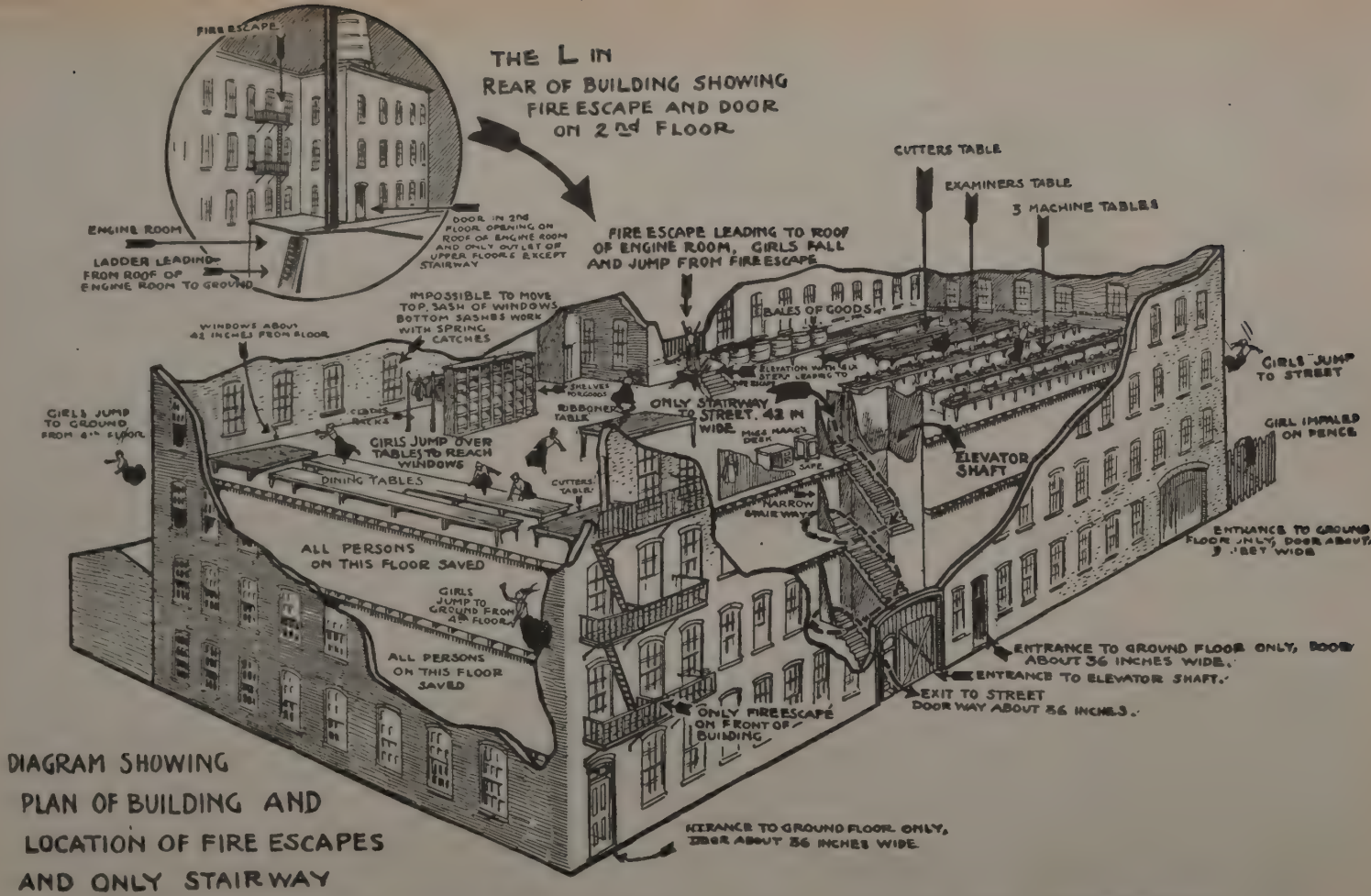

FIRE ESCAPE
THE L IN REAR OF BUILDING SHOWING FIRE ESCAPE AND DOOR ON 2ND FLOOR
ENGINE ROOM
LADDER LEADING FROM ROOF OF ENGINE ROOM TO GROUND
DOOR IN 2ND FLOOR OPENING ON ROOF OF ENGINE ROOM AND ONLY OUTLET OF UPPER FLOORS EXCEPT STAIRWAY
CUTTERS TABLE
EXAMINERS TABLE
3 MACHINE TABLES
FIRE ESCAPE LEADING TO ROOF OF ENGINE ROOM, GIRLS FALL AND JUMP FROM FIRE ESCAPE
IMPOSSIBLE TO MOVE TOP SASH OF WINDOWS BOTTOM SASHES WORK WITH SPRING CATCHES
WINDOWS ABOUT 42 INCHES FROM FLOOR
BALES OF GOODS
GIRLS JUMP TO STREET
GIRLS JUMP TO GROUND FROM 4TH FLOOR
GIRLS JUMP OVER TABLES TO REACH WINDOWS
RIBBONER'S TABLE
ONLY STAIRWAY TO STREET. 42 IN WIDE
GIRL IMPALED ON FENCE
ELEVATOR SHAFT
DINING TABLES
CUTTERS' TABLE
NARROW STAIRWAY
ALL PERSONS ON THIS FLOOR SAVED
ENTRANCE TO GROUND FLOOR ONLY, DOOR ABOUT 3 FEET WIDE
GIRLS JUMP TO GROUND FROM 4TH FLOOR
ALL PERSONS ON THIS FLOOR SAVED
ENTRANCE TO GROUND FLOOR ONLY, DOOR ABOUT 36 INCHES WIDE.
ENTRANCE TO ELEVATOR SHAFT.
EXIT TO STREET DOOR WAY ABOUT 36 INCHES.
ONLY FIRE ESCAPE ON FRONT OF BUILDING
ENTRANCE TO GROUND FLOOR ONLY, DOOR ABOUT 36 INCHES WIDE
DIAGRAM SHOWING PLAN OF BUILDING AND LOCATION OF FIRE ESCAPES AND ONLY STAIRWAY

DIAGRAM OF NEWARK FACTORY IN WHICH TWENTY-FIVE WORKING WOMEN LOST THEIR LIVES NOVEMBER 26.

Factory interior drawn by the Newark *Evening News* from description of employes.

Courtesy of Newark Evening News.

WHERE EIGHT BODIES WERE FOUND AFTER THE NEWARK FACTORY FIRE.

FIRES, FACTORIES AND PREVENTION

THE NEWARK CASUALTY—THE NEW YORK DANGERS

PETER JOSEPH McKEON

CONSULTING ENGINEER ON FIRE INSURANCE AND FIRE PROTECTION

I

There are no records of the life loss in factory fires. Records of the property loss are available, but it is only when a fire is of harrowing proportions and happens in a prominent city that the human hazard receives attention from the general public.

An investigation of the recent factory fire in Newark, N. J., in which twenty-five employes were killed and injured, shows it to have been identical with many others which occur with periodical regularity, and which have to a greater or less extent the same attendant circumstances. It is the same story of dangerous processes carried on in unfit buildings, the same crowding of these buildings with hundreds of work-people, the same neglect of fire alarm facilities, the same omission of panic or exit drills, the same failure to provide safe and sufficient exits, the same failure to use modern mechanical appliances for checking and extinguishing fire, the same failure of laws and public administration to prevent controllable combustion and unnecessary death.

This particular fire occurred in a building which was built in 1855 and had been used ever since for operations involving the handling of oil and grease, so that it contained the fifty years' accumulation of oil and dust which makes fire travel with the speed of an explosion. It was a four-story brick building with wood interior construction; 125 feet in length, so that each floor constituted one large, open room almost a city block long, without any fire walls to stop the spread of a blaze once started.

It was an omnibus tenant building occupied by six concerns manufacturing metal articles, paper boxes, and muslin underwear. They employed all told over 200 employes, and as the fates would have it more than half of these were on the top floor of the building, and unfortunately also were almost entirely girls and women engaged in the manufacture of inflammable muslin underwear.

Directly underneath these 100 women workers, the manufacture of electric lighting lamps was carried on. In this work some gasoline was used. The quantity was reported to be but two quarts, and the operations of manufacturing the lamps were not considered ex-

pecially dangerous. As a matter of fact, the beginning of the fire appears to have been what is to be expected of a fire in almost any manufacturing plant. There was no explosion and the fire did not spread on the floor where it started with any great rapidity. All the employes on the third floor were able to leave it in safety and unharmed by the fire, except one girl who was slightly burned when the fire started.

While this girl's companions were attending to her burns, the foreman tried to extinguish the fire, and one girl ran down stairs and notified the fire company across the street. The firemen ran into the building, assisted the girls on the third floor down the stairway, rescued the foreman, and were then driven off the floor by the fire, which by that time had gained headway.

In the absence of any interior fire alarm system, the earliest notice that the women on the top floor received was the smoke, first rising past the rear windows and then through the stairway and the elevator shaft. In the absence of any prearranged drill or march, a panic occurred and the women rushed wildly to the exits, which, insufficient and unsafe at best, were suddenly taxed far beyond their capacity.

The single stairway, the natural exit, was built of wood and became an avenue by which the fire extended to the top floor. This stairway was located in the center of the building, so that in addition to being useless and unsafe as a means of exit, it introduced the fire into the middle of the top floor, and thereby helped extend the smoke and flames in all directions. Moreover, it divided the women into two groups and cut off one entirely from reaching the two outside fire escapes.

One of these fire escapes was at the extreme end of the building, so that the women who reached it had to travel as much as 125 feet through a workshop crowded with machines, tables, and merchandise. The other fire escape was near the center of the rear of the building. This was more accessible so far as location and distance were concerned, but it was in line with the stairway, and the women who reached it had to pass close to the smoke and flames belching up into the top floor.

In order to reach these fire escapes, steps had been built inside the windows to the level of the sills. So many clamb-

Courtesy of the Newark Star.

WHERE THE GIRLS PLUNGED.

Ledges of the fourth story windows from which they jumped are still embedded in the brick. Note the iron pipe bend in front of the basement windows and the broken wooded picket in the fence. Bend and break were made by falling bodies. An engine house of the Newark Fire Department can be seen opposite.

ered to the steps, that they collapsed and added to the confusion. Entry to the fire escapes was also made more difficult, because the windows did not have sash cords and weights and had to be kept open by the use of sticks or wooden pegs fastened at the sides.

One of the fire escapes was of the balcony and slanting ladder type, and this was used by most of the women who escaped. The other fire escape was of the balcony and straight-ladder type, which is more difficult to climb down, and very few of the women were able to use it.

Nearly fifty women did not reach the fire escapes, but were herded at the other end of the building where there was no means of exit except to jump from the windows. Enveloped in the smoke and feeling the blistering heat, they became frantic and desperate. Some jumped; others were pushed out headlong by the pressing of those behind them, and a number stayed to die by suffocation and burning. It is pitiable to conceive of these fifty women imprisoned by the obsolete ladderless windows, with death in horrible forms at their backs and compelled to choose between that and plunging fifty feet to a landing on the pavement, or in the branches of a tree, on iron pipes, on the sharp pickets of a fence gate, or crashing through the roof of a lower building.

It is a mockery to point out that the girls jumped before the flames really reached them; that if they had waited the firemen could have taken them down safely by way of the ladders; that if they had restrained themselves and jumped singly instead of by twos and threes, the life net would not have been broken and might possibly have saved them all. If factories are to be maintained as fire traps and the workers compelled to stand at windows calmly waiting the result of a race between the flames and the firemen, then they should be instructed how to remain calm and cool amidst blinding smoke and choking heat. But if factories are to be made decently safe for the human beings within them, then the workers need no such instruction, but they do need safe stairways in buildings protected against the rapid spread of fire.

What were the causes of this disaster, and could they have been forestalled? The physical causes which existed in the building were as follows:

A. The absence of a panic or exit drill, which would have tested the safety and capacity of the exits, and also accustomed the occupants to marching out of the building in an orderly and rapid manner.

B. The absence of an interior fire alarm system, which would have promptly warned all the occupants and started the panic or exit drill.

C. The absence of an automatic sprinkler system, which would have extinguished the fire at its start, or held it in check long enough for the occupants to escape and the fire department to stretch hose lines.

D. The presence of a wood stairway and elevator shaft, which quickly conveyed the fire from the third floor to the fourth floor.

E. The dependence on inadequate outside iron fire escapes, which were insufficient in number, small in capacity, difficult of access, difficult of use, and unprotected against fire, which originating on a lower floor rendered them entirely useless to those above.

F. The absence of interior stairways, sufficient in number and constructed in a flameproof manner to make them safe and reliable exits.

Who was responsible for these preventable causes?

First, private responsibility rested on building owners and employers, in their failure and neglect to give adequate thought to the safety of the buildings they owned or housed their work-people in. Only the owners and occupants of a building in the last analysis can prevent fire disasters. The owner is this case is a non-resident woman who, when she was served with an order to provide an additional fire escape and had complied with that order, probably felt that she had done all that could possibly be asked of her. But had she felt concern for the fire dangers of her building, she would probably have placed the matter in the hands of her real estate agent or fire insurance broker. These are interested in the commercial side of the fire problems, and personally concerned with commission rates and premiums more than with the danger to life and limb.

What is true of the owner's attitude is

Courtesy Newark Evening News.

RUINS OF THE NEWARK FACTORY AFTER THE FIRE. COMPARE WITH DIAGRAM ON PAGE 582.

also true of the employer's. In this case, the employers did not own the building and accordingly shifted the responsibility for the building conditions upon the landlord. To the occupancy conditions, for which the landlord was not responsible, they paid no attention beyond buying some iron fire pails. That they owed it to their employes to provide safety against fire was an absent consideration; or like the landlord they depended on their fire insurance advisers and upon such precautions as the public authorities actually enforced. The employer of the girls who were killed is quoted in the public press as testifying at the coroner's inquest that the blame, if any, belonged to his forewoman, who was one of the victims. Thus, private responsibility is left to run in a vicious circle and those concerned shift it about among themselves.

Public responsibility takes much the same course, involving as it does state laws and city ordinances which are defective, inadequate and antiquated in respect to fire prevention.

The local ordinances are faulty in construction, because they do not center responsibility for preventing fire in some competent and equipped municipal authority and because the Fire Department (the department most directly concerned at present with all fire matters) is not empowered to secure the correction of dangerous conditions with which it acquaints itself. They are also faulty because they set a standard of outside fire escapes, which are inadequate and difficult to use.

The Fire Department is organized and maintained on the basis of extinguishing fires, not preventing them. Its organization does not include a bureau equipped and empowered to make a thorough study of fire conditions in buildings, nor to issue specific orders calling for the safeguarding of occupants according to the established rules and principles of the science of fire prevention. Newark is like most other cities in that it maintains a corps of men and an array of apparatus for *outside* fire work; but the *inside* fire work, the rigid inspection of buildings by trained and competent fire inspectors, is missing.

It will only be when the citizens realize that a bureau of prevention must be equipped and supported just as much as a bureau of extinguishing, that they can expect permanent improvement in the fire conditions of their homes and business buildings.

Local ordinances place upon the Building Department the duty of seeing that fire escapes exist on buildings, but since the passage of the state labor law, in 1904, the Newark Building Department has left this matter to the Department of State Factory Inspection, on the ground that the latter has superior jurisdiction and deals especially with factories. Such a dual authority always results in one department neglecting its share of the work. In this case, the superintendent of buildings offers the additional explanation, that the small staff of his department has been fully occupied in inspecting the erection of the large number of new buildings and the alteration of old buildings, and has not had the staff or facilities to inspect old buildings.

The state labor law of New Jersey provides in respect to the number of fire escapes:

> Every factory, workshop, mill or place where the manufacture of goods of any kind is carried on, which is three or more stories in height and in which twenty-five or more operatives shall be at work, shall be provided with outside fire escapes.
>
> Fire escapes shall be located at such places on the said buildings as may be best suited for the purpose intended or as the commissioner may designate in writing, and shall take in one or more windows on each floor above the first floor.

Such a law is deficient on its face because it does not specify any minimum standards, sufficient to accommodate the number of persons depending on them as an exit in case of fire. It is defective because it relies on a style of outside iron fire escape which has been proved to be undependable and difficult of use. The law is most faulty of all in neglecting other fire prevention measures which are much more necessary and effective.

With a law so defective, little could be expected of its administration: but it is to be noted that the authorities had considerable discretionary power under it, and that to a degree they could have raised

standards. The state commissioner of labor in published interviews states:

> Since the organization of this department in 1904, this building has been inspected at least twice a year and some times three times a year by different inspectors of this department. Reports were received from five different inspectors.

He states that following the first of these inspections the owner was compelled, under threat of legal proceedings, to erect the fire escapes at the north end of the building. Of the subsequent inspections the commissioner says:

> None of these reports from any of these inspectors has recommended or in any way suggested to this department the necessity of additions or alterations in the means provided for escape from the building.
>
> In view of the fact that this building had been inspected continuously by five different inspectors, whose reports show no material difference with regard to the adequacy of the escape protection in this building, this department had no reason to assume either that the inspections were in any way inadequate, or that the reports of the inspectors were not reliable.

The commissioner concludes:

> The fault lies in the law itself and not in its administration.

The local state factory inspector is reported to have said:

> I can't understand how it could have happened. It doesn't seem possible under conditions as I found them at the time of my last visit to the factory, that under any circumstances would there have been any trouble in getting out of the place.

The fact that the fire did occur and that twenty-five lives were lost under distressing circumstances would seem conclusive that the state factory inspection department was not dealing in a competent manner with the fire conditions of factories.

If the State Factory Inspection Department stands by its inspection of this particular building, it seems a natural inference that there are many factories in the state of New Jersey which are in a similar condition, and which should without delay be brought under new standards of law and enforcement. It is publicly claimed that in Newark alone hundreds of factories are as dangerous as this factory proved to be. The Newark *Evening News* for November 30 quotes from fire insurance records a number of instances from which five are here quoted in abbreviated form by way of illustration:

> In a closely built up section of the city there exists an extensive industrial plant employing from 500 to 600 men, women and girls; not a single fire escape is provided for their use, and the industry is of a peculiarly perilous character.
>
> In another factory 650 employes in the four stories of the plant are limited to the fire escapes on which to fight for their lives if a disastrous blaze should occur. The building contains several special hazards and in it there are three open stairways and two open elevators.
>
> In a three-story and basement structure, eighty girls work where the usual means of escape from the building might be quickly cut off because of the unenclosed elevators and stairways, yet no fire escape is provided.
>
> One factory occupies the third, fourth and fifth floors of a building and employs more than one hundred women, while the first floor of the building is used as a garage. There is a solitary narrow iron escape in the rear; the elevator shaft is open and the stairway is not generous in width.

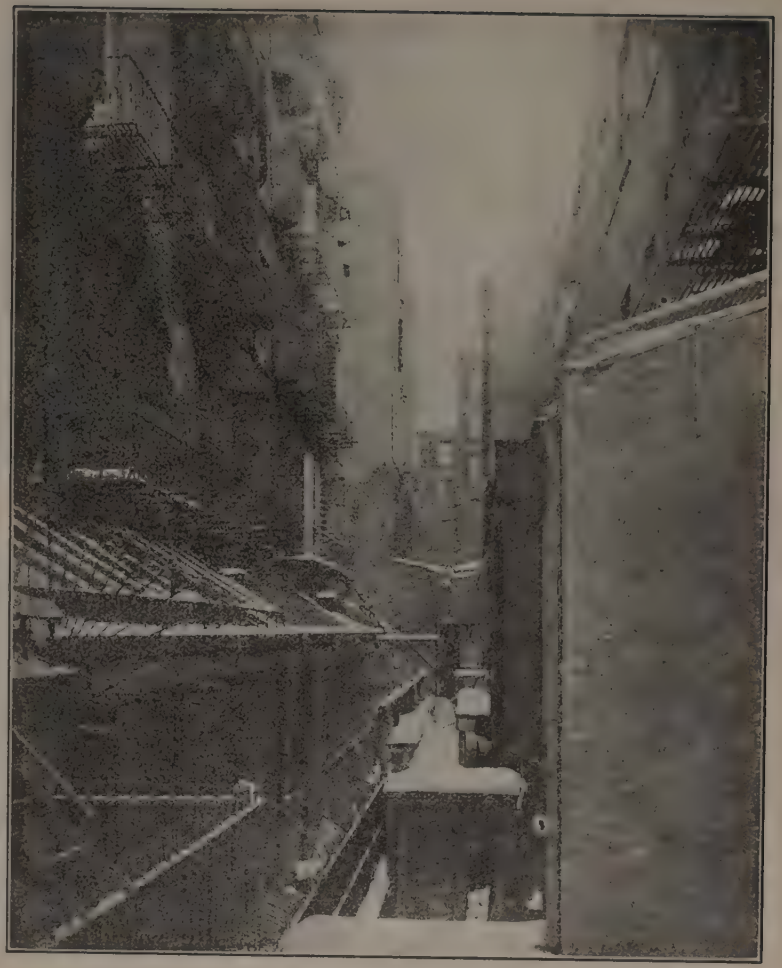
II.

This Newark fire is a challenge to public opinion throughout the metropolitan industrial district centering in New York—especially with respect to the fire hazards in the loft buildings in Manhattan.

Factory conditions in Greater New York are undoubtedly as bad as those just described in Newark. Any fire inspector can testify to this from personal observation, and the larger number of factories means a greater number of people endangered. New York has nearly 30,000 industrial establishments, with close to 700,000 workers in them. These are distributed among 12,000 buildings, only 1,000 of which are of fireproof construction. The remaining 11,000 factory buildings are of ordinary non-fireproof construction, with the same wood stairways and outside fire escapes which made the Newark factory a fire-trap. The fireproof factory buildings have an advantage in their incombustible construction, but this advantage is offset by the fact that they are built of such height and area that they represent a

TYPICAL NEW YORK FRONTS.

Fire escapes on twelve-story building. The drop ladders shown here are out of reach, hanging from the fire escape platform on the third story. These



IN THE MIDDLE OF THE BLOCK.

Fire conditions, typical of rears of many loft buildings similar to those shown in adjoining photograph. Fire escapes, without ladders, such as those shown, enable the occupants of a given floor to escape around the fire wall.

special fire problem, whose possibilities are yet to be demonstrated. Some of these buildings are twenty stories high; their areas exceed 10,000 square feet, and single buildings house over 1,000 employes. It is usual for this small army of people to have no prearranged drill or march whereby they are accustomed to leave the building in an orderly and systematic manner, and in case of fire they would simply rush to the available exits. These exits are usually only two in number, one of which is an outside fire escape, likely to be covered with snow or ice in the winter season or to be cut off by smoke and flames in case the fire is on a lower floor.

The state factory inspectors of the State Bureau of Labor, who particularly supervise the factory conditions, are working under a fire escape law which is as defective as the New Jersey law. It reads:

> Such fire escapes as may be deemed necessary by the commissioner of labor shall be provided on the outside of every factory in this state, consisting of three or more stories in height.

In practice this leaves it to the discretion and competence of the staff to decide whether fire escapes shall be needed, and it is therefore proper to inquire what instruction or training in fire prevention science is given these inspectors. As a matter of fact, however, in New York city, the State Bureau of Labor refers all fire escape matters to the Municipal Bureau of Buildings, because the Appellate Division has ruled that the Bureau of Buildings has exclusive jurisdiction over fire escapes in Greater New York.

The Fire Department is able to do little to make factory buildings safe against fire, an argument for the reorganization of this department urged by Commissioner Waldo. The Fire Department company commanders, on their semi-annual inspection of buildings, make recommendations that fire escapes be placed on structures which in their judgment require them. This important duty is performed by subordinate officers, and as a general rule, the Fire Department recommendation has the purpose of pro-

TYPICAL DANGEROUS FACTORIES IN NEW YORK CITY

Artificial Flower Manufacturing. Non-fireproof construction. 125 feet long. One wood stairway, unlighted, with doors in the way at each floor. One fire escape for 200 persons. Three gas engines. Heating apparatus reported unsafe.

Strawbraid Manufacturing. Seven-story, non-fireproof. Wood stairs and elevator. 400 persons. Two fire escapes, both on one side of building, liable to be cut off by fire.

Omnibus Manufacturing. Seven-story non-fireproof construction, fire escapes in rear, 150 persons. 300 pounds of chlorate of potash in basement (the chemical that caused the Tarrant explosion). On upper floors, benzine, alcohol, varnish, sulphuric acid, etc., are used in processes; also steam- and gas-heated glue tanks and kettles.

Handkerchief Manufacturing. Three-story frame building, 400 feet long. 300 girls on top floor. Fire escapes insufficient and windows difficult to open. No fire drills.

Sweat Shop. Five-story, non-fireproof. L-shaped building with one wood stairway at end of building. Fire escapes deficient. Sweat shops with 200 persons on two top floors and lower floors. Used by dangerous woodworking factories.

Printing House. Five- and six-story building, old-style fireproof construction with structural iron unprotected. Area over 15,000 square feet. 500 employes. No fire escapes. One circular stairway. Heavy iron frame windows, cannot be used for exits and would obstruct entrance of firemen. Benzine and collodion, ether and gun cotton used in work.

Printery. Seven-story, fireproof building. 38,000 square feet area. Unprotected steel and iron columns supporting floors. No fire escapes. Over 1,000 employes. Hazards of high tension electric current on first floor and hazards of printing and engraving on other floors. Heavy machinery above third floor. Handling of benzine in large quantities in manner unapproved by New York Board of Fire Underwriters. Stairways at one end of building.

Garment Manufacturing. Non-fireproof building. Wood stairs, unlighted. Sixty persons in room with door barred and fire escape blocked.

FIRE ESCAPE ON A NEW YORK LOFT BUILDING.

The ladder is hung from the fourth floor balcony, and can be reached only from the third. In case of fire, the last story would inevitably be taken at a jump by the occupants of the building, with their companions crowding on down behind them. They would pile up in an injured heap on the sidewalk. Photograph taken in December.

viding a means of entrance for firemen in their work of extinguishing the fire, and not a means of exit for the occupants of a building. The recommendations for fire escapes made by the company commanders are forwarded to the chief of department, who is expected to send them to the Bureau of Buildings for action.

All the means of exit that the law provides for factories are thus focused on the fire escape provision of the Building Code, which reads as follows:

> Every factory, mill, manufactory or workshop . . . . shall be provided with such good and sufficient fire escape stairways, or other means of egress in case of fire as shall be directed by the Department of Buildings.

The application of this law is made by inspectors who are required to be competent in construction details, but it is a question whether their experience and training fit them to pass upon fire conditions, and the special problems connected with discharging great numbers of people from a building on fire.

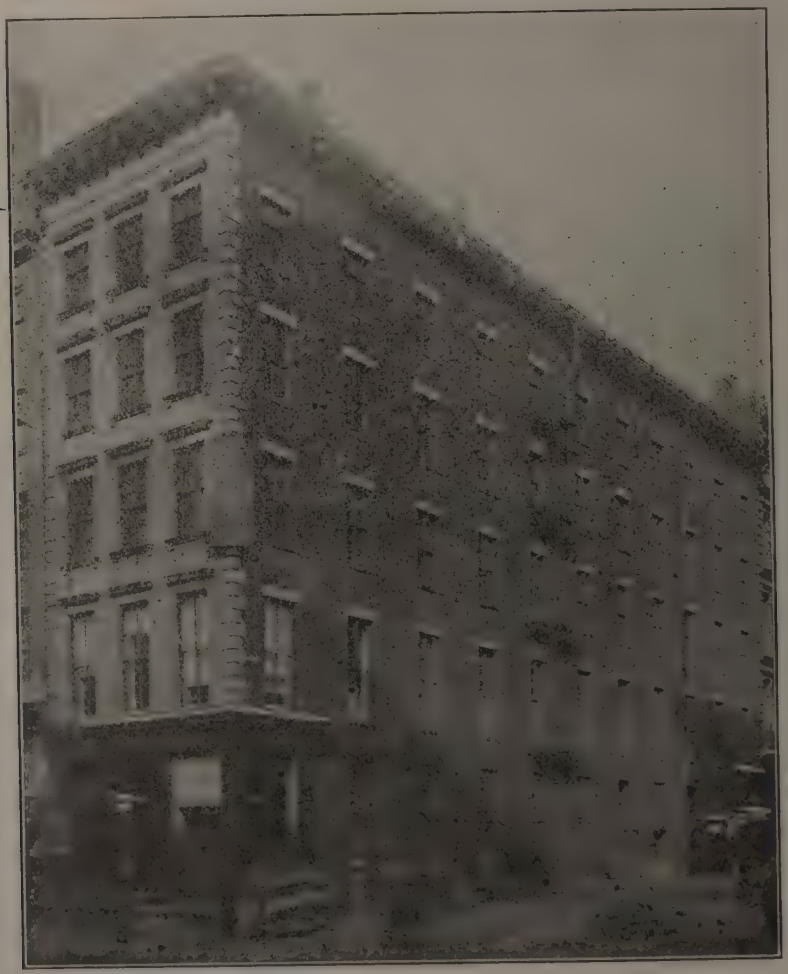
The type of fire escape which is almost universal on factory buildings in New York city, is the balcony and ladder fire escape. The illustrations indicate plainly some of the bad features of this type. Many others could be illustrated, such as obstructions to the windows leading

A JUMP OFF.

Fire escape on laundry building. No ladder at all. Photograph taken in December.

to the fire escapes, the difficulty of opening these windows and entering upon the balcony, the closing of fire escape entrances by iron shutters, the difficulty in descending iron ladders placed at varying angles, the practical impossibility of using such fire escapes when covered with snow or ice or if the fire is issuing from the windows underneath, the necessity for a drop ladder at the last landing, the difficulty of placing this ladder in position, the fact that it is frequently missing or out of reach, the weight of this ladder, which must be raised by women and girls, etc. etc.

The neglect of the fire danger is deep-rooted and widespread. A campaign against fire should be waged, just as there is a campaign against tuberculosis. Fire is a disease which is epidemic in all buildings and which will yield only to the same treatment which has been successful with other diseases. Education is the first step. The same conditions which existed in the Newark factory building, which killed women and girls, can be



AN EXTREME EXAMPLE OF HUMAN FIRE RISK.

Non-fireproof factory building, New York, 125 feet long with fourteen windows. One fire escape reached by only one window on each floor. Fifty to one hundred persons work on each floor of this building. Photograph taken in December.

FIRE TRAP A.

Fire escape on side of building for the accommodation of 125 men and girls, employed on three floors of hardware manufacturing establishment, New York. Ladder swung back to wall and held there by the iron gate which is latched open by hook near the ground. People coming down fire escape could not free the ladder, and pushed off by those behind them, would likely land on the pointed barbs of the iron gate. Photograph taken in December.

found in many other buildings. Many of the people who are indignantly calling for the punishment of those responsible for this loss of life in Newark are probably maintaining buildings equally as dangerous. If they do not own or lease factories, stores, hotels, or other business building, they are actively interested in schools, hospitals or similar institutions which are without proper fire protection. Their own homes, indeed, are, in nine cases out of ten, personal death traps.

FIRE TRAP B.

Fire escape at rear of building used for industrial purposes, the lowest ladder ending on an iron picket fence, spiked, with a five-foot jump to the snow covered lumber below.

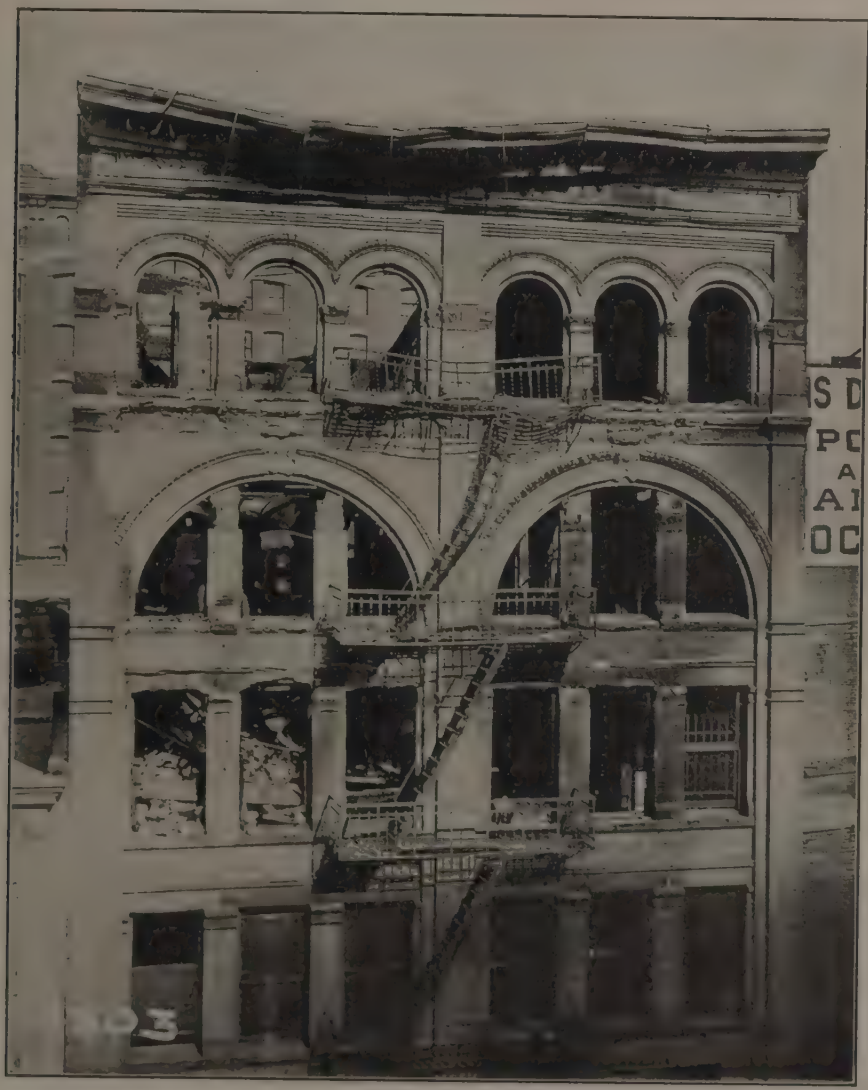
If a man does not protect his home and his family, is he likely to protect his factory and his employes?

Some improvement can be secured by legislation. If theaters and tenements[1] can effectively be safeguarded, so can factories. But the laws will have to be based on sound principles of fire safety and will have to take heed of what fire prevention science has already established as necessary precautions. They will have to set standards for new constructions and they will have to recognize the changed demands which changed oc-

[1]Protection against fire is one of the features of the New York tenement law most vigorously looked after by the Tenement House Department in passing upon plans for new buildings. There has not to date, been a fire fatality in a "new law tenement."

cupancy, processes, and populations make on structures. The application of the laws will also have to be made by competent inspectors: either special fire prevention inspectors will have to be employed, or the regular inspectors will need instruction and training in fire prevention science.

And responsibility for the enforcement of the law must be centered inescapably upon a public agency commissioned and equipped to carry out its full purpose. My belief is that this agency should be the state factory inspection department, in each state; and that in cities where professional fire departments are maintained, it should logically be turned over to this department, particularly organized to protect life and property from fire. The state labor department and other



FIRE ESCAPES SHOWING DESTRUCTIVE ACTION OF FIRE ON OUTSIDE BALCONIES.
The photograph illustrates the danger of relying solely on such means as a way of exit.

interested departments should co-operate. It should be in position to call on the building department to see that structurally, new buildings meet its standards, but the power and responsibility for constant inspection and enforcement should be concentrated. The fire department is expected to extinguish fire; why not to prevent fire? The fire department officers are best informed about the fire conditions in buildings; they know from personal experience the characteristics of fire and its capacity to destroy life and property, and this practical knowledge should be co-ordinated with fire prevention science and made the basis of a fire prevention bureau.

WARDING OFF THE FACTORY FIRE PANIC AND ITS LOSS OF LIFE

H. F. J. PORTER
INDUSTRIAL ENGINEER, NEW YORK.

The tendency in building construction nowadays, is manifestly towards the use of fireproof material for the obvious purpose of preventing fire and the resulting loss of lives and property. It will, however, be years before all factory structures will be fireproof, and in the meantime it becomes necessary to consider methods for protecting the lives and property housed in such factories as now exist, and will continue to exist for a long time to come.

The laws of the land and of the community in which a factory is situated require the fulfilment of certain obligations to insure such protection; but the moral responsibility which rests upon the employer of labor who assembles many people in a building to work for him should incite him to do many things for their protection while there, which it is evident cannot be embodied in the law.

Moreover, it is clearly to his own self-interest that every consideration should be given to effect a prompt escape from the building in case of fire; for it is the first duty of a fire department to save lives which are in jeopardy, before attempting to save property, and meantime much property may be destroyed. In addition, experience shows that there are more casualties resulting from panic during a fire than from the fire itself, and that panic frequently occurs simply at an alarm of fire, and on other occasions when there is only a suggestion of danger. It therefore, devolves upon the employer to take such precautions as will not only insure the rapid exit of his employes from the building, but will also protect them from the results of panic due to any cause whatever.

Let us consider the methods in vogue for protecting the lives of employes in the ordinary factory, of which there are hundreds in every large city of the country. In all we find fire buckets; in many of them standpipes with hose attached; and some of them have sprinkler systems. But in few of the factories so provided have certain specified individuals been assigned to the duty of using the buckets or the hose in case of fire, or of turning off the sprinkler system after the fire is out; and what is anybody's business is nobody's, especially under stress of excitement. All such appliances can become effective only by the development among the employes of a regular fire-fighting corps.

The fire escapes supplied to buildings are generally of such construction as to be themselves more a source of accident than an escape from it. As a rule they consist of outside iron balconies, one at each floor, connected by means of ladders, the lowest balcony having its ladder detached and hung up, so as to prevent people from entering the building from the ground. These ladders are at an angle of fifty or sixty degrees, and

BALCONY ESCAPE, STRADDLING FIRE WALL BETWEEN BUILDINGS.

Tenants on any floor do not have to crowd down the ladders to the street, but pass around the fire wall to safety in the adjoining building. A suggestion for tenement construction.

in order to descend, people have to turn around and go down backwards, with others crowding down on top of them. In cases of emergency when both men and women have to descend by such means, and especially in winter weather when the iron is cold and perhaps covered with snow or ice, these so-called escapes are prolific of hazards which add to rather than take away the dangers attendant upon a fire. At the lowest balcony, the ladder is often a long one, correspondingly heavy, and the combined strength of several men is necessary to handle it. This is particularly true if it is out of place, as it frequently is. Men are not necessarily the first to reach the landing where it is located, and if not they cannot well get there after women have crowded down ahead of them. On such occasions a jam results, crowding those who are near the opening to a fall. Many of these fire escapes can be improved by making slight changes in them. The ideal fire escape has no ladder whatever, but is merely a balcony running from one building to another, separated by a fire wall. This enables an immediate horizontal escape from the blaze, with

COUNTER-WEIGHTED LADDER.

A few of these can be found in New York. They are an improvement over detached ladders, but dangerous on account of the rusting of chain and pulleys.

the discharge of the people to the street at their convenience from the adjoining protected building. Detached stairs, hung vertically on a pulley, are often no more available than detached ladders, for the pulleys often get clogged, and the wire rope rusts and breaks, letting the weight fall on someone. A ladder which swings horizontal to the lowest balcony, which has neither chain nor pulleys, and which drops gradually when the person runs out upon it has obvious advantages; while a fireproof well or bricked-in fire escape with proper inlets, such as has been developed by the New England Mutual Fire Associations, excels these others, and can be erected in new constructions and added to many old.

It is usually assumed that where fire extinguishing apparatus has been installed in a building and regular fire escapes provided, everything necessary to meet an emergency has been arranged; that the fire, if it occurs, will promptly be extinguished; or if not, and danger threatens the occupants of the buildings, that the latter will get out without difficulty over the fire escapes.

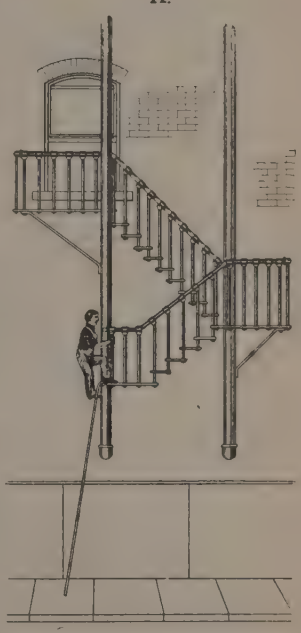
But somehow or other experience does not bear out this assumption. It seems that the mere installation of fire extinguishing apparatus does not make it effective at those critical times when, if it is not effective, it has no excuse for being. It must be kept in order; someone must be instructed in its use and assigned to the duty of using it at the proper time. It seems, too, that fire escapes become obstructed or broken through not being used; that people, not being accustomed to them, prove afraid to go down in an emergency; or that

MASSACHUSETTS STANDARD FIRE ESCAPE DROP LADDER.

This ladder lowers automatically with the weight of the first person to set foot upon it. No pulleys and chains to rust out. No ladder to lift, with a frightened mob of people crowding behind the first comer. So far as the New York Building Department knows, there is no such ladder in Greater New York.

I.

II.



THE A B C OF FIRE ESCAPE CONSTRUCTION.

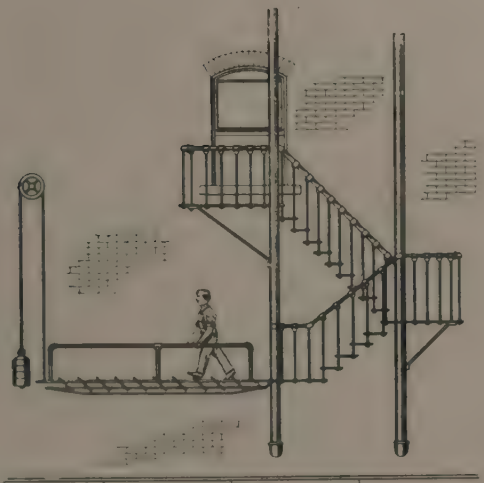
I.—Old style fire ladder stowed away. Must be unhooked and lifted into position and is often too heavy for the first comer to handle, or is found to be misplaced and out of reach.

II.—Old style fire escape ladder lowered. Every person descending must stop and turn round to climb down while the stairs above may be jammed with people who may crowd each other off the balcony and ladder in their effort to get down quickly.

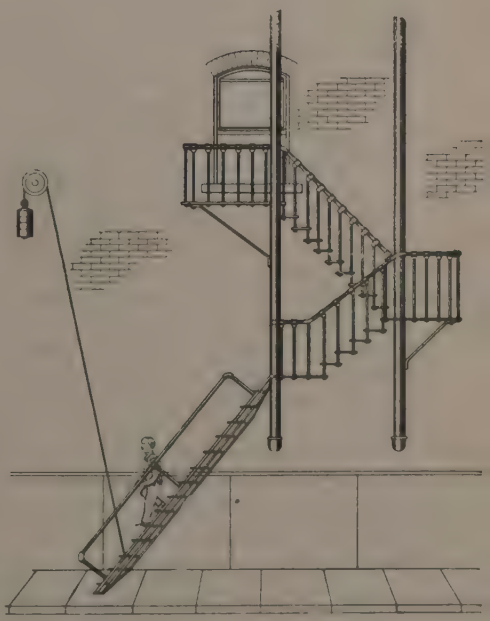
III.—Improved ladder, stowed away.

IV.—Improved ladder lowered. It falls gradually with the weight of the first person who steps upon it.

III.



IV.



Note—The diagram shows a weight and pulley apparatus to balance this ladder. Such apparatus is likely to get rusted and out of order. A better design is that in which the ladder is swung on an axle with a counterbalance to hold it horizontally when not in use. It locks itself in position when lowered. [See Boston Standard, page 549.]

if many try to use them at the same time they are jammed on them and injured. In ne great New York factory, the engineer in charge was offended that an outsider should be called in to investigate the system of fire precaution in vogue. The factory had several varieties of fire extinguishers, tanks, grenades, etc. One of each type was taken to the rear of the building to demonstrate its efficiency. Not one of them worked. The tank, for instance, had been religiously refilled from time to time, but its nozzle had been plugged by someone with a pencil which stuck fast. It is a truism that in order to depend upon anything being ready for effective service when needed, it must be used occasionally.

The only way to accomplish this, in the case of fire appurtenances, is through recurrent fire drill, whose effectiveness has long been proved in the public schools. Boys drilled in it are now men, and appreciating the soundness of its principles have here and there put it into effect in their own factories, and in other buildings where people congregate. In these adaptations its benefits have been at once apparent, for every thing is so supervised that a fire is not apt to occur, and this knowledge lessens the danger of panic.

Under ordinary circumstances, however, where no plan of action has been preconcerted, everybody is naturally always in a state of more or less anxiety; and when a fire does take place no one knows what to do. Where a fire drill has been installed, everyone knows exactly what to do; he has done it from time to time when the signal has been given unexpectedly. Here is all the difference between ignorance and knowledge. One inspires terror, the other confidence; one breeds panic, the other promotes orderly escape. Meanwhile, the fire fighting corps, which is part of a comprehensive fire drill organization, attacks the fire effectively in its incipiency; and the public department, once on the scene, can center its work on the task of extinguishing a burning building from which the human hazard has been eliminated.

Employers who have installed fire drills in their organizations say that they feel relief in the fact that they have done what was in their power to make conditions as safe as possible for their employes. Employes who have worked where a fire drill is installed say that they can go at their work with their minds freed from anxiety, and this in the last analysis is a paying investment for the employer.

Sometimes panics occur where there is no danger. The daily press recently told how fifty girls became hysterical and several fainted in a shirt factory, where a newspaper blazed up from a spark from an electric motor, and many women were trodden down in a senseless panic by men who were more terrified than they. The press has also told of a large neckwear manufacturing plant, where the employes became frightened by smoke entering the windows from a burning tar pot in the street, and in their rush for the exits a dozen were so injured as to require the attention of surgeons.

Although against the law of many states, it is not infrequent that factory doors used by the employes are kept locked during working hours. In one such case, of the 400 girls locked in on the fifth floor of an underwear factory, some leaped into nets held by the firemen and others were taken down on the fire ladders; many were more or less injured, all nervously shocked. In a recent fire in a feather factory, the girl empl yes went down the fire escapes until they reached the last balcony, where they could not handle the heavy portable ladder; when they were later carried away bv the firemen, some were fainting from the suffocating smoke.

In similar instances fire drills have saved lives. For example, not long ago in a Chicago factory fire, the employes on signal formed and marched from the building which shortly afterwards burned to the ground. An equally significant case occurred recently in a Brooklyn public school. The children, who were in real danger, were marshalled by the teachers in the fire drill, and the building was completey emptied in a few minutes without panic or excitement, while across

the street the inmates of a factory, who were in no danger whatever, but who had no fire drill, became panic stricken. Several were seriously injured and considerable property was destroyed before they could be controlled.

In a factory where I was engaged several years ago, I found conditions such that in case of a fire either within the building or in adjacent buildings it would be necessary to empty the factory of its occupants promptly. I established a fire drill, which by occasional repetition reduced the time of exit from more than seven minutes to less than three, a saving which in a rapidly burning fire or one involving considerable smoke might be the margin between life and death. Since that time I have introduced similar drills into many factories and in every case with remarkably desirable results. Sometimes, as usually happens in the case of actual danger, the drill is at first accompanied by the fainting of a few of the girls. Later all become possessed of a feeling of security, which largely counteracts the tendency to faint or stampede, and a habit of prompt and rapid dismissal is acquired. Near one of the buildings where I was at work, a clothing factory employing nearly 1,000 hands, both men and women, an altercation occurred between men in an adjoining railroad yard. One of the employes called out "fight!" Mistaking the call to be "fire" a panic followed, the factory was emptied, but only after many accidents, one man leaping from a second story fire escape and breaking his leg. The fire drill has altogether eliminated this sort of hair trigger trepidation.

In another factory, where 1,000 girls were engaged in making shirtwaists, the appearance of a rat occasioned a stampede, in which many girls were injured. There have been similar alarms since the drill has been introduced, but the girls have gone quickly to the nearest exit without excitement.

Factory fire drills naturally vary greatly, depending upon the character of the building and the type of occupants. A large New York candy factory is composed of several buildings, some of them ten stories high, located side by side with fire walls between. The superintendent had thought he could empty any one of the buildings in from ten to twelve minutes, taking the occupants down to the street. To take the place of this, a drill was arranged so that the occupants of each floor on any building moved horizontally through a fire door (already existing) into the same floor of the adjoining building. In this way any one of the ten-story buildings was emptied, not in ten minutes, but forty-five seconds. Later, a fire occurred in this factory during a Christmas holiday rush (a cigarette or a match had been thrown into a lot of paper boxes), and the drill operated perfectly. A pencil factory covering a city block, with thirteen separate buildings, was drilled so that if a fire should occur in any building it could be emptied in less than three minutes, the occupants of no other building being disturbed unless they became endangered similarly.

I have installed fire drills in several cigar factories. A description of the largest and most complicated of these may be of interest, as indicative of the way some of the problems presented by factory fires can be met:—The building is seven stories high, and unusually large for its kind, covering 7,500 square feet of ground. It is of brick with ordinary wood beam interior construction, and houses on an average more than 2,000 employes, mostly women, a large percentage of whom are foreigners, with always a fair sprinkling of recently arrived immigrants. They had to be dismissed at noon and evening by departments, in order to prevent accidents on the stairways and to facilitate exit. The fire drill which was installed is comparable to what in the city streets is known as "traffic regulation." In teaching it, instead of letting everybody leave the building by any exit he or she chose, certain exits were assigned to the occupants of certain floors, so that the stream of people from one floor could not intercept that from any other, collisions being thus absolutely avoided.

It had been the custom to have all the employes enter and leave by one doorway, in front of the building, to which leads stairway "A." The people on some

of the floors used stairway "A" direct to the street, while those on other floors used the rear stairway, "B," as far as the second floor, and then crossed to the front of the building to stairway "A." For ordinary occasions this one exit sufficed, but for an emergency, such as a panic or a fire, it would have been inevitably congested and the weak would have been trampled under foot.

To provide for a prompt dismissal with ample exits was the problem. In the matter of exits the end desired was, if possible, to provide a separate stairway for each floor. In studying the building it was seen that by proper arrangement stairway "A" could provide for the second and third floors. The second floor contained a number of office employes as well as a number of cigar workers. The office employes were assigned to a small private stairway leading to the office on the first floor, whence they made their exit through the office street door. One side of stairway "A" was given to the cigar workers. The first flight of this stairway was wide enough to accommodate two streams of people. By putting up a stout handrail, the flight was divided into two stairways. The second floor workers took one side, while the third floor workers had the entire use of the stairway from the third to the second floor, and then used the other half of the stairway from the second floor to the street.

To the fourth floor was assigned the rear stairway "B," by which the occupants descended to the first floor, whence they had an exit directly to the side street. The fifth floor was connected by a bridge with a tobacco storage building adjoining, and thus had access to its stairway.

The sixth and seventh floors remained to be provided with exits. All the stairways had been utilized to their full capacity, so that some other means had to be devised. It happens that there are tenement houses adjoining the factory on the side and rear, and the roofs of these are nearly level with the sixth floor. As the company owns these houses they could be utilized, and it was arranged

EFFECT OF PREVISION.

Fire drill, developed by Mr. Porter, in seven-story tobacco factory, New York; 2,000 employes reached the street level at all trials, in less than five minutes.

to discharge the sixth and seventh floors to their roofs, and have the workers descend through them to the street. To accomplish this, three doorways were broken through the walls of the building at the sixth floor level. In this way it was possible to arrange for the sixth floor to discharge its 400 employes immediately through two side doorways, while the 150 employes on the seventn floor came down the upper flight of stairway "B" to the sixth floor, and then went out through the doorway opening on the roof at the rear. Thus, in each case, the neighbor's tenement stairways became available and the operatives on the two upper factory floors, who previously, in case of fire, would not have been able to escape, were able to leave the building as quickly as those on the floors under them.

MAKING HASTE SLOWLY.

Employes on sixth floor of New York tobacco factory making exit to roof of adjoining tenement and thus to stairs and street. Employes on seventh floor are at the same time making exit to the roof at rear of building. These emergency outlets for the upper floors were designed to prevent a stampede on the main stairway.

This arrangement of stairways and exits provided satisfactory means of egress without using the fire escapes, which were left for the Fire Department to use as entrances.

Once the question of exits was settled, the actual work of drilling began. On account of the various nationalities, age and character of the people, this had to be done slowly and carefully. The first step was to post notices, simply announcing that the company was about to introduce a fire drill as a means of getting the employes out of the building rapidly and without confusion. A little later a second notice was posted, giving some detailed information about how the drill was to be carried out. Copies of this notice were given to all employes to be taken home, so that those who did not understand it readily could have it explained by friends familiar with fire drill as carried out in the public schools. After a time a third notice was posted, giving the rules and directions to be followed by employes.

In the system devised the foreman of each floor acted as captain, and all the employes on that floor were instructed to follow his orders. Some of the men were detailed to handle the fire extinguishers; others were appointed guards to open the doors, stand at the stairways and congested points, keep the lines moving and assist any one who needed it.

FIRE DRILL IN ACTION—1.

Sending the alarm on the fourth floor. Each floor has such an alarm box, which signals automatically to every other floor, indicating not only that there is a fire, but on what floor it has broken out. Defender Manufacturing Company, the manufacturing branch of the H. B. Claflin Company.

Certain women were designated as searchers to examine the dressing rooms and make sure that no one was left behind.

A system of gongs was introduced, so that when a fire was discovered an alarm could be sent from near the foreman's desk on any floor simultaneously to all floors, and to the main office where there was connection with the public fire department. The alarm indicated by the number of strokes which floor was afire. At its sound the men detailed as guards opened the doors and took their places on the stairs, the fire-fighters without delay got the factory fire-fighting apparatus on its way to the floor indicated by the signal. The employes worked seated at long tables in many rows with aisles between. They were instructed simply to rise at their places, put their seats under the tables, so as to clear the aisles, and then stand at attention. At a signal from the captain they were to file out, those nearest the stairway starting first, followed by the others in regular order. In passing out the girls were instructed to go in pairs, linking arms as a support to each other, each holding up her dress with her free hand, in order to prevent the girl behind from tripping over it on the stairs. They were drilled not to touch the couple ahead, thus preventing crowding and increasing the speed.

In actual operation only a few seconds elapsed before the lines were formed and in motion. In thirty seconds some of the employes had reached the street entrance and were out of the building, and in a minute large numbers were safely upon the sidewalk. There the captains led them away from the building, to clear the way for the others to come after them and to give the firemen an opportunity to do their work; for it must be remembered that the arrival of 2,000 people on the sidewalk in a few minutes produced congestion. A fire marshall was put in charge, who saw that the signal system was kept in order by testing it every morning before work began, and who was held strictly accountable for keeping the fire apparatus and general conditions about the factory up to standard.

Naturally there was one floor which took the longest time to be discharged. In a seven-story building it is not possible to empty all floors with equal rapidity. On several occasions the drill was timed by disinterested observers, such as representatives from the Fire Department, Labor Department, Building Department, and civic organizations, and in each case the last employe was out of the building well within five minutes of the alarm.

FIRE DRILL IN ACTION—2.

This fire-fighting corps is brought to the scene of the fire by the definite information given through the alarm signal. The apparatus is inspected regularly and the men are trained to handle it. Defender Manufacturing Company, the manufacturing branch of the H. B. Claflin Company.

This was the net result of system and order, the following of a prearranged method of exit, which was repeated until the employes became thoroughly accustomed to a fixed course of action whenever the fire alarm sounded. In other words, where formerly everything was left to chance, with the probability of a holocaust in case of fire, effective arrangements were made for discharging over 2,000 persons from a seven-story factory—a life hazard equalled only by the largest auditoriums in New York, and that before any fire short of an explosion could be expected to get headway enough to imperil the occupants.

In the many factories which I have examined at the request of the proprietors, to satisfy them that they were doing all they could for the safety of their employes, I have failed to find any which, in one way or another, had not introduced some obstruction to the availability of their fire escapes, and had not allowed some of their fire extinguishing apparatus to go uninspected until it was absolutely useless. Many factories give no thought to the subject, and on one occasion my question to the superintendent, as to what he would do in case a fire occurred right then, was met by the amazing reply that he would think of some way to get his employes out. When pressed to think then, while he had plenty of time, of a way to do so, he was utterly unable to say how, under conditions as they existed, he would get them out. It is only by going through the manoeuvers which would occur in case of an actual fire that the efficiency of the escapes and appliances can be tested. A fire drill will do this, and once introduced its desirability is so evident, that one would suppose it would never

FIRE DRILL IN ACTION—3.

The fire signal heard, occupants of room are filing through fireproof door leading to the adjoining building, separated by fire wall through which they can descend in safety. Defender Manufacturing Company, the manufacturing branch of the H. B. Claflin Company.

be discontinued. Yet owing to the fact that it develops such conditions in a factory that a fire or panic is practically impossible, the employer, after a considerable continuance of this immunity, often forgets that the immunity is simply an effect, not a cause; and when a busy season arrives he begins to postpone the practice, and then lets it drop into total disuse.

Even the drill I have described at length is now practically discontinued, notwithstanding the fact that the treasurer of the company, through whose active co-operation it was originally installed, was himself burned to death with several of his household in his summer residence, where conditions were much more favorable for escape than they are at the factory; and notwithstanding that the present president, while at the opera, nearly lost his children and servants in a fire, which recently swept through his apartments and burned off the two upper floors of a building, which was, and still is, advertised as the most fireproof and expensively equipped structure of its character in the city.

Unless, therefore, public opinion can be aroused so as practically to insure that fire drills be instituted and operated universally in factories, as they now are in public schools, legislation should be passed to make them compulsory.

As a concluding observation, on the basis of my factory experience, let me say that all places occupied by people should have a fire drill installed in them.

Loft and apartment buildings and hotels should be supplied with fire alarm signal systems of a type which will notify the occupants on what floor the fire is. Vibrating bells are no better than shouts of "fire." The signals should be frequently operated to see that they are in order, and occasional drills should be carried out to show that conditions and apparatus are respectively safe and in order.

In building and maintaining homes, tenements, hospitals, theaters, ferryboats, steamers, department stores, museums, and such places, where many people congregate, fire exits should be considered and drills should be installed and operated. Alarm bells in stores, hospitals, museums, etc., should be so small as to be audible only to those who are instructed to take charge of the people who are to be handled. These drills should vary in their character as greatly as the conditions which surround them vary. Steamers, for instance, should have public drills frequently, with one of the crew entering the cabin and putting on a life preserver to show the people how it is done.

It is useless to say that structures of this kind cannot be so treated, for they have been so treated and what has been done can be done again. Frequently when a building is inspected the most astounding conditions are revealed. In the largest art museum in this country, where the property value is priceless, it was found several years ago that there were hours of each day, and several days of each year, when on account of fires in the neighborhood, which drew away the available fire engines, it was inadequately protected by the municipal fire service. This condition continues today.

To those who point to the fact that they have gotten along for forty years or so without a fire and that therefore they never will have one, I can only quote that it is the unexpected that happens. Witness the following clipping of a recent cable:

BARCELONA, Spain.
February 27.

The Historic Church San Pablo Del Campo, erected 914 by Count Wilfred II; originally a Benedictine Convent; restored in 1,117; of Catalin architecture; was today destroyed by fire, possibly of incendiary origin.

It took nearly 1,000 years for fire to reach this place, but it got there eventually.

WHEN A WOMEN'S WORKROOM BURNS

MARY BROWN SUMNER

It was just before nine-thirty on the morning of November 26 that the first alarm of fire was turned in from the four-story factory building at Orange and High streets, Newark. Sixteen minutes later a third alarm was turned in, and by that time sixteen girls and women had leaped from the fourth story to their death and three hospitals were filling with the dying and the injured. When later search was made in the burned building nine more were added to the list of dead, making a total of twenty-five.

ANNA HAAG.

The forewoman who might have escaped by the stairs if she had not gone back to direct her girls to safety and put the company's books in the safe.

These dead and injured were young women, few over twenty-five years of age; all employes of the Wolf Underwear Company on the fourth floor. Altogether the garment workers in their loft the morning of the fire numbered 110. At 8, and at 9, and 9:15 they were wrapped up in the whir of ninety power sewing machines, or engaged in sloping, lace running, trimming and other operations in the making of "white goods." Upon them, without their will or power to forfend, came the catastrophe. We think of a fire as a blazing structure; it may be the sharing of a few bursting minutes with a hundred companions followed perhaps by weeks of agony, and slow months or years of incapacity and dependence. They were of various nationalities, these young women; perhaps a third were Americans, then a group of Germans and German Jews, one not much smaller of Italians, a half dozen Polish needle workers and a few Irish. Most of them had been with the firm for several years, for in pay and treatment the Wolf Company had won for itself the white label of the Consumers' League. A score of others made up a group by themselves, of a sort which in its self-revelation of the ties which bind working women to each other, must quicken the pulses of those who have felt the glow of fraternity in common labor. They had come in a body at the beginning of the busy season from another firm that had recently failed. They had worked side by side for years, and one of their number had brought them together to apply at Wolf's, so that the group of friends should not be broken up. On November 26 the group was broken past all recall.

The girls were for the most part experienced workers from whom more than the average self-reliance could be anticipated in an emergency. The fire experts tell us that if there had been no delays, such as an organized factory fire drill might have prevented, the casualties which followed need not have taken place. They tell us, also, that if there had been adequate exits, or fireproof construction, such delays as occurred need not have been fatal. These safeguards did not exist, and in their absence, a series of petty delays ate up the

precious margin which lay between the steady whir of the power machines and that ghastly quarter hour which snuffed out a life a minute, and left charred bodies to be picked up in the ruins, and maimed ones to be picked up from the sidewalk and the picket fence outside.

The fire originated not in Wolf's, but in the Anchor Light Company on the third floor, from a short circuit which ignited a bottle of gasoline. The first few moments slipped out of reach while the foreman there tried to put the fire out. Then the flame leaped to the ceiling, spread out, he said, "like a stream from a cannon," and in the room above one of the girls tells of a thin tongue of fire which she noticed shoot up through a scuttle door. Others saw smoke at the windows, and still others remember hearing a commotion downstairs and commenting on it to an expressman who was just entering the freight elevator to descend. A minute was lost because they did not realize what was the matter, and the elevator went down with but the one occupant. The next instant the foreman from the third floor pounded on the door at the foot of the stairs, which locked with a Yale catch and could be opened only from the inside by the forewoman. Again a precious minute was lost before she heard and opened the door and hooked it back, and the fearful consequences of that degrading, but not uncommon, practice of locking factory girls in at their work was in that minute demonstrated. The forewoman ordered the girls to scatter to the exits. A few slipped out by the stairs, the last of these having to jump to clear the burning lower steps. Others, and not a few, in response to a first impulse to save their belongings, went for hats and coats, and came back to find the stairs gone. This was the last of the series of petty delays. About seventy girls crushed down the fire escapes at one end of the building, where after a struggle a strong woman managed to adjust the heavy lower ladder. The other end of the building was without balconies or ladders. The girls there crowded out on the window ledges. They did not seem to feel ordinary fear; height had no terrors, only the flames behind and below and all around them. One girl describes how she leaned far out of the narrow old-fashioned window, the sash resting heavily on her back, until she caught sight of the net below. She struggled from under the sash and next felt hands upon her as someone dragged her out of the net. Like many others, she suffered afterwards in nervous collapse for the terror she did not feel at the time. Other women hung on window ledges till their muscles failed and they dropped; others jumped hand in hand into the nets which broke with their combined weight and killed them. Still others jumped from windows where there were no nets, only to be killed or maimed. To this group belongs the heroine of the fire, Anna Haag, the forewoman, who might have escaped by the stairs had she not gone back to direct the girls; and then, before making her own escape, stopped to put the company's books into the safe.

A week later a canvass of the girls on Wolf's payroll showed twenty-five dead and sixteen in the hospital of whom two may die, seven will be invalids for years, and the rest for months until broken bones and other obscurer injuries harder to deal with are healed. In their homes sixteen others were found who will be in bed for months suffering from fractures, displacements, contusions or shattered nerves. Putting aside for the moment the subtler miseries, let us consider the more easily calculable material loss in the death or injury of these fifty-seven needle workers. In that propertyless class where the lack of a wage-earner means destitution, daughters and sons are brought up to go to work early to assist prematurely aging parents in the support of the household. "I want my girl back again," said one mother, "not battered and broken as she is, but strong and healthy as she was, to work for me." She loved her daughter, but inextricably mingled with her love was the material need that she had of her.

The girls in the Wolf workrooms gave no small addition to the family income, for in Newark pay is, if anything, rather higher than in New York. Many of the

conditions of their work were above the average. The hours were from 7.30 to 5.50 with one hour for lunch, making a little over nine hours' work. There was no night work, and Saturday was a half holiday; so the season lasted about ten months with less than two months' half time and only two weeks' unpaid holiday. The ninety operators at power machines earned from eight to fourteen dollars a week—one girl even as much as eighteen. The twenty other workers were employed, either on piece work as slopers, ribbon and lace runners, earning a little less than the operators; or as week workers, trimmers, examiners, and workers at the button and buttonhole machines earning from five dollars and a half to nine dollars according to length of experience. Nine dollars probably fairly approximates their average wage. In almost all the homes the standard of living was enough higher than among the same grade of workers in New York to make the expenditures proportional. The households of the Americans took more account of appearance; but in only a few was there any lack of cleanliness or necessities. Comforts were most apparent in large families of working sons and daughters.

Unlike similar workers in New York, who often seem alone and adrift, these girls had with few exceptions a background, not only in their immediate family, but of more distant relatives, established associations and social life. The funerals showed throngs of young cousins and close family friends.

Of the twenty-five women who were killed six left behind relatives who had been wholly dependent upon them. Of these dead bread-winners three were widows who left children, and in two cases an old mother also, without support; one deserted wife left three children, and two girls left old parents. Of the thirty-two who were injured one, probably crippled for life, was the main support of her father and mother, and two others were wives who worked to eke out the earnings of husbands, whose unskilled labor brought insufficient wages to meet the needs of a houseful of children.

Seven of the dead and eight of the injured were childless wives or single women without dependents.

A large group, eleven of the dead and twenty-two of the injured, were working daughters in working families. In but three of these homes were there evidences of poverty. Two were Polish households and the third the household of a German widow living in a basement with a grown son and a daughter. The latter is a consumptive whose disease has been aggravated by exposure and shock at the time of the accident, for she was one of those who had to jump from the window. Two of the dead left a brother or sister as the sole support of a widowed mother. The greater number had father, mother and large families of brothers and sisters, some small and some working. Several of the fathers were small shopkeepers. One of these had one girl killed and two injured, leaving two grown sisters and one child in the family unhurt; another lost three grown children out of a family of eight. In all the families, the fathers were passing middle age, and all had gradually readjusted their standard of living as sons and daughters grew up and went to work. In such homes when all are working, the needs and comforts of all can easily be met; when one worker is withdrawn—even leaving out of account the expenses of sickness or burial—the family standard of living is affected. In one case a working son and daughter had made it possible for the overburdened mother of seven children to take in a half-grown girl to help her with the housework. Now one of her wage-earners is returned to her with two broken hips—an invalid perhaps for life.

This crippling of families piles up the economic cost of the fire. There can as yet be no exact estimate of the loss to the workers' families. For the dead it would include funeral expenses and the hole made by their death in the family income; for the injured, the wage loss, and the cost of their care, even were we to bar out any reckoning of that agony of mind which impairs earning power and which is always reckoned high in damage suits. A wage-earner's loss is not offset by that credit which often

enables a business man to re-establish himself after a catastrophe. Many of the girls had industrial insurance, but it was limited in most cases to burial benefits. The Newark *Star* has raised a fund of $20,000 to which the Wolf Company contributed $500. When it is remembered that the first year's wage-loss of the killed wage-earners will amount to over $10,000, it can be realized how insufficient such a sum is to make good their loss. Nor can such funds, with the elements of gratitude on the one hand, and a favor conferred on the other, be the ultimate solution of cases like this, where injury was sustained by those who had no control over the mechanism of the fire trap in which they were caught.

In the last New Jersey Legislature a bill was introduced which was a step toward establishing responsibility, and not merely proved negligence, as a basis for employers' liability. It failed of passage, but an Employers' Liability Commission was appointed, and there is hope that this year statutes will be introduced establishing automatic compensation at least, as in the New York laws of 1910, in some trades.

The program which expressed the majority views at the recent conference of one federal and nine state commissions in Chicago,[1] affords a test of how adequately such a compensation plan would insure such a working force as that in the fourth floor of the Newark factory, were it to cover fire as well as machinery hazards. To the girls injured would be given medical expenses and half their earnings for life or until recovery. In all cases, then, a cripple would have to bear at least fifty per cent of income loss. For the dead, the plan would allow medical and burial expenses, and to the families of five of those who left dependents, from twenty-five to fifty per cent of their earnings, according to the number of dependents, for a period not to exceed 300 weeks; after that they must shift for themselves. To the family of the widow whose picture is given, who left behind in Austria an old mother and three little children, one a cripple, to whom she sent regular remittances, no compensaton whatever would be given, since non-resident families of aliens are excluded from the plan.[2] Few, if any of the working families, the weekly pay envelopes of whose daughters rounded out their household income, would be adjudged "partial dependents" and therefore eligible to any compensation for wage loss. Thus even under compensation a good share of the actual financial loss would still remain with the family bearing the whole spiritual burden.

Limited as it would be, however, such automatic compensation would provide more adequately than a charitable fund of $20,000 can, and more important still, by making the human loss a fire risk to the employer, it would accelerate the work of fire protection in the crowded "omnibus" city factories, where hundreds of thousands of working girls are now in constant danger. Without this economic motive, as things stand today, this human fire risk is not an ever present consideration with the majority of factory managers. They at the most feel that they have met their responsibility in obeying the minimum which laws that are anachronisms demand. Fire protection is not a thing which unorganized working girls can secure for themselves; or if they could, it is not likely that they would take the lead in doing so. None of the girls injured and few of their families realize that they are paying the penalty for the criminal sins of omission of the community as a whole. By the majority, the calamity is looked upon as the "will of God." "I have much to be thankful for," said one mother who had one daughter killed and two injured; "my two girls will be well in a few weeks, and my dead daughter's face was not marred as she lay in her coffin."

But this uncomplaining acceptance of what has happened does not mean lack of suffering. The whole tale of the Newark fire is not told when its economic effects are reckoned. Two weeks after the accident only about half of the girls who escaped uninjured were working, though work was offered by more than one New-

[1] See THE SURVEY, Dec. 1, 1910.

[2] The English and German systems do not make this unjust discrimination nor does the New York law of 1910.

ark firm. An explanation lies in the fact that most of them have suffered from nervous shock. They can talk of nothing but the fire. The tears stealing unheeded down their cheeks as they tell the story, their apathy, their night-terrors mean in many cases impairment of earning power. At the very best, these girls have learned early that those dreads and imageries of death, which physicians tell their patients are but unnatural fears of imaginary dangers, are facts in life. In them the seeds are sown of that chronic nervous prostration which clinics find so hard to cope with among working people, in great part because it is based upon the real facts of the patients' lives. For in some lives nothing is more morbid than the events of life itself, and realities cannot be reasoned away even by the kindest of physicians.

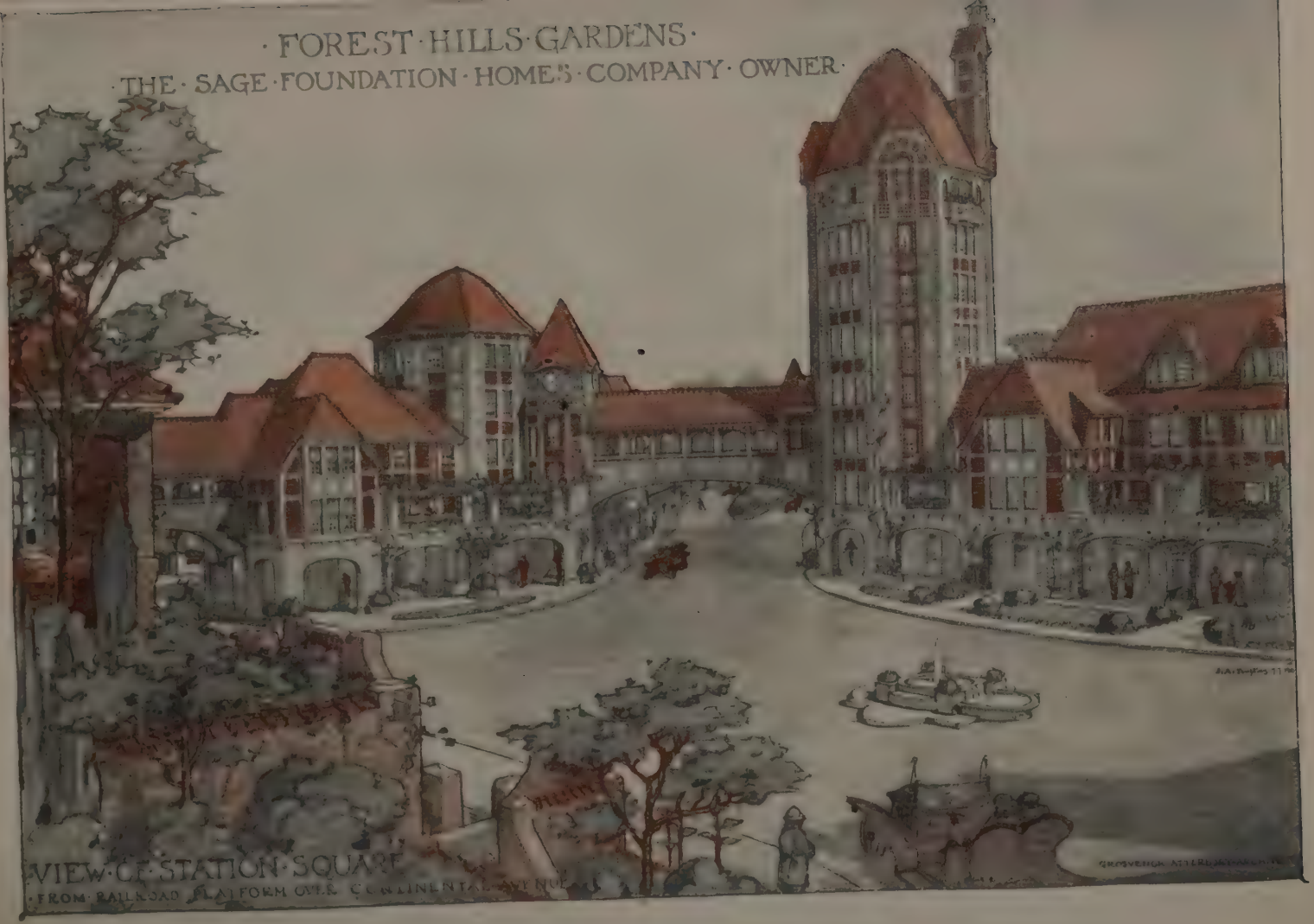
If the nervous cost to these girls cannot be estimated, still less can the spiritual cost to the families of the dead and injured. One father was recovering from illness when the news was brought him that his daughter was terribly hurt. They are both now lying at the point of death in the same hospital. Two girls who were to be married soon will probably be cripples for life; and as the brother of one, in bitterness of spirit stated the crude and brutal truth, —"What does a young man want of a woman like that?" Families of little children are deprived of a mother, or their mother is returned to them from her work an invalid for months or years; childless husbands are widowed; old women robbed of all they loved best. Parents are left with a crippled daughter to care for, and sisters and brothers deprived of a companion, not by natural death, but by a nightmare. As one Italian boy expressed it: "I can't get it into my head that it happened to my own sister." But this was no nightmare; it was in the day's work. How truly work may dominate life and death is shown in another family. The girl's mother, an incurable invalid, had lost her husband by a work-accident four years ago; and now in this fire her daughter, her support, followed him through the factory door to the grave. Perhaps a great industrial catastrophe gives us in this way a glimpse of what lies behind the idealization of death by the poor, who make it typify the life of human happiness that they feel their lost ones should have lived, were their world not so sadly marred by toil and terror. In the home of one victim is shown her photograph, a strong and handsome girl of sixteen lying on her white coffin, which opens out like a bed, and wearing the veil and wreath of a bride. This is the ideal; her real life of work, begun the moment childhood ended, is put in the background. But the sign of those stern realities which were her life and death remained in the two small wounds on cheek and temple.

ONE OF THE VICTIMS.
An Austrian widow whose death has left her mother and three young children destitute.

FOREST HILLS GARDENS

A STUDY AND DEMONSTRATION IN TOWN PLANNING AND HOME BUILDING UNDERTAKEN BY THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION AT FOREST HILLS, LONG ISLAND

GROSVENOR ATTERBURY
FELLOW AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS


·FOREST·HILLS·GARDENS·
·THE·SAGE·FOUNDATION·HOMES·COMPANY·OWNER·
·VIEW·OF·STATION·SQUARE·
·FROM·RAILROAD·PLATFORM·OVER·CONTINENTAL·AVENUE·

FOREST HILLS GARDENS

GROSVENOR ATTERBURY

Most prefaces are written after the book is completed. The present statement of the general character of the work undertaken by the Russell Sage Foundation at Forest Hills Gardens, if taken as a kind of foreword, must be read with this essential difference in mind—that it is written at the beginning and not at the end of the work. And furthermore, that while the general aims of this undertaking may be outlined on paper in advance and the general conditions expected to be met may be fairly well anticipated, it is nevertheless distinctly a problem which must be worked out along the lines of least resistance, under practical conditions and in spite of practical obstacles, many of which cannot be foreseen and almost all of which are subject to change.

The educational value of the undertaking must be its justification. If for no other reason, therefore, it must be considered on a business basis, for the value of the experience required in any success achieved will depend first and last on obtaining results in the face of conditions no more favorable than ordinarily met with in other land development, and by the use of means ordinary available in other instances.

That some further explanation of the project in this respect is necessary, notwithstanding Mr. deForest's statement already published in these pages, becomes evident from the character of the press comments current throughout the country. Evidently something must be said, above all, to lay the ghosts of "Spotless Town" and "Pullman," not of course in answer to the facetious paragrapher, who calls attention to the fact that a real model town must have shade on both sides of the street, and no telephone, gas or electric companies; or to the Texas editor who urges that Mrs. Sage must "fix it so that the average man in moderate circumstances can reach the soap without having to get out and grope under the bathtub"; but rather to meet such honestly felt criticisms as point to an inevitable failure of Forest Hills Gardens as "the plaything of a wealthy widow, destined to be managed with more sincerity than the Zion City of Elijah Dowie, to be more enduring but less heroic than Brook Farm, more wisely conceived and more practical than the Helicon Hall of Upton Sinclair, and more carefully planned than the city of Pullman, but like all of them—foredoomed."

While comments indicating such serious misunderstanding of the situation are the exception, the public is nevertheless in danger of not realizing the fact that Forest Hills Gardens is a study and demonstration in town planning and home building, and not in city administration; that it lies within the city of New York, and that it will be governed when completed by no more spotless government than that town itself, however different the immediate environment and terms of occupancy of the citizens of Forest Hills Gardens may be from the dwellers in stratified Manhattan.

How largely, under these circumstances, Forest Hills Gardens may be self-governing or may tend to modify its own and surrounding conditions will be more evident when the undertaking has progressed further toward accomplishment. How far such co-operative schemes as may be possible will respond to and grow under the influences and opportunities of the environment which we are endeavoring to create in this instance can be answered only in the final outcome; certainly not in the preliminary outline published so far on behalf of the Russell Sage Foundation. One should not look for conclusions in a preface, unless perhaps it be that of a second edition.

One other question seems to trouble a number of editorial writers: Assuming the possibility of creating a model town, where can you find the citizens with which to people it? This truly is difficult, and why? Very possibly because while we have been building model stock and poultry farms for a decade or two in which to breed blooded cows and prize

WHERE TOWN AND COUNTRY MEET.

Station Square, the traffic and business center of Forest Hills Gardens, is in the lower center of the picture. Beyond it and in the center of the picture, is the Green, the residential focus formed by the dividing of the two main avenues. The picture brings out clearly the avoidance of straight, wind swept streets and the private playgrounds in the centers of the blocks.

hens, we are only now beginning the attempt to provide similarly well for the breeding of "blooded" citizens. Naturally no town can long remain "model" without "model" inhabitants. It will surely not rise above the level of its citizenship. That basic principle of hydraulics is an apt enough simile. But it is equally evident that water will not rise, even to its own level, unless the walls of the containing vessel are carried up to that height.

Perhaps, moreover, we have more model citizens than we realize, though the use here of the word "model" is somewhat inaccurate and to be regretted as applied to both town and people. In fact the "Model Town" is in danger of the fate of the "City Beautiful." A misconception, similar to the idea that the beautiful cannot be the sensible and practical, is likely to create a corresponding prejudice aganst things that we call "model."

And it is perhaps not out of place to point out in this connection that probably the most important function of the European "Model Town" or "Garden City," usually on some kind of co-operative basis, is a purely economic one, practically a matter of commercial self-defense. While the medieval walled town was a refuge from marauding barons, the so-called model town or "Garden City" of today is primarily a means of protection against our modern land speculators.

And it is unfortunate that the somewhat misleading word "model" must be applied to such an eminently practical scheme as this development of the Russell Sage Foundation, for the further reason that there is a kind of subtle odium which attaches to "model" things of almost any kind, even when they are neither charitable nor philanthropic—a slightly sanctimonious atmosphere that is debilitating rather than stimulative of success. It is a handicap to be reckoned with, and those who are responsible for Forest Hills Gardens are seeking to avoid the "holier than thou" attitude of people, who claim to know how those who live in suburbs should regulate their lives. Yet this rare opportunity for practical study and demonstration, however appalling the responsibility that comes with it, and however subject to misunderstanding, is certainly rich in possibilities, despite the failure of Pullman and other undertakings of its kind,—or perhaps in a measure because of them. Doubtless the most hopeful aspect of the case is that the designers and administrators of this demonstration at Forest Hills Gardens are well enough aware of the difficulties of the problem which has been given them to solve.

While the Russell Sage Foundation is primarily seeking to make its housing demonstration especially applicable to dwellings of low cost and rentals, it is essential to the financial success of the enterprise that the size and quality of the houses be suited to the value of the property upon which they are placed. Any attempt to put up and market a type of building unsuited to the land would be to violate the first principles of successful housing development. And if by reason of certain rather unusual conditions pertaining to operations conducted by the Russell Sage Foundation such an attempt could be successfully started, its educational value, as in all probability also its ultimate financial value as an investment for the individual purchaser, would inevitably suffer. The equation is fundamentally an economic one, however aesthetically it may be put upon the slate, and its solution must be found in terms of dollars and cents.

It should be remembered also, that transit conditions, both as regard time and cost, in a suburban development of this kind, constitute an even more powerful factor in determining the type of prospective tenant or purchaser, and consequently both the size and quality of the dwellings that should be erected. We can alter neither of these conditions. Anything we may accomplish in the line of progress in suburban housing at Forest Hills Gardens must be in spite of them and with full recognition of their influence, however regrettable it may be.

This much is said in explanation, because many people will doubtless be disappointed to find that the first housing

THE BUSINESS CENTER.

Long Island Railroad station on the left. In the middle and right, buildings for business purposes including restaurants; non-housekeeping apartments above.

demonstration to be made by the Russell Sage Foundation will not reach the so-called laboring man, or even the lower paid mechanic, which is impossible in this instance by reason of the cost and location of the land. The fact seems the more surprising when it is realized that the larger number of the houses erected in this first operation are contiguous or block houses, and on plots oftentimes smaller than our usual city ones. Of course in a large measure the reduction in the individual lot area is purposely made, and carefully counterbalanced by larger public open spaces from which in various ways it benefits. And the word "block" is not here to be taken in its ordinary dreary and hopeless sense. "Small groups" might be a better phrase to use.

Yet the apparent anomaly remains that a supposedly model town is being built largely of contiguous houses in more or less continuous rows directly adjoining ploughed fields—a fact which is at once a good illustration of one of the fundamental difficulties in American city planning, and an evidence of the consequent serious need for just such attempts to study and solve its problems as the Russell Sage Foundation is undertaking in the present instance.

While it is measurably true of all cities, that suburban land values reflect far in advance the coming transportation facilities, and the consequent accessibility to the metropolitan center from which their original agricultural value receives practically its entire enhancement, its disturbing influence could be met here as it is met in other countries, except for the fact that the increase of values in America is so incredibly rapid.

Heretofore in this country our "unearned increment" has fairly run riot; and while it has meant tremendous profits to many small investors, as well as to the real estate speculators, and stimulated suburban development generally, it has served equally to create and perpetuate the most uneconomic methods in development, design and construction, practices such as are totally inconsistent with really economic and scientific housing development.

But the time is here, or must shortly come, when the owner cannot safely assume that, no matter how shortsightedly he plans, the further rise in the price of the land will more than cover the depreciation, upkeep, and sinking fund charges which should properly be figured in any building operation, not to mention any errors and extravagances in design, construction and handling of the property, together with the almost total loss which time and again occurs in the demolition of the original building long before its normal life has expired, in order to provide for increased housing capacity in consequence of increased land values, due to our abnormally rapid increase of urban and suburban population.

For the Russell Sage Foundation to take advantage of any such fortuitous conditions would be particularly unfortunate. Rather is it incumbent upon it to tend to the opposite extreme in discounting the uncertainties of the future and establishing sound practices.

Just as obviously, too, it must market its property from the point of view of selling, for the ultimate benefit of the purchaser, at the same time that it makes a profit on the transaction sufficiently attractive to induce others to follow its example—instead of building for a quick sale and a safe "get-away" like the majority of the present-day development companies.

This point of view can scarcely be over-emphasized to a public which undoubtedly expects to find the Russell Sage Foundation offering even more glittering bargains than the usual suburban development. And the fact that it thus proposes to offer only what it believes to be a good investment, instead of a speculation, for the small purchaser must never be lost sight of in judging its work at Forest Hills Gardens.

While a very large proportion of the land area to be developed will undoubtedly be sold without building improvements, the Sage Foundation Homes Company, in order to set a standard and control more surely the architectural character of the future town, has planned to

erect and hold, certainly for a time, a large number of dwellings.

To this end plans have been prepared for an initial operation contemplating ten different groups of buildings, involving an expenditure in land improvement and building construction of a million and a quarter dollars. The majority of those to be erected in this first operation, which will be largely confined to the more expensive and central property, are in the form of contiguous or block houses; the detached and semi-detached types of dwellings of various grades and sizes being necessarily possible only on the less central and lower priced portions of the property.

The different types of buildings included in these groups cover as wide a range as is permitted by the economic conditions,—which necessarily determine also their distribution and location on the property. Adjoining the railroad station and forming the Station Square are three- or four-story buildings containing stores, offices and restaurants, and in the upper stories small non-housekeeping apartments for both men and women. From this center out towards Forest Park, which bounds the property on the southeast, the houses are planned to correspond to the varying values of the lots as determined by their size, location and prospect, the larger single-family dwellings containing ten or twelve rooms, and the smaller, four or five. Following the land and road contours these are combined in smaller and more detached groups, as the property becomes more hilly. While they will vary greatly in size, arrangement, cost and architectural treatment, an attempt will be made to make them alike in their domestic and livable character.

From an architectural point of view our greatest opportunity—apart from certain novel uses of material and methods of construction—will lie in that general harmony of design, which is possible only where the entire scheme of development is laid out and executed under such a system of co-operation by the various experts as at Forest Hills Gardens. These are Frederick Law Olmsted as landscape architect; William E. Harmon of Wood Harmon and Company, on the business side; Edward H. Bouton, president of the Roland Park Company of Baltimore, on the administrative side; Robert W. deForest and Alfred T. White, trustees, and John M. Glenn, director, of the Russell Sage Foundation; and the writer as architect.

The following statements from the announcements issued by the foundation are included here to indicate, as far as is possible at this time, the character of the new suburb in its general, business, administrative and structural aspects.

By ROBERT W. DEFOREST[1]

Forest Hills Gardens is a suburban land development of 142 acres, within city limits, on the new line of the Long Island Railroad, at Forest Hills station, nine miles in distance and thirteen minutes in time from the new Seventh avenue terminus of the Pennsylvania Railroad in New York, and about three miles on the New York side of Jamaica. The railroad station is directly at the entrance to the estate. It is a business investment of the Russell Sage Foundation. It will be conducted on strictly business principles for a fair profit. The buildings at and around the entrance will be built and controlled at the outset by the foundation. Other houses, of attractive designs and of varying costs, will be built and sold or rented. Lots will be sold under protective restrictions intended to insure to their owners and to adjacent owners the residential advantages of the neighborhood.

In its business purpose Forest Hills Gardens does not differ materially from other Long Island real estate enterprises. It is not a charity. It will not be managed as a charity. Whoever deals with it, whether as tenant or purchaser, will be expected to pay fair value for everything received.

Notwithstanding this emphasis on the business side of the enterprise, a distinct educational purpose exists. Not but that the Russell Sage Foundation might wisely and properly make a pure business investment of this character, but that a business investment with an educational purpose is more appropriate.

Mrs. Russell Sage, and those whom she has

[1] [Mr. de Forest's statement was published in full in THE SURVEY for November 26, 1910. It is here reprinted in part to make this a rounded statement of the foundation's plans and for the benefit of our 1,200 new subscribers since that date. Ed.]

associated with her in the foundation, have been profoundly impressed with the need of better and more attractive housing facilities in the suburbs for persons of modest means, who could pay from twenty-five dollars a month upward in the purchase of a home. They have thought that homes could be supplied like those in the garden cities of England, with some greenery and flowers around them, with accessible playgrounds and recreation facilities, and at no appreciably greater cost than is now paid for the same roof room in bare streets without any such adjacency. They have abhorred the constant repetition of the rectangular block in suburban localities where land contours invite other street lines. They have thought, too that buildings of tasteful design, constructed of brick, cement or other permanent material, even though of somewhat greater initial cost, were really more economical in their durability and lesser repair bills than the repulsive, cheaply-built structures which are too often the type of New York's outlying districts. They have hoped that people of moderate income and good taste, who appreciate sympathetic surroundings, but are tied close to the city by the nature of their occupation, might find some country air and country life within striking distance of the active centers of New York.

If these expectations can be realized at Forest Hills Gardens, the Sage Foundation will accomplish several objects. It will provide more healthful and more attractive homes to many people. It will demonstrate that more tasteful surroundings and open spaces pay in suburban development, and thereby encourage imitation. It will encourage more economical methods of marketing land. It will secure an attractive income for the foundation.

No initial outlay has been spared on roads, water supply, sewers and other features which make little show above ground, but are fundamental to the performance of a healthy and attractive residence district. Careful and comprehensive initial layout; attractive, substantial, durable building; experienced management are the keynotes of the enterprise. Lots of various sizes and variously located on paved, sewered, and tree-planted streets will be placed on private sale as early in 1911 as possible, on which buyers may build their own houses in harmony with the general plan of development.

Some people may ask why the first housing plan of the Sage Foundation does not provide for the laboring man, whose wages are small. The Sage Foundation has not forgotten the laboring man. It may be ready to announce something for his benefit later on, but the cost of the land at Forest Hills Gardens, and the character of its surroundings, preclude provision there for the day laborer.

By FREDERICK LAW OLMSTED

In laying out Forest Hills Gardens there has been an attempt to secure the full benefit resulting from three important principles in city planning, the advantages of which are coming to be more and more clearly recognized as part of the rapidly advancing expert knowledge of the subject.

One of these principles relates to the main thoroughfares, which should be direct, ample and convenient, no matter how they cut the land. Two 80-foot streets are carried straight through the property, on lines 1,260 feet apart, fixed by the location of bridges under the railroad and in accordance with the city's tentative street plan covering adjacent territory. A boulevard 125 feet wide, also coinciding with the city's tentative street plan, is provided along the line where the property fronts on Forest Park, a 536-acre tract forming the largest reservation of public park lands in the Borough of Queens. Two avenues 70 feet wide, with an ample set-back of buildings, radiate from Station Square, where the most important of the 80-foot streets passes under the railroad on direct but gently curving lines, so located as to secure the best grades and the most agreeable setting, through the midst of the property to the entrances of Forest Park and to the boulevard which is to follow its easterly boundary. Other streets secondary in importance and 60 feet in width, also with a set-back for buildings, follow lines carefully related to the topography and to the city's tentative plan.

A second principle is that streets not needed as thoroughfares be planned as quiet, attractive residence streets. To this end the local streets at Forest Hills Gardens are laid out so as to discourage their use as thoroughfares. While not fantastically crooked, they are never perfectly straight for long stretches; and their roadways, well paved with bituminous macadam, are narrow, thus permitting additional space for the front gardens which will be one of the characteristic features. Probably one of the most notable characteristics of Forest Hills Gardens will be the cosy domestic character of these local streets, where the monotony of endless, straight, wind-swept thoroughfares, which are the New York conception of streets, will give place to short, quiet, self-contained and garden-like neighborhoods, each having distinctive character.

A third principle is the deliberate setting apart of certain areas for the common use of residents. The location adjoining Forest Park has made it needless to provide any large park, but a public Green has been formed at the point where the two main avenues divide, within view of the station and central to that part of the property which is farthest from Forest Park. This will form the residential focus of the community just as the neighboring Station Square will be its business focus. The portion of the Green lying between the roads and devoted wholly to lawn and paths and ornamental planting occupies one and one-half acres, but the whole open space of the Green, from building line to building line, is about three and one-half acres. Beyond the upper end of the Green and upon its axis is reserved a public school site, and in connection with it sufficient space for a school playground and school gardens.

The Station Square, although primarily a traffic center, is of considerable size and the whole of the surrounding architecture is being developed as a single composition for the pleasure which the residents may derive from its use. In addition to the school playground and the Green, a space of about an acre and a half, surrounded by streets, is being held as a public recreation ground.

The most novel recreation feature is that of enclosed "block playgrounds." These are spaces of varying shape and size, occupying the interior of some of the blocks and intended for the exclusive use of those living on them. They cannot be used for the noisy games of large boys and will not be open to the public, but will provide places where smaller children can get room to play. They will be reached through gates directly from the back yards of most of the houses in these blocks.

Where land is of such high value, such a liberal provision of land for common use and enjoyment is possible upon a sound commercial basis only by paying a round price for it, and in the last analysis the price must be paid by the occupants. It is therefore a fair question how that price is to be paid—just what loss is to be set off against the gain.

The question may be answered in two ways. On the one hand, lots having such advantages are made more desirable, and are actually worth more to their occupants and worth more in the open market, lot for lot, than other similar properties; just as lots on a paved and sewered street are worth more than upon a street that is unimproved, the increased market value going to cover the cost of the improvement. In the opinion of most students of city planning and of many experienced real estate operators, land set apart for public recreation purposes in reasonable amount and in an intelligent manner adds considerably more to the salable value of the adjacent lots than it costs to set it apart. On the other hand, it is possible by a reduction in the size of back yards so slight as not to reduce their practical usefulness, to save out enough land for these neighborhood purposes without increasing the price of lots at all. Some of the lots in Forest Hills Gardens, intended for homes of moderate size, are made shallower than the customary New York lot on which the deep, badly-lighted tenement house has developed, and will have the advantages described with no increase of cost; while in order to suit every purchaser, other lots are laid out of the usual depth and in a few cases of more than the usual depth, for a price that is but slightly advanced.

By WILLIAM E. HARMON

The wholesale improvement and sale of suburban land, the construction and distribution of houses on a large scale in this country, is a development of the past twenty-five years. Within this period it has assumed enormous proportions, and thousands of individuals, corporations and associations are engaged in marketing suburban real estate along more or less scientific lines. Through the practical experience gained, the opportunities for acquiring real estate have been simplified and systematized, so that multitudes of people now own their own homes who would have found it impossible under old conditions. As might have been expected in a business of such rapid growth, many different methods have been pursued, and the results have varied greatly.

In the development at Forest Hills Gardens it is proposed to formulate standards for the distribution of real estate which may be accepted by operators handling property of similar character throughout the country, with consequent elimination of waste in energy and money. The trustees of the Sage Foundation are planning to set prices and outline terms and methods of sale which will be economical for the buyer and profitable for the foundation. A great amount of experimental work has been done by people engaged in the business of providing homes for those of moderate means, and certain methods have been established which may be accepted as scientifically correct. All these will be incorporated into the scheme of purchase so that the homeseeker may secure the best results at the smallest possible outlay.

While the prices will appeal to the man in possession of cash, yet those whose capital lies in their capacity to save will have opportunities by which they can venture on the purchase of a home or an investment in land, on fair terms and under reasonable safeguards. Nothing revolutionary is expected—the aim is merely to secure a higher degree of efficiency than prevails now in this department of the real estate business.

As the Sage Foundation Homes Company will be satisfied with a reasonable profit, every economy in the marketing of property will inure to the benefit of the buyer, and it is confidently believed that the public will receive either more for their money, or the same for less money, than the competitive concerns in this business can furnish. Land speculations will be provided against, but the prices at which the lots are to be sold will give reasonable insurance of a fair return as an investment.

Three elements of value may be regarded in the purchase of property at Forest Hills Gardens, all combining for the benefit of the buyer; first, the rigid economies in methods of distribution will insure the sale of land and houses at less than the prevailing rate for similar property; second, such safeguards will be put about the buyer as will protect him against the accidents of fortune; third, he will get the benefit of the increment arising from the enormous growth of New York city, which must have an important effect upon a district lying within thirteen minutes of the Pennsylvania Terminal.

THE FINDINGS OF THE IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

H. PARKER WILLIS
EDITORIAL ADVISER TO THE IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

The findings of the United States Immigration Commission will undoubtedly be regarded by different persons in different lights. The work of the commission is voluminous; the statistics it has collected are multitudinous; the scope of the investigation has been encyclopædic. With so much actually collected in the way of detailed data, and with but scant time in which to summarize these data; lacking moreover a sufficient number of trained writers and statisticians to study the information acquired and to set it down with a due proportion of properly guarded inference, it is a fact that much of the commission's information is still undigested, and is presented in a form which affords no more than a foundation for the work of future inquirers. Such inquirers ought immediately to take the data in hand before they become obsolete and while they still represent existing conditions with substantial accuracy. Pending the results of such inquiry, however, those who would judge what the Immigration Commission has done and who would fain find there material in support of their own preconceived ideas should be careful. And those who wish simply to appraise the work of the commission, with a view to drawing some well-founded conclusion as to its meaning and its merit, must confine themselves to very narrow limits. They must recognize that only in the broadest way can conclusions as yet be drawn from the masses of statistics and the very general textual treatment to be presented in the reports of the commission. The question may be raised whether the commission would not have done better had it limited the field work more narrowly, and increased the relative amount of expenditure devoted to "overhead work" in the office. It did not do so, however, and the result has been, instead of a small and finished study, a large and uncompleted body of data.

With so much by way of warning, it remains true that certain very broad fundamental conclusions concerning the outcome of the commission's work can be drawn.

I.

Above all things else the work of the commission has been valuable in establishing the true motive for immigration. Almost inconceivable harm has been done in the United States by vicious Fourth of July oratory and sentimental maundering on this point. Probably a very large percentage of those who devote any thought to the subject now take the view that the governing reason which leads to immigration to the United States is social and political. The assumed longing for freedom of thought and religion, and the desire to get relief from governmental oppression abroad are currently considered moving springs in directing the immigration movement. The work of the commission shows the exact reverse of this belief, establishing that the motive which drives immigrants to the United States is fundamentally economic. This the commission shows in several ways:

(1) A study of economic conditions abroad proves that, in the foreign countries from which we are now drawing immigration, the lot of the unskilled workers is far less fortunate than in the United States, even under the poorer and less favorable conditions of work and pay accorded to the untrained foreigner.

(2) It shows quite clearly that the foreigner, far from being desirous of adopting American methods, is in many cases determined not to adopt them, since he preserves his own community life and habit of thought, so far as he can, after settling in the United States. Not only is this true, but,

(3) A large number of immigrants come to the United States with the distinct idea of returning home as soon as they can. While a certain number of them change their minds and remain in this country, owing to force of circumstances, or owing to changes in their own point of view which they did not expect, a considerable number of them fulfill their original intention and return to Europe

with the money which they have acquired, and with which they intend either to settle down to a life of relative comfort, or to accomplish some cherished object, such as the purchase of land, the payment of obligations and the like.

(4) Moreover, the information obtained by the commission shows that a fundamental object with the great bulk of the immigrants is either the acquirement of land in the United States, or else the saving and transmission of money abroad. If one thing is better established by the commission's reports than another, it is that the great mass of the immigrants who reach the United States at the present time are not idlers and ne'er-do-weels, but, however unskilled and unadaptable, are productive factors in society.

(5) It is moreover made clear that the economic motive predominates, since great masses of men who have been farm laborers abroad now come to the United States, not for the sake of conducting their own work under more favorable conditions, but for the sake of engaging in occupations which will actually enable them to "make money" in the narrow sense of the term, becoming factory laborers instead of agricultural workers.

Incidentally the commission, without perhaps intending to do so, has pointed out one influence that will be likely to check the movement of immigration. This is the gradual improvement of the position of the worker in foreign countries, such as Italy, and the gradual rise of such countries to a position of greater economic strength, which will make it possible to give to their own citizens a return for labor comparable to what such men could get by taking part in the exploitation of a new country. In this same connection it is made clear that in proportion as other countries—such as Canada and perhaps some of the South American states—reach a position where their systems of industry hold out somewhat the same inducements as are found in the United States, the current of immigration from European countries will tend to be diverted to them.

II.

Recognizing the movement of immigrants into the United States as a purely economic movement, one of the most important inferences to be drawn from the findings of the Immigration Commission will relate to the way in which this movement should be directed and supervised. It is evident that, when sentimental considerations about the motive for immigration are laid aside and the whole situation is recognized as economic in its nature, the fundamental question to be put by our legislators will be this: What is the economic effect of the immigration movement and how far can this be controlled and improved by state oversight? In general, the conclusion is clear from the reports of the commission that the economic effect of immigration has been that of promoting a rapid exploitation of natural resources and of manufacturing processes, which would have been utterly impossible had it not been for the enormous resources of unskilled labor upon which we have been enabled to draw. That this kind of rapid development has been highly beneficial to those who were able to control and profit from the movement needs no demonstration, but for a long time past there has been a question whether the ingress of immigrant labor in the way indicated has been locally injurious to native and former immigrant employes. On this subject the report of the commission and the interpretation of data so far as it has gone, throw a very distinct light. They indicate that the immigration movement, while frequently displacing older employes and while probably holding rates of wages down to abnormally low levels, has not thus far operated to deprive the older employes of employment or to put them into a less favorable position. The expansion of industry has afforded places for them in new lines, so that, while temporary suffering has frequently been caused and while movements for the raising of wages have been checked through the presence of an abundance of immigrant labor, it is not true that what may be called the "saturation point" with reference to immigration has been reached. There would undoubtedly have been a slower development and a less pronounced shifting of labor with a more decided upward trend on the part of wages, had it not been for rapid immigration. This might or might not have been better for the native and older immigrant employes. Conditions are now, however, at such a point as to indicate that a continuance of the present high rate of immigration will be, to say

the least, of questionable value to the community as a whole, and of decidedly obvious injury both to natives and former immigrants who are already definitely placed in industrial occupation. The commission has been right, therefore, in taking a stand in favor of the restriction of immigration, although the best method of applying such restrictions may be seriously open to doubt. Domestically, the commission's inquiries in agriculture as compared with industry make it clear that a much more wholesome and better-rounded economic development would be had, if the incoming stream of immigrants could be directed to the soil instead of to industrial centers. The remarkable success of the early German and Scandinavian immigrants in developing the agricultural resources of the central West are well known. By a series of community studies, the commission now shows that recent immigrants to the United States, such as the Italians, the Poles, the Bohemians, the Russian Hebrews, and the Japanese, have very decided capabilities as agricultural workers, and may serve to furnish a much-needed element that will redress the apparent lack of balance now threatening to exist between the cities and the country districts, due to the apparent disproportionate growth of city populations. The commission's studies unmistakably point to the opinion that, both on the economic and social sides, the bad results of immigration have been found in industrial towns and villages, and that the use of immigrant labor for the purpose of depressing rates of wages has been most frequent there.

III.

The showing made with reference to the agricultural origin of a large proportion of immigrants; the showing with reference to the industrial occupations of these same immigrants on reaching the United States, and the showing with reference to the decided capabilities of these foreign peasant workers, when properly trained to American conditions of cultivation, suggest that thus far the predominant effort has been to direct the immigration current into towns and cities instead of to country districts. This, as already noted, has been aided by the preponderating desire of many immigrants to make money, and consequently to go into those occupations where they would get the maximum cash wages. What the commission has ascertained seems to show that this bad distribution of immigrants is in part due to the operation of conditions of an artificial kind. The work of the commission has greatly tended to minimize the importance of stimulated immigration or of contract labor as a factor in the movement. It does, however, very greatly deepen the belief that the various efforts to induce immigration, whether on the part of steamship companies, labor agents, or others, has been directed toward shifting the immigrants out of their old agricultural occupations and toward occupations as industrial workers. Such efforts as have been made to direct immigrants to the soil have been sporadic and very limited in their scope. Among the Hebrews, the work of the Baron de Hirsch movement has tended to send to the farm a considerable number of probably useful Hebrew farmers, whose effectiveness will increase as they become accustomed to local farm life. In the South, the efforts of plantation owners to get south Italian and other workers as farm hands or tenants have been decidedly rewarded. The success of the Poles, Bohemians and others in becoming independent land owners in Wisconsin, Iowa, and numerous other states has been very marked. The findings leave comparatively little room for doubt that, if immigrants could be well informed with reference to agricultural openings and could be encouraged to look forward to farm work instead of industrial work, a very large number of incoming immigrants could be accommodated on the soil of the United States, with great benefit to the immigrants themselves and with decided advantage to the country as a whole. An interesting phase of the commission's work is seen in the monograph it has published on the Canadian immigration system. From that, it appears that Canada has preceded us along this very line, selecting her immigrants with a view to their usefulness

on the farm and under the conditions which now exist in the Dominion. That the United States could do the same, thereby using the immense resource of valuable human labor power offered to it to the advantage of its own citizens and the new comers simultaneously, if it would abandon some of its preconceptions on the subject of immigration and learn from the experience of others, is distinctly indicated by a comparison of our own experience with that of Canada.

IV.

In connection with the economic view of immigration, and the inference plainly to be drawn from the commission's reports that effort should be made to handle the immigration situation in an economic manner, an important corollary is suggested. This is that the United States is lagging far behind other countries, and infinitely behind general standards of enlightenment and civilization, in its use of proper means for protecting and safeguarding incoming immigrants from exploitation. Although the foreign countries which have the most intelligent oversight over immigration and emigration, such as Italy, have long since devised elaborate systems for protecting their citizens, while in transit, from the oppression of rapacious transportation concerns or local sharks of one kind or another, the United States has failed to pass adequate legislation or to enforce what it has. Investigators employed by the commission travelled in the steerage of many vessels, and found on a substantial number of them repulsive and revolting conditions, fatal alike to health, morality, and the creation of ideas favorable to American governmental methods. The commission's investigators, arriving in the guise of immigrants, were sent to so-called "immigrant homes" in charge of emissaries recognized by the government authorities in charge of immigration stations. They were there outrageously fleeced, subjected to personal indignity, and placed in positions of grave personal and moral danger. As actual workers and citizens, no satisfactory protection or facilities for transacting necessary business are granted the immigrants. The commission's inquiries show not only that the immigrant is oppressed upon many steamships, mishandled and swindled by those who operate immigrant homes and labor and employment agencies, etc., but that he is left to be victimized by unscrupulous employers, and by men of his own race who devote themselves to trading upon his ignorance and lack of adjustment to conditions. Inquiries of the commission showed that throughout a large part of the coal mining field of Pennsylvania and in some parts of other coal mining regions, as well as in very many other industries, the exploitation of the immigrant by means of company stores, company houses, and the like, was shocking and excessive. The investigations with reference to immigrant banking showed that, owing to improper enforcement (or the complete lack) of state banking laws bearing on the subject, the immigrant who has managed to save some of his earnings is subjected to a heavy toll through excessive charges, dishonest banking methods, and misrepresentations as to rates of exchange, etc. In consequence, the loss of much of what has been painfully saved by long and slow process of toilsome accumulation is a frequent result. That there are other and numerous methods of vicious exploitation of immigrants is an unfortunate but too obvious fact, which is incidentally developed in many ways throughout the commission's report. Almost total lack of co-operation between federal and state authorities, and the entire inadequacy of existing methods of handling and distributing immigrants and of enforcing existing legislation, constitute one of the most striking aspects of the commission's general findings.

V.

In spite of the unfavorable conditions under which their access to this country is secured, in spite of the disastrous system of exploitation after they arrive, in spite of the social and race prejudice and other almost unavoidable conditions which practically compel the herding of immigrants in little communities of their own in many parts of the country, the reader of the Immigration Commission's

reports is likely to reach the conclusion that the showing of the immigrant is on the whole a decidedly good one, all things considered. An elaborate study of crime and of criminal tendencies, presented as a part of the commission's report, fails to establish the predominance of criminality among immigrants, when they are compared upon a fair statistical basis with natives or with immigrants of the second generation. The study, if anything, suggests that undesirable tendencies are likely to be more marked in second generation immigrants than in their parents. The causes of this condition could be pointed out successfully only by rather long and elaborate process. The fact however is tolerably clear; and this study, in conjunction with other portions of the commission's work, will undoubtedly tend very strongly to destroy the idea that criminal tendencies are characteristic of the "imported Americans," against whom so much criticism has been directed. Educationally it cannot be said that the work of the commission has been brought to any positive or final conclusion. The school study shows a marked and very definite tendency on the part of children of many race groups of immigrants to secure education, even under somewhat adverse conditions; but the data are not sufficiently worked out to permit of the definite comparisons between different race groups, or between all foreigners as a body and native Americans as a body, that are desired by many. The fair and legitimate inference to be drawn, however, from the reports of the commission, taken in the aggregate, is that immigrants themselves and their children, when afforded the proper facilities, manifest a decided disposition to take advantage of opportunities for education, and to acquaint themselves with the English language and with American methods of government. The commission, further, found that in the distinctly foreign communities there is an immense mass of unassimilated material which, while at present merely a foreign body in the national social organism, might become actively poisonous at some future time, if not shortly broken up and reduced to a basis of uniformity with the surrounding population. Far more stringent enforcement of school laws, child labor laws, etc., and the application of effective methods of educating and leavening the immigrant communities are absolutely necessary, and these should undoubtedly be applied through private benevolence and philanthropy along lines parallel to the public economic endeavors which, as already seen, should seek to bring about a better distribution and economic application of the immigrant labor force.

As to the question of criminality, dependence, etc., the commission's findings, as already intimated, show that the problem is in no respect different from that which exists with reference to elements of our population that are of longer standing, and presumably greater ability to resist injurious influences of an antisocial nature. The effort to apply remedies to those social evils is special or peculiar only in so far as special or peculiar methods must be applied in order to reach persons with a foreign background of thought, prejudice and feeling. In this connection it is well to observe that the commission's findings distinctly indicate that some of the alleged problems connected with immigration, such as those of the *padrone* system, peonage and the white slave trade, are in no respect properly to be regarded as immigration problems in any true sense of the word. While the commission's inquiries into peonage are far from satisfactory, it would appear that this evil is decidedly not more prevalent among the immigrant population than among others, while it is certainly not confined to any one part of the country. The *padrone* system, the commission finds, is now largely non-existent, except in so far as it is seen in certain very limited forms, such as the importation of Greek boys under labor contract for employment at shoe-polishing and the like. The older *padrone* system has developed into something approximating a labor agency plan, which is founded upon the lack of knowledge of English on the part of large bodies of newly arrived immigrants, and the demand for an intermediary able to gather and place bodies

of men through his familiarity with the labor market, and their language, customs, and modes of thought.

VI.

The question of immigrant standards of living and their economic basis will undoubtedly afford one of the most fruitful sources of information and most abundant themes for discussion that appear in the report. In general, the most striking point developed in the inquiry on this subject is the exceedingly low standard of living which prevails among the men of recent arrival. Just how bare a living the ordinary immigrant is able to make can be seen from the figures submitted by the commission with reference to average earnings and hours of labor. In a general way, it is found that the immigrant labor supply furnishes the fundamental common labor basis which lies at the root of the present industrial system of the country, and that the wages paid are those which represent a minimum of subsistence. The figures for a single industry may be cited in order to illustrate this point.

Iron and steel manufacturing in all its aspects was studied in the territory east of the Mississippi river. Detailed information was received for 86,089 employes of the industry, and an intensive study was made of 2,456 families the heads of which were employed in iron and steel manufacturing establishments. Of the total number of employes in the industry 57.7 per cent were found to be of foreign birth, the principal races composing this proportion being the Slovak, Polish, and Croatian from southern and eastern Europe, and the German, Irish, and English from Great Britain and northern Europe. Of the native-born iron and steel workers 28.8 per cent were native Americans and 13.4 per cent were of native birth but foreign father. Of the total number of employes of foreign birth only 8.6 per cent had been employed in the same industry abroad, while 64.4 per cent had been farmers or farm laborers in their native countries. The average weekly wage of employes in the industry was $14.35; the average annual earnings of male heads of families was $409; and the average annual family income $568. The average annual earnings of all employes in the industry who were eighteen years of age or over was only $346.

Very striking also is the fact developed in the reports that the wives of immigrants are practically a necessary factor in the support of the household, where households exist. True, a very large percentage of immigrants have come to this country either unmarried or without their wives and children; but where families exist it is necessary for the wife to perform a substantial amount of paid work in order to keep the family together. It appears that in many of the industrial sections of the country this paid work is largely the management of boarding groups, wherein the wife of one member of the group does the cooking, washing, housecleaning, etc., for a considerable number of men; in other instances the work of the wife is done in the factory for wages, this being true in textile centers and in light manufacturing. The percentage of women thus employed is materially greater among immigrants than among native Americans, thus showing the extent to which the immigrant has been reduced not merely personally, but in family life, to a basis of commercial exploitation. In some industries the difference between the earnings of the husband and the gross family income is very large, this difference being due to the intervention of the wife as a money-earning factor in the family. In other instances, where the wife is not a direct earner of wages, the same aid is rendered as in the case of the boarding-boss system already referred to, by reason of the fact that the wife secures the means of subsistence for the family, leaving to the husband the fixed expenses, such as clothing and the like. Thus in the iron and steel business it was found that only

40.5 per cent of all the families studied derived their income entirely from the husband, while 33.1 per cent, composed principally of southern and eastern Europeans, secured their income from earnings of husbands and contributions of boarders or lodgers. The families whose heads were native-born depended more largely upon contributions of children than those the heads of which were born abroad. Of the total number of families, 7.8 per cent were supported by the earnings of husbands and the contributions of children. Of the foreign-born families, 41.5 per cent supplemented the earnings of the heads by keeping boarders or lodgers, as contrasted with only 8.3 per cent of the families the heads of which were native-born. This practice led to a high degree of congestion within the households the heads of which were for-

eign-born. The average number of persons per room in such households was 1.76 as compared with 0.93 person among the families the heads of which were of native birth; and the average number of persons per sleeping room in foreign-born households was 2.89 as contrasted with 1.96 in the native-born households. The average rent per capita in foreign-born households was only $1.14, while that in native-born households was $1.71. Of the total number of foreign-born households, 14.7 per cent used all rooms for sleeping purposes, as against only 3.8 per cent of the households the heads of which were native-born. Of the native-born employes twenty years of age or over 64.6 per cent were married, and of the total foreign-born 67.2 per cent.

While, however, the earnings of immigrants rest in the vast majority of instances fundamentally upon a minimum basis of subsistence, it remains true that the foreign element in the population shows in many cases a decided disposition and ability to rise and to accept positions of greater importance. This has been particularly the case in some of the manufacturng industries of the West, where the work has fallen very largely into the hands of foreigners, who not only perform the hand labor, but who also fill the supervisory positions. It is true that immigrants in many cases do not make a favorable showing as the owners of homes or of tangible property. This, in some cases, is due to the peculiar economic conditions existing in many industrial communities, where the land and house accommodation is all owned and controlled by the manufacturing concern which there predominates. It is due also, in other cases, to the fact that wages barely suffice to keep the family together and to pay absolutely necessary living expenses; in others to the fact that savings have taken the form of remittances abroad. But on the soil where opportunities for land purchase are favorable, many race groups of foreign origin have shown not only their native perseverance in cultivating the soil and paying for it in small tracts; but they have shown also American enterprise in extending their ownership and in improving the land, thereby affording the means to pay for their original purchases. The presence of an increasing number of professional and business men of foreign birth in the various immigrant communities, and the capacity of these communities to make themselves almost entirely self-sufficing have their good side as well as their bad, since they show that the incomers are not merely a parasitic class in the community, able to do nothing beyond coarse hand labor, but that they have on the contrary the potentiality of success in the various occupations for which their social organization makes demand.

VII.

The conclusions arrived at by the Immigration Commission in its formal recommendations to Congress are of interest, but they will probably receive considerably less attention than the manifest conclusions from the facts which stand out prominently throughout the inquiry. It is plain, in the first place, that the entire immigration policy of the United States needs to be revised and reorganized. Probably at the root of a new system of new legislation should be placed an effective system of restriction, designed to select those classes of incomers who are undoubtedly most useful to the nation and who are freest from objectionable characteristics. As already noted, the experience of Canada to a certain extent points the way in this regard, although it is true that Canada's process of selection has been applied largely with a view to getting agricultural workers who would go direct to the farm. It would not be desirable to apply so exclusive a policy in the United States, but certainly the elimination of a substantial percentage of those who now enter the country merely to add to the congestion in our cities would be desirable. Closely allied with this problem of selection and restriction is that of distribution. It would seem that the most effective methods of breaking up the foreign communities which seem likely to become a menace to good government in this country would be that of assuring better distribution, preferably through agricultural settlement along lines already mapped out. It should be taken as axiomatic that the present legislation on the subject of contract labor is utterly absurd and obsolete. It should be abolished

without delay. Perhaps there is no more striking fact in the report of the commission than that Canada insists upon each immigrant having a place to work or a prospect of getting one prior to admission; while the United States absolutely excludes those who have such places in view or who have definitely promised to engage in any work. The operation of the present absurd system is not only productive of gross violations of law, the system itself being utterly unenforceable; but it is illogical and absurd, the results aimed at in our contract labor provisions being far better reached by some other method. In connection with this revision of immigration legislation, there should go a careful system of real steamship inspection and a system for the temporary care of immigrants after they have landed, whereby they would be preserved from conscienceless exploitation, proceding from sources already indicated. Not only is this the case, but a continued supervision of the immigrant by governmental authority for a considerable period after he lands and rigid enforcement of the present provisions as to deportation, with probably some extensions of the deportation and exclusion system, are indicated as desirable by the result of the investigations. There is one necessary change in present methods to which the commission has made no reference in its report, but which is plainly indicated throughout. This is the necessity of putting the Immigration Bureau and the immigration service in general upon a basis of efficiency. A fundamental step in this direction will be the transfer of the service from the hands of professional labor agitators to those of scientific students of social, economic, and racial conditions, who will enforce the law not only rigidly, but intelligently and sympathetically. It is an undoubted fact that, under existing law, considerable numbers of the most desirable classes are excluded, while far greater numbers of the most undesirable classes are admitted. Just how the field of legislation on immigration should be divided between the federal and state governments it is not altogether easy to say, and the commission itself has apparently reached no positive conclusions. In this field, therefore, everything is inferential and opinions will differ. It seems very clear, however, that there is a call for good and uniform state legislation, designed for the protection of immigrant citizens. There should be such uniform legislation as will prevent the various impositions now practiced upon the foreigner by means of immigrant banks, labor and employment agencies, and other intermediaries. Above all else, there is demand for uniform enforcement of existing state laws designed to put a stop to peonage, labor blackmail, the compulsory use of the company store and the like. In the absence of new legislation, very much can be done by securing the genuine enforcement of old legislation along these lines. Summed up, all this merely amounts to saying that the time has come when both the federal and state governments can well afford to cease worrying about the number of incomers, and begin to concern themselves about the quality of such incomers—meaning thereby both the initial quality and the subsequent modification thereof, produced by local systems of legislation and by local social conditions. The immigration problem henceforward must be essentially that of limitation, selection, distribution, protection, and assimilation. It will be partly governmental, but largely private, philanthropic and educational.

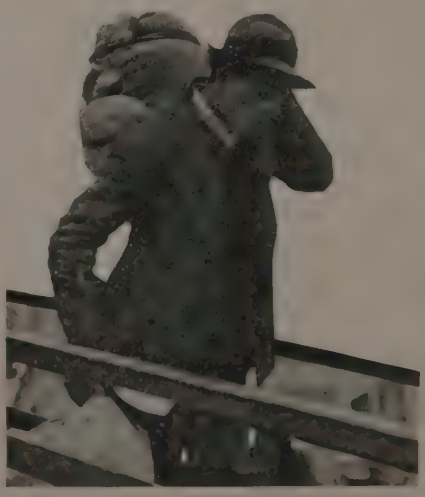


Photo by Hine.

A GROUP OF IMMIGRANTS WAITING FOR WORK, CHICAGO.

INDUSTRIAL COMMUNITIES

W. JETT LAUCK

EXPERT IN CHARGE OF INDUSTRIAL INVESTIGATION, UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

The widespread existence of immigrant communities or colonies in the United States at the present time may be realized, when it is stated that in the territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio and Potomac rivers there is no town or city of industrial importance, with the exception of the lead and zinc mining localities of Missouri, which does not have its immigrant colony or section composed of Slavs, Magyars, north and south Italians, or members of other races of recent immigration from southern and eastern Europe.[1] In the South and Southwest, because of the large areas devoted almost exclusively to agriculture, the immigrant community is less frequently met than in the middle West or East. In the bituminous coal mining territory of West Virginia, Virginia, Alabama, Arkansas and Oklahoma, immigrant colonies in large numbers have been developed in the same way as those in the coal mining regions of Pennsylvania and the middle West. Southern and eastern Europeans have also attached themselves to the iron and steel producing communities of the Birmingham District in Alabama; and a large Italian colony, as is well known, exists in New Orleans, a considerable number of whose members are employed in the cotton mills of the city and in the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes. South Italians, Cubans, and Spaniards have entered the

[1]The general industrial investigation of the United States Immigration Commission was not primarily concerned with the study of immigrant industrial communities. A large number of such communities were investigated in detail, but such studies were incidental and not fundamental. The main investigation was based on between thirty and forty selected industries, such as iron and steel and textile manufacturing and coal and iron ore mining.

cigar manufacturing establishments of Tampa and Key West, Fla., and have built up colonies in these cities. Outside New Orleans, however, no recent immigrants in the South are cotton mill operatives. Southern mill owners have frequently tried to introduce southern and eastern, as well as northern, European and British immigrants into their operating forces, but all attempts have resulted in failure because of the refusal of the present cotton mill workers, recruited from isolated farm and mountain sections, to work alongside recent immigrants. This same intense race prejudice on the part of southern wage-earners of native birth has rendered impossible the extensive employment of southern and eastern Europeans in other branches of manufacturing in the South, and has consequently prevented the development of immigrant industrial colonies, except in the instances already mentioned, and in the case of a number of agricultural communities, principally located in the Mississippi Valley.

Altogether between one and two hundred immigrant communities were studied in detail in the course of the general industrial investigation of the Immigration Commission, and more or less detailed information was secured from several hundred others. The geographical distribution of the principal communities studied in connection with the leading industries of the country is shown in the map in the next column.

These communities were studied with great care. The co-operation of officials of local industrial establishments was first secured, and through them information was gained from their employes. Addresses of wage-earners were obtained and special agents employed to secure data from families. Men and women were engaged, and the inquiries for non-English speaking races were made through interpreters. The schedule used contained 152 inquiries. Special agents with economic and sociological training were assigned to the more general study of the communities. These men examined the municipal, industrial, and institutional records of the locality, and based their work upon the data secured from

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF INDUSTRIAL COMMUNITIES IN WHICH INTENSIVE STUDIES WERE CONDUCTED.

these and other historical, descriptive, and statistical sources available.

Whether located in the South or elsewhere, however, immigrant communities, which have come into existence because of the recent industrial expansion and the resultant influx of wage-earners from southern and eastern Europe, are of two general types. The first is a community which has by a gradual process of social accretion affixed itself to the original population of an industrial town or city, which had already been established before the arrival of races of recent immigration. Foreign communities of this character are as numerous as the older industrial towns and centers of the country. The textile manufacturing centers of New England and the Middle States, such as Fall River, Lowell, and New Bedford, Mass.; Manchester, N. H.; Providence, R. I., and Patterson, N. J.; cities in which other industries are located, such as paper manufacturing in Holyoke and boot and shoe factories in Haverhill and Lynn, Mass.; hardware, cutlery and jewelry, localized in New Britain and Meriden, Conn.; or leather finishing and currying, as in Wilmington, Del.; clothing manufacturing, as in Rochester; collars and cuffs in Troy; hosiery and knit goods in Cohoes and Utica, N. Y.; oil refining in Bayonne, N. J.; or cities engaged in diversified manufacturing, as Passaic and

INDUSTRIAL COMMUNITIES OF THE PITTSBURGH DISTRICT STUDIED BY THE IMMIGRATION COMMISSION.

Newark, N. J.—all these have colonies or sections populated by recent immigrants. The same condition of affairs is found in the iron and steel, glass, and other older manufacturing cities and towns of New York, Pennsylvania and the middle West. As representative types of this class in connection with the manufacture of glass, Tarentum, Pa.; Morgantown, W. Va.; Steubenville and Rossford, O., may be mentioned; and as typical iron and steel localities, Steelton and Johnstown, Pa.; Youngstown, O., and South Chicago and De Kalb, Ill. Pittsburgh, Pa., or the Pittsburgh District may be said to be practically made up of industrial towns or cities engaged in the manufacture of iron and steel, glass, and allied products, each of which has an immigrant colony or section composed of households of wage-earners of recent immigration.

As representative of a community of this class, the developments which have taken place in Johnstown, Pa., may be described. The first iron furnace was established in Johnstown in 1842. Expansion in the local iron and steel industries developed the city and increased its population. Welsh, Irish, Germans and English were exclusively employed in the local industries from their establishment until 1880. During the past thirty years, however, the labor forces have been recruited from southern and eastern Europe. Slovaks, Poles, Magyars, Croatians, Servians, north and south Italians, Syrians and Bulgarians have in constantly increasing numbers found employment in the local iron and steel mills. As a result, about sixty per cent of the population of Johnstown at present is of foreign birth, and is largely representative of races of recent arrival in this country. The native Americans and Welsh occupy two wards of the city. In addition there are three distinct foreign colonies or sections. One is made up ex-

clusively of south Italians, another of 5,000 Slovaks and Croatians, and the third, the most important, which has a population of 15,000, in round numbers, contains representatives of all races of recent immigration.

The second general type of immigrant community has developed within recent years because of the growth of some natural resource, such as coal, iron ore, or copper, or by reason of the extension of the principal manufacturing industries of the country. These communities usually cluster around mines or industrial plants, and their distinguishing feature is that a majority of their inhabitants are of foreign birth and recent immigration. This type of immigrant community is common in the bituminous and anthracite coal mining regions of Pennsylvania and in the coal-producing areas of Virginia, West Virginia, Alabama, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kansas and Oklahoma. In the Mesabi and Vermillion iron-ore ranges of Minnesota, as well as the iron-ore and copper mining districts of Michigan, many such communities are also found. The usual mining community of this character consists of a small town or urban center in the vicinity of which mining operations are conducted at a number of points. These outlying mining locations are generally connected with the urban center by steam or electric railroads. The town of Windber in western Pennsylvania, by way of illustration, has a population of about 8,000 persons, and is the center of twelve mining camps. It was founded in 1897 by the opening of bituminous coal mines, for which purpose 1,600 experienced Englishmen and 400 native Americans were brought into the locality. With the opening of new mines southern and eastern Europeans were attracted to the community, and at the present time eighteen races of recent immigration are numbered among its mine workers. The town of Windber proper has a section occupied by native Americans and three foreign colonies. The outlying mining villages consist of company houses in which recent immigrants live almost exclusively. The southern and eastern Europeans have their churches, banks, steamship agencies, and business establishments in the town of Windber itself, to which they go to transact their affairs and to seek amusement. Food and other articles are principally purchased in the company stores of the mining villages.

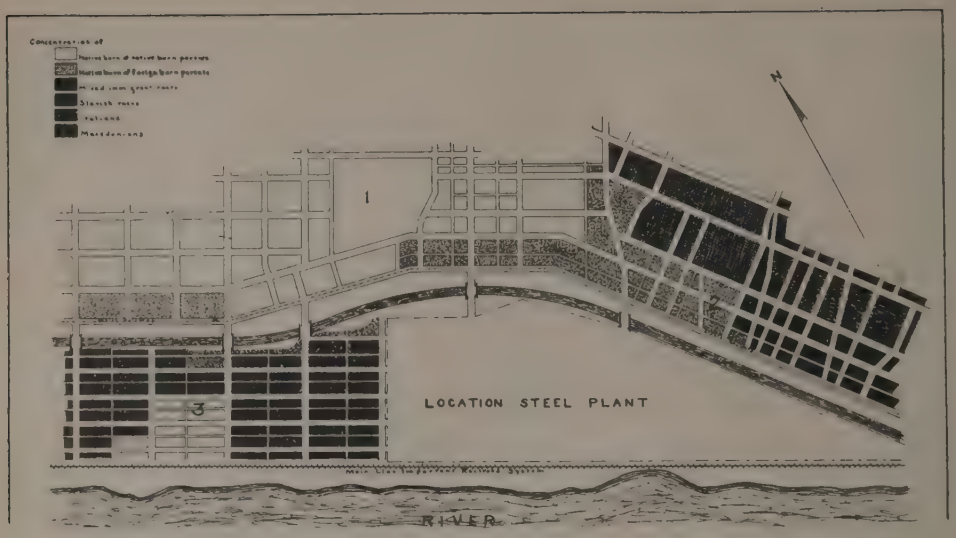
Although not so numerous, communities of this type are not infrequently established in connection with the leading industries, such as the manufacture of iron and steel, glass, cotton and woolen goods. Gary, Ind., is an industrial community largely made up of recent immigrants, which has been brought into existence because of the erection of a large steel plant within the past few years. Whiting, Ind., is likewise a small city, recently established in connection with the oil refining industry, the population of which is composed principally of southern and eastern European immigrants. Charleroi, Kensington, Tarentum, and Arnold, in western Pennsylvania, and Crystal City near St. Louis, Mo., furnish examples of glass manufacturing communities of this description. Charleroi has at present a population of about 10,500, composed chiefly of French and French-Belgians, with an admixture of Poles, Slovaks, north and south Italians, and other races from the south and east of Europe. This community was established about 1890 when its first glass factory was erected, and has grown in size and importance as the glass industry within its borders has been extended. Another illustration is the recently established iron and steel manufacturing community at Granite City and Madison, Ill., which under normal working conditions possesses the distinction of being the largest Bulgarian colony in the United States. These two cities immediately join each other, and for practical purposes are one industrial community, the distinction between them being more artificial than real. In 1892 its site was an unbroken stretch of cornfields. During the past seven years it has had an extraordinary expansion in business and population, due to the extension of its industrial activities. The original wage-earners were English, Irish, Germans, Welsh and Poles. By 1900 the demand for unskilled labor, be-

cause of the erection of new steel foundries and a car building plant, could no longer be supplied by English-speaking people. Consequently, in that year, Slovaks from St. Louis were employed by the local industries. In 1902 came the Magyars followed by a few Croatians. Mixed groups of Roumanians, Greeks, and Servians followed. In the years 1904 and 1905 began the swarming of the Bulgarians to the community, and by the autumn of the latter year fully 1,500 had arrived. Two years later Bulgarian immigration reached its high-water mark with 8,000 of this race. In addition to the Bulgarians there were about 4,000 recent immigrants, Armenians, Servians, Lithuanians, Slovaks, Magyars and Poles being the principal races represented. The total population of the community is estimated under normal industrial conditions to be about 20,000. The Bulgarians and other foreign races have built up practically an exclusively immigrant town a short distance from the American section of the two cities, which has come in popular parlance to be called "Hungary Hollow." Here Bulgarians, Servians, Roumanians and a few Magyars and Armenians live together entirely apart from any American influences.

All immigrant communities possess one or more institutions of a class peculiar to, or resultant from, such a population, each of which has an important bearing upon the life of the community. The most important of these is what is commonly known as an immigrant bank. As a matter of fact the term immigrant bank is a misnomer, for the institution is practically a bureau of information and a clearing house of services necessary to an immigrant population. An immigrant community of alien speech has many needs which can be satisfied only by a person or company familiar with the language, customs, habits, and manner of thought of the people. To meet these requirements, the institution popularly known as the immigrant bank has come into existence. The immigrant banker exercises, in the majority of cases, no banking functions beyond receiving money for safekeeping, for transmission abroad, and for exchange. He combines with his banking business the sale of steamship tickets, merchandise, books and other articles. He is often a political leader, or conducts a boarding house, bakery, labor agency, or saloon. In some of the more recent communities, however, as in the case of Granite City and Madison, Ill., one or more banking houses are sometimes found owning and operating large rooming houses, the occupants of which buy their provisions from the banker's stores and bakeries, drink in his saloon and coffee house, deposit their money in his bank, read the paper printed by his establishment, and follow, in a large measure blindly, the counsel of the banker himself.

Another interesting institution often met with is the immigrant coffee-house, which is modeled after similar institutions in Europe. It is intended to meet the tastes and habits of the Greek, Macedonian, Bulgarian and Turkish races who do not patronize the American saloon or drink intoxicants after the manner of the Germans, Croatians, Slovaks, Poles, Magyars, and the members of other races. The coffee-houses are usually large, well-lighted rooms, furnished with small tables and plain chairs. Tobacco in all its forms, including even the Turkish pipe, is to be had, as well as tea, coffee, cider, soft drinks, and ice cream.

In many communities immigrant newspapers, usually issued weekly, are published in a foreign language and appeal for support to a certain race or races. These papers are often owned and controlled by immigrant mercantile banking houses. The immigrant saloon also has certain features peculiar as compared with the ordinary American institution. Often an immigrant bank, steamship agency, labor agency, or boarding or rooming house is operated in connection with it. A large number of fraternal and beneficial organizations also flourish in immigrant communities. Moreover, in each foreign colony of any importance, churches have been erected by the different races. They are usually Roman or Greek Catholic, and are often costly and imposing edifices. Usually parochial schools are conducted in connection with these churches, and offer re-



STEELTON.

The industrial suburb of the Pennsylvania state capital; map shows racial distribution.

ligious and secular instruction. A foreign language is, as a rule, used in the schools, but in the greater number of instances instruction in English is given.

Between the immigrant colonies which have affixed themselves to industrial centers such as the New England textile manufacturing cities or the iron and steel manufacturing localities of Pennsylvania, and the older native-born portion of the towns or cities there is little contact or association beyond that rendered necessary by business or working relations. Immigrant workmen and their households not only live in sections or colonies according to race, but, as has already been stated, attend and support their own churches, maintain their own business institutions and places of recreation, and have their own fraternal and beneficial organizations. Even in the mines and manufacturing plants, there is a sharp line of division in the occupations or the departments in which recent immigrants and persons of native birth are engaged, and in the case of unskilled labor the immigrant workmen are, as a rule, brought together in gangs composed of one race or closely related races. In those industrial localities which are strongly unionized, the affiliation of immigrant workmen with native Americans is small. A considerable proportion of the children of foreign-born parents are also segregated in the parochial schools. Women of recent immigrant races, beyond the small degree of contact which they obtain in factories or as domestic servants, practically live entirely removed from Americanizing influences. As a consequence of this general isolation of immigrant colonies, the tendencies toward assimilation exhibited by the recent immigrant population are small, and the maintenance of old customs and standards leads to congestion and insanitary housing and living conditions. The native-born element in the population of industrial communities of the type under discussion is in most cases ignorant of conditions which prevail in immigrant sections; but even when acquainted with them, natives are usually indifferent so long as they do not become too pronounced a menace to the public health and welfare. Under normal conditions there is no antipathy to the immigrant population, beyond the feeling uniformly met with in all sections, that a certain stigma or reproach attaches to working with recent arrivals or in the same occupations. This aversion of the native American, which is psychological in its nature and arises from race prejudice or

ignorance, is, however, one of the most effective forces in racial segregation and displacement.

In the case of the immigrant industrial communities which have recently come into existence through industrial development, and which are almost entirely composed of foreign-born persons, or in which foreign-born elements are predominant, a situation exists of alien colonies being established on American soil, often composed of a large number of races, living according to their own standards, largely under their own systems of control and practically isolated from all direct contact with American life and institutions. The Americanization of such communities, as compared with the immigrant colonies of old established industrial towns and cities, must necessarily be slow. It is to be expected, also, that before these communities are assimilated they will have a pronounced effect upon American life, for the reason that the slowness of the process will result in the establishment, perhaps in a modified form, of many Old World standards and institutions.

The standards of living of industrial workers who have come to our mining and manufacturing communities from the south and east of Europe are also low. Recent immigrant males, being usually single or, if married, having left their wives abroad, have been able to adopt in large measure a group instead of a family living arrangement, thereby reducing their cost of living to a point far below that of the American or the older immigrant in the same industry or on the same level of occupation. The method of living usually followed is that commonly known as the "boarding-boss" system. Under this arrangement a married immigrant, or his wife, or a single man, is constituted the head of the household, which in addition to the family of the head is generally made up of two to sixteen boarders or lodgers. Each lodger pays the boarding-boss a fixed sum, ordinarily from two to three dollars a month, for lodging, cooking and washing, the food being bought by the boarding-boss and its cost shared equally by each individual of the group. Another common arrangement is for each member of the household to purchase his own food and have it cooked separately. Under this general method of living, which prevails among the greater proportion of immigrant households, the entire outlay for necessary living expenses of each adult member ranges from nine to fifteen dollars a month. All living arrangements have been subordinated to the desire to reduce the cost of living to its own level. This condition of affairs has had the effect of preventing increase in wages and the improvement in working conditions which might have been expected, and has led to the voluntary or involuntary displacement of a large proportion of native-born employes.

The earnings of the immigrant industrial workers, as well as those of native birth, in present-day industrial communities are generally too small to permit the maintenance of an independent form of family life. Of more than 22,000 wage-earners eighteen years of age or over who were studied by the Immigration Commission in the general investigation of immigrants in industries, the average annual earnings were only $455; and in the case of many southern and eastern European races the average was considerably less. These meager earnings in the case of male heads of families were supplemented by taking boarders or lodgers into the households, or by having the children go to work. The average annual income of immigrant families was only $704. Less than two-fifths of the immigrant households were supported by the earnings of the husbands, and more than one-fourth derived part of their maintenance from the payments of boarders or lodgers.

Congestion within the immigrant households in our industrial communities is greater than in the large cities. This is largely accounted for by the low wages received by industrial workers, which necessitate crowding in order to reduce expenses. The presence of such large proportions of single immigrant males, or married men without their wives, also renders the extensive adoption of the group system or boarding-boss method of living possible. Probably the most sig-

nificant indication of congestion in immigrant communties is the low rent payment each month per capita. The average monthly rent per person paid by immigrants in more than 11,000 households studied by the commission was only $1.51, and in the case of some races it was less than one dollar. About one-third of the immigrant households were found to have boarders and lodgers, the average number being 353 for each 100 households. There were also 138 persons in each 100 rooms and 253 persons in each 100 sleeping rooms in the immigrant households investigated. More than 63 per cent of the Bulgarians, 16 per cent of the Greeks, 12 per cent of the Ruthenians, and 10 per cent of the Slovenians used all their rooms for sleeping purposes. The effect of this crowding and the resultant unsatisfactory living arrangements upon the immigrant population of industrial localities becomes evident, not in a greater liability to disease, but in a general tendency to succumb very quickly to a disease when it has been contracted. From the standpoint of the native-born portion of the population, the conditions described constitute a serious menace on account of the difficulty in securing obedience to municipal health and housing regulations.

Another salient fact exhibited by recent immigrants who have sought work in American industries and who have settled in industrial communities has been that as a whole they have manifested but a small degree of permanent interest in their employment or in the community. They have constituted a mobile, migratory, wage-earning class, constrained mainly by their economic interest, and moving readily from place to place according to changes in working conditions or fluctuations in the demand for labor. The recent immigrant ordinarily has no property or other restraining interests which attach him to a community, and a large proportion being unaccompanied by wives or children, and having their accumulations in a cash or convertible form, are free to follow the best industrial inducements. The transitory characteristic developed as a result of these conditions is best illustrated by the racial movements from the larger industries into railroad construction, seasonal and other temporary work, by the floating immigrant labor supply handled through labor agencies and *padrones,* and by the remarkable falling off in the population of immigrant communities in times of industrial depression.

In general it may be said that the menace in the presence of the recent immigrant in our industrial communities, so far as the native American and older foreign wage-earners from Great Britain and northern Europe are concerned, consists in the low standard of living, the illiteracy, the absence of industrial training, and the tractability and lack of aggressiveness of the southern and eastern Europeans. As regards the recent immigrants themselves, their general, as well as their industrial, progress and assimilation are retarded by their segregation in colonies and communities where they have little contact with American life and small opportunity to acquire the English language. The sudden transplanting of such an agricultural class of the Old World to the conditions and environments of American industrial communities renders the recent immigrant liable to serious moral and physical deterioration. On the other hand, the existence of colonies of immigrants with low standards of living, and ignorant of proper measures for securing health and sanitation, constitutes a serious danger to the native-born portion of our industrial communities. The possible political and social manipulation of the recent immigrant population by unscrupulous leaders is not without serious import in its bearing upon American institutions. Probably the most significant feature of the entire situation is the almost complete ignorance and indifference of the native American population to the recent immigrant colonies and their condition. This attitude extends even to the native churches, and very few agencies have been established for the Americanization and assimilation of southern and eastern European wage-earners. A great field is not only open for social and religious work, but vast possibilities are offered for patriotic service in improving serious conditions which confront a self-governing republic.

IMMIGRANT RURAL COMMUNITIES[1]

ALEXANDER E. CANCE

IN CHARGE OF REPORT ON RECENT IMMIGRANTS IN AGRICULTURE UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

Something like one-fourth of all male breadwinners of foreign parentage in the United States were engaged in agricultural pursuits in 1900. Although by far the greater part were of the older immigration, who came from northern Europe and settled in the middle West years ago, among them are a not inconsiderable number of recent immigrants from southern and southeastern Europe who have established themselves on the land. The races under consideration by the Immigration Commission were chiefly Italians, Hebrews, Poles, Bohemians and Portuguese; and most of these were settled rather recently in more or less sharply defined rural communities.

The inhabitant of the upper Mississippi Valley is well acquainted with immigrant farmers, and a township of Scandanavians, Germans or Bohemians excites no comment and invites no comparisons. There the foreigners, long settled in rural districts, have become so thoroughly American, have so completely lost themselves in the rural population, that they retain very few of their distinctive race characteristics. In the East and South, however, and in the instance of certain recent colonies elsewhere, the foreign rural group, composed of Italians, Poles or Hebrews, is still an object of curiosity. Not only are the foreigners on the land infrequent, but they have yet to prove their fitness for agricultural pursuits—for country life.

More than 150 rural groups or parishes of these more or less recent and agriculturally doubtful races were visited by the commission—groups representing many different forms of agriculture in nineteen states chiefly along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, where many incipient settlements have sprung up recently. A smaller number are established in the middle West. Nearly all of these groups are racially homogeneous, but not only are they engaged in a variety of agricultural sub-industries, but the conditions of soil, climate and method of settlement are so diverse, that generalizations are difficult and the most satisfactory procedure is a monographic study by community groups.

As a farmer or permanent farm laborer, the immigrant becomes a real element in such rural communities. There is a second way in which the incoming foreigner may come into contact with the soil, but without gaining other than a casual economic interest in rural pursuits, as a seasonal agricultural laborer who lives in the city and works for a few months yearly usually in the fruit or vegetable districts.

This class of laborers is usually composed of foreign-born persons, who work in gangs and who are recruited outside the neighborhood in which they find employment. They are employed for short seasons only, frequently on piece work; ordinarily men, women and children work together; often they follow a regular itinerary, leaving the cities in the spring and returning in the autumn. Thousands are employed every year in all parts of the United States where specialized crops, for whose culture a relatively large amount of hand labor is essential, are produced. Of the seven groups of "black" Portuguese, Poles, Belgians, Sicilians, Japanese and Indians studied by the commission, only the south Italian berry pickers of New Jersey can be considered.

One who has seen a train load of incoming foreigners unloaded at some water-tank railway station in the Northwest, with children, food, bags, bedding and belongings dumped in a promiscuous heap at their feet, has a good replica of the unloading of a carload of Italian berry pickers at Hammonton or Port Norris, N. J. at the beginning of the picking season. Great bales of bedding; old trunks, barrels and boxes of cloth-

[1]The author has quoted freely from his reports written for the commission.

ing; bags of Italian bread, macaroni, peas and cheese; clanging bundles of metal cooking utensils; occasionally a stove and frequently a number of baby carriages; finally a huddle of children and confused parents await the great wains that drive up and carry them off by the wagon load—luggage, babies, baby carriages and all—to their four or five weeks' sojourn on some berry farm.

These berry pickers are largely Sicilians or Calabrians from the vicinity between South Fifth and South Fifteenth streets, along Christian and Fitzwater streets, Philadelphia, and some from Camden; and a canvass of the Hammonton district led to the conclusion that 2,500 to 3,000 pickers—with numerous infant children—were employed in 1909.

They follow a regular itinerary. During the winter most may be found in cheap tenements, the children at school, the men picking rags, sweeping or working on streets and railroads, at odd jobs and in various unskilled occupations, the women in box factories, machine tailoring establishments, or home "tailor work." In various ways they earn a hand to mouth existence until the *padrone* rounds them up about the middle of May and they remove to the strawberry fields of South Jersey, taking the entire family and most of their worldly goods.

The strawberry season over, towards the end of June they are shipped northward, to Hammonton, for example, to pick blackberries; after blackberries come raspberries, which bring the season to nearly August. Some of the families then return to the cities, but perhaps a fourth of them scatter over the country to gather huckleberries, or find work in the tomato, pepper or cucumber fields, or harvest sweet potatoes until the cranberry season begins. The last stage is the cranberry bog, after which the entire remaining company moves back to winter quarters about October 10.

The work is all done by the piece, and since most of the tasks are easily within the strength and intelligence of the women, and children from ten to fourteen years of age, the family becomes the earning unit. The wages received are not unremunerative, and because of the exceedingly low cost of living and the many hands, family earnings for the season frequently reach $200 to $500 or sometimes more, sufficient to enable them to live in comparative comfort until "picking" begins again.

Housing conditions are in general unsatisfactory. Small berry growers, especially Italian, seldom make adequate provision for the sanitary housing of labor gangs. Barns, granaries, old outbuildings of various sorts, stable lofts, and in one instance a condemned school house, are some of the makeshifts utilized. The houses especially erected for laborers are frequently little better. Most of them are constructed with a view to economy of space. Ventilation is not adequate. Often there is overcrowding; sometimes entire families occupy bunks about six feet by eight or sometimes six feet square. In a number of instances privacy or the separation of sexes is secured only by a curtain, shawl, or some article of clothing thrown over a cord stretched across the room or shed.

The berry grower (employer) furnishes well water, straw for filling the box-like bunks, and wood for fuel. In a number of instances toilet facilities were found to be insufficient, and the growers had refused to provide mosquito netting for the windows or any form of lamp or lantern. Few growers take any pains to maintain sanitary quarters, and in consequence the barracks were in many instances deplorably filthy. The chief defense made by the grower is the usual one that the pickers will not preserve or appreciate sanitary quarters, even if provided; and furthermore, that for a short season of six weeks better quarters require too great expenditure of capital, especially for occupation by gangs of laborers who do not care for better.

In standard of living, Americanization, initiative, resourcefulness, progressive spirit, civic and personal respect, and general moral tone, the Italian berry picker is far behind the land owning Sicilian for whom he labors. The contrast at Hammonton and Vineland is strikingly manifest. Many of the Ham-

monton farmers were previously itinerant berry pickers, and the colony continues to draw a few recruits from their ranks, but fewer now than formerly. With many south Italians this seasonal labor is apparently a permanent occupation, and its bearing on the second generation calls for consideration.

The moral effect of the miscellaneous housing and the unconventional life—even were two-story buildings provided to segregate the sexes—cannot, to put it mildly, be good. School authorities assert that the itinerary breaks in on the school year with very detrimental results educationally. Certain medical and hygienic experts declare with conviction that exposure to rain, cold and malarial atmospheres are provocative of fevers and tuberculosis, and that neither the water supply nor the surroundings are conducive to physical well-being. But the attention of the lay observer is first drawn to the babies, largely left to the care of some small sister, fighting the swarming flies and sweltering in the hot sun. The insects, the exposure, and the heat cannot be good for the little ones, and after one has seen little tots, not two years old, eating green cucumbers *ad libitum,* skins and all, unrebuked, he trembles for the coming race.

It is but fair to state that the housing and other conditions of the New Jersey berry pickers are worse than in the canning factory gangs in New York or in many gangs of sugar beet laborers or cranberry pickers; and on the whole the circumstances in agricultural employment are more satisfactory than those surrounding Italian contract labor gangs on railway and other construction work, so far as the men are concerned.

There is little doubt that conditions would be improved speedily were it possible for the labor groups to organize and so acquire strength to make unanimous and specific demands of their employers. Occasionally a gang does strike for certain improvements, and nearly every betterment has come about as the result of such local strikes. When the labor supply is short local ameliorations are frequent, but much remains to be done, and in New Jersey at any rate there is immediate opportunity for correction and remedial legislation.

Of the forty or more Italian communities visited in thirteen states, the oldest and largest groups are the berry and truck growers on the pine barrens of New Jersey, some of them the land owners for whom these picking gangs labor during the harvests. Both north and south Italians are landowners at Vineland, and Hammonton is one of the most promising south Italian settlements east of the Rocky mountains. In origin and development both are typically unassisted colonies, whose progress has been continuous since the seventies and whose numbers have been augmented chiefly from abroad. These groups number perhaps 1,200 families of Italian origin, and here veritably the "magic of property" has "turned sand into gold." The hundreds of little berry farms, vineyards, or sweet potato or pepper fields which make these Italian communities real oases in a waste of sand and lowland, bear unmistakable testimony to the ability of the much-maligned south Italian to create wealth and to make progress materially, morally and politically under rural conditions.

At Vineland the original immigration set in from northern Italy, but more recently a large number of Sicilians and other south Italians have come in. Several stages of material progress are clearly delineated. The first arrivals have passed well beyond the experimental and pioneer stages and many of them are pointed out as the most substantial citizens in the community. They are prosperous, influential and intelligent farmers and proprietors. Others are just emerging from ignorance and debt—just getting the upper hand of the virgin sand or muck upon which they settled—just rising above the line of subsistence farming. These men are preparing to build better, spend more freely, "labor more abundantly." Still others are yet in the dependent class—day laborers in factories, ditches or berry fields, on the highways or railroads. They own little homes with small acreages on which their wives and children are endeavoring to support the household, while the hus-

bands work for wages to pay for the house and land. One by one they are abandoning the dependent occupations and joining the ranks of the farmers,

There is a fourth class, the American-born Italian, who represents the new Italian farmer, born on the soil he cultivates. He is the progressive farmer who dares to try new machinery, new equipment, new varieties and new methods. He subscribes to an agricultural paper and belongs to a farmers' co-operative society.

At Hammonton the principal industry is small fruit growing, which has now become highly specialized and is subject to sharp competition. Beyond a comfortable living, little material return can be expected. Near Vineland, with some exceptions and limitations, the situation is decidedly encouraging. It is the region of the grape, the peach tree and the sweet potato vine; the Italians have added peppers to the list of staple products and most farmers have a small berry patch. It is a region of small farms, built on sand, cultivated by owners and made valuable by hard and unremitting toil. Whatever wealth the rural Italians of New Jersey possess has been well earned, and nearly every home, beautiful or unattractive, cheap or substantial, is a home built by the owner's own hands, the product of his own labor; all are home makers in "Little Italy,"—there are no parasites and no leisure class.

The Italians of Vineland, in the large, purchased new, uncleared, unoccupied lands, cleared them and made them productive. Not far from Vineland is the later Italian settlement, begun at Newfield and Malaga about twenty years ago. Economically considered it has a very different significance.

At an early day Malaga was a flourishing village and the surrounding country was populated by prosperous Jerseymen, who lived partly on their cereal crops, poultry and fruit, partly on the products of the forest,—timber, staves, hoop poles and inferior lumber. But the vanishing timber, the increasing poverty of the soil, the removal of the mills, the depressed condition of agriculture, and the exodus of the young people made farming in the late eighties a precarious industry. When the first Italians came in 1889 they found deserted farms and a warm welcome. "Everybody wanted to sell," said the first comer; "no one was making any money and nothing was raised for the market."

The south Italians took hold of the abandoned farms, hit upon a new industry—pepper raising—and developed it, and for the time being at any rate saved the region to agriculture. Only the fittest of the American farmers who have reorganized their farming have been able to survive. The ingress of the Italians and the exodus of Jerseymen continues, and careful observers feel that in time the countryside will be entirely Italian. By sheer hard labor, the co-operation and field work of wife and children, dogged perseverance and cheap living, the imitative Italian has been able to outcompete his more intelligent American neighbor. On the tax roll of the township ninety-four names of Italian property owners appear, part of them farm owners, part of them share tenants.

In New England, especially near Providence, south Italians have been engaged in truck and vegetable farming for many years. As market gardening has increased in importance, the Providence settlement has been augmented by defections from the industrial population in the vicinity. An entirely different type of colony has developed within recent years at South Glastonbury, Conn., where peach growing on land comparatively sterile and recently forest-covered is the chief occupation of eighty families of north Italians. It is the one successful foreign settlement studied in the "hill towns" of New England.

The Italian settlements in New York are in the western part of the state in a rather well defined area, most of them along the line of the Erie Canal from Madison to Orleans county. The south Italian colony at Canastota is typical. Fifty-four families have engaged successfully in truck farming, chiefly because of the available supply of muck land, admirably adapted to certain vegetables after being cleared and drained at a great expenditure of hard labor.

American owners were unwilling to undertake the clearing, hence the land was purchased cheaply; and since an Italian raised his first crop of onions in 1897 the farm settlement, now called Onion Town, has grown slowly but steadily.

Economically it is significant that there has been no displacement of the old agricultural population; that the Italian has developed new land—otherwise commercially unproductive—and a new agricultural industry, and that he has found this rival rural occupation more remunerative than his former employment on railroads or canal. Farms are small, improved land is valued at $150 to $200 an acre, and a number who are not able to purchase have rented land on shares and little houses in Canastota or Onion Town. But few continue as tenants; to most tenancy is simply a temporary condition or stepping stone to land ownership.

From the standpoint of community development, it is significant that while there has been no colonization, the settlers for the most dwell together in a rural village, and thus escape the isolation of country life, and especially during the winter enjoy the companionship of their kind. Two considerations have made this settlement possible—the peculiar quality of the available land and the opportunities afforded for wage-earning at irregular intervals, until the immigrant is able to make a living and a surplus from his farm.

Italian farming in the South covers a wide range of products, widely diversified soils and climatic conditions, several forms of land tenure, and various systems of culture. The north Italians among the mountains of western North Carolina practice a self-sufficing, diversified agriculture. In southeastern Louisiana and in the coastal plain belt of Alabama, the south Italian truckers and small fruit growers are doing exceptionally well on the light sandy soils, when they succeed in marketing their products in a satisfactory manner. In the "Delta" both north and south Italian cotton tenants are teaching the cotton growers how valuable careful cultivation, kitchen gardens, and small store accounts may be to the cotton "share hand." In the Ozarks Italians from the Sunnyside group have taken up new land, planted orchards, and become successful apple and peach growers. It is plain that the Italian farmer has been profoundly influenced by his environment. His farming has been directed and his agricultural methods taught him by his new neighbors. He has not been uniformly successful, but his economy stands out in contrast to the more or less shiftless, thriftless southern methods, much more conspicuously than Italian agriculture in Wisconsin or New Jersey.

Italian immigration to the South has been in part stimulated by the cotton and sugar-cane planters, who, dissatisfied with Negro labor, alarmed at the increasing scarcity of every sort of farm labor, and desirous of settling acceptable farmers on the immense tracts of unimproved land, have for years been striving to turn the tide of immigration southward. Instances are cited of plantation owners, who advanced the passage money for the transportation of groups of Italian families and settled them on their cotton plantations. The total immigration induced in this way is not significant, except as it forms nuclei around which gather subsequent immigrants to the United States. Sunnyside colony, originating in the importation of 100 or more families from northern Italy in the nineties', is the mother of several rural settlements.

A number of colonies, notably in Texas and Louisiana, seem to have originated in the purchase of a few acres of land by some Italian farm laborer who, arriving practically without money at a southern port of entry, sought employment on some neighboring plantation.

One of the most notable examples of this method of setlement is the south Italian group of strawberry growers at Independence, La. Independence began to be known as a strawberry center about 1890, about the time the first Italian came with his family from New Orleans to pick berries and remained to purchase a few acres of land. A second family followed in the autumn; these two waxed enthusiastic over the possibilities

of berry culture and urged their friends and relatives to join them; more Italian berry pickers came and many remained; now there are perhaps 250 Sicilian small farmers in the neighborhood.

Much of the purchased land was lowland, more or less swampy and covered with a heavy forest growth. A large number who were not able to pay thirty to fifty dollars an acre for land operated a few acres on shares; the owner furnishing the land, preparing it for cultivation, providing one-half of the fertilizer and berry boxes, and paying one-half the cost of picking; after picking, the berries were equally divided between landowner and grower. The Italians without capital found this form of tenure satisfactory, and many of them in two or three years saved enough to purchase five or ten acres.

The holdings are small, the homes, in consequence, have the appearance of a straggling rural village and the community spirit is strong. It is not a homelike village, and in the poorly constructed, rude frame, two- or three-room cabins are few evidences of prosperity or comfort. But their farms are well tilled, their berries are excellent and yield well, and thanks to their organized marketing the returns are fairly remunerative. School waits upon the berry field, but interest in education is increasing. There is little civic spirit, and of 350 adult males not twenty are voters. They have had no adequate Italian leadership, and their American neighbors have apparently given little or no attention to the development of a wholesome social or civic interest in the foreigners.

A very important economic feature is a co-operative marketing association with a membership of more than 200 Italian growers, organized two years ago. The Independence berries go to Chicago and neighboring cities; formerly they were shipped to commission merchants by individual growers. The results were unsatisfactory, sometimes ruinous. Prices were low, handling charges high, and complaints of unjust dealing innumerable. In the crisis the Italians got together, organized a selling association, hired an inspector and a selling agent, and notified the commission houses to come to Independence for their berries. At present all berries are sold to platform buyers f. o. b. Independence. The expenses of management in 1909 were about two cents per twenty-four-pint crate.

During the spring of 1910 the association sold $357,639 worth of berries for its members.

Ability to co-operate is characteristic of Italian farmers who are engaged in highly specialized forms of agriculture. They may not have a strong class consciousness, but they are racially homogeneous, and a community consciousness is readily developed. Moreover, some at least have some knowledge of co-operative organization in Italy. In ability to work together they are far in advance of the native southern farmers.

Some few colonies have been promoted either by some Italian leader or philanthropist or by land companies, honest or dishonest. Some of the exploited colonies failed utterly and none, except the Valdese and the St. Helena, N. C., settlements, seems to have prospered. The St. Helena colony is apparently one of the most successful colonizing ventures recently undertaken in the South.[1] Two large elements in this success are the thrifty character of the colonists and the fact that nearly all are immediately from farms in northern Italy. But the exceptional leadership offered at St. Helena, the opportunity to earn a livelihood while paying for his land, assurance of landed proprietorship by mere capitalization of his energy and enterprise, and the companionship of his fellows, all have proved unique elements of appeal to the home and property loving foreigner.

Among Italians, not many skilled workers in the trades or industries, here or abroad, have moved to farms, and comparatively few who have found permanent unskilled work in the industries, after landing, have engaged later in agricultural pursuits. But, notably in Texas, the building of railroads has brought in a number of south Italians, chiefly Sicilians, some few of whom have become either tenants or truckers, or inde-

[1] THE SURVEY, November 6, 1909

pendent proprietors of small market gardens. It may be asserted confidently that there has been no marked shift of Italians from industrial pursuits or from city employments to farms in the southern states. In Missouri and Arkansas, indeed, many Italian farmers supplement their incomes by labor in the coal mines during the winter; otherwise the colonies are purely agricultural.

This brief characterization of Italian settlements sets forth the diverse conditions and circumstances incident to the settlement of immigrant rural communities. In the large, the history of the founding of Polish settlements differs little from the Italian record. The goal of early Polish immigration was northern Illinois and Wisconsin. After 1885 the stream of Slavic immigration set in very strongly, and Polish rural colonies began to dot the prairies of Minnesota and the Dakotas as well as the Lake States. Unlike the early peasants who came directly from Europe in search of cheap land and homes of their own, a large percentage of these men are day laborers who have been engaged in the mines, steel mills, quarries or urban industrial pursuits, and who are attracted to farms by advertisements in Polish papers or the solicitation of Polish land agents. They settle in small groups, their location is directed, they bring more money than the arrivals directly from abroad, and when they are fairly dealt with they make more rapid progress than the earlier immigration.

Hebrew agricultural colonies are interesting from many points of view. Most of the Hebrew farmers are in New York, New Jersey and southern New England, within easy reach of large commercial centers. Practically all of them were established on the land directly or indirectly by the aid or influence of a Jewish immigrant aid society of some sort. Practically all of the colonies have received artificial support by means of subsidized clothing or other factories, or by loans or virtual gifts from trust funds or philanthropists. A very large percentage of the 1,000 or more Hebrew farmers in New England and in Sullivan and Ulster counties, N. Y., practice what may be designated summer boarder agriculture,—since the soil is sterile, the topography rough, hilly, or even mountainous, and the principal part of the farm income comes from boarding summer visitors.

Other Hebrew farmers in New England are landowners, who depend to a greater or less extent on some outside enterprise—peddling, cattle buying, junk dealing,—for the greater part of their incomes, or who are speculators in real estate rather than permanent, simon pure farmers. Excepting the recent settlements near Ellington and Hartford, Conn., where agricultural conditions are favorable, comparatively few Jewish farmers in New England may be called successful.

The colony or group of colonies near Vineland, N. J., presents Hebrew agriculture in America at its best. Of the several colonies of Hebrews studied none shows greater apparent material prosperity, a more general dependence on agriculture for a livelihood, a more intelligent, resourceful husbandry or a more wholesome community life, educationally, socially, or politically, in a large sense. There is no doubt that a great deal of material encouragement has been given; that many of the social and educational enterprises were conceived, organized, and supported by leaders without the community, and that co-operative business associations and marketing facilities were promoted by leaders who do not live in the settlements; but once established the colonists have entered into all these enterprises with some degree of interest and are beginning to support them. To all appearances the colonies near Vineland, N. J., are permanently established on the basis of a commercial agriculture adapted to the soil, climate and demands of the market.

The study of the several Jewish settlements emphasized these facts at least: that the Hebrew is not adapted by training or tradition to make a pioneer farmer; that to win success he should start with some capital on improved land; that settlement in groups of sufficient size to maintain a synagogue is almost essential; that those who are likely to succeed are

either those who have been farmers abroad or who have had some successful experience in agriculture in the United States previous to permanent settlement.

Limits of space forbid even a mention of the Portuguese, Bohemian or Japanese settlements investigated. Indeed, any summarized account is lamentably deficient, in that it cannot portray the intensely interesting human factors, imperfectly delineated in the monographic reports of the commission, and so significant to the student of rural social science. Only a brief word can be presented regarding the effect of rural life socially and politically on the Italians—the immigrant group to which this paper has of necessity been limited.

Ownership of the land he operates is one significant factor in the social and civic progress of the rural Italian in New England, New Jersey and Wisconsin. The prestige incidental to landed proprietorship, as well as the financial responsibility of an owner, sets the farmer far above the day laborer. Not only is he independent, taking orders from no one, but he is a member of the body politic. He is stimulated to industry, for his cash returns are in a measure proportioned to his exertions. The variety of knowledge of crops, fertilizers, markets and public affairs and the familiarity with a number of occupations necessary to agricultural success educate and develop the newcomer very rapidly.

Interest in taxation, good roads, public improvements and expenses for public schools is a stepping stone to wider civic interest. The foreigner's first interest in suffrage is self-interest; but it is better than no interest at all. On the other side there is the deadening effect of isolation by foreign groups, of segregation in the open country, both on the community and the individual members. Where the Italians are intermingled with an equal number of American farmers, they assimilate rather rapidly; where there is rural segregation of large groups Americanization is a slower process than in the city.

It is certain that the settled farmers live better than the itinerant seasonal Italian laborers. Progress in language and in literacy is slower in segregated rural settlements than in cities, but more rapid among Italians than among Poles in some of the large rural settlements visited. Farm labor keeps children out of school, and lack of opportunity for intercourse with English-speaking people explains the persistence of the Italian tongue, even to the second generation in isolated districts At Independence, La., for example, the school year closes in March to permit the children to pick strawberries. In the Mississippi Delta region, of fifty Italians interviewed between ten and twenty years of age, only twelve were able to read or write English. In some of the segregated outlying communities of Vineland, Italian is almost universally spoken, since every farmer for miles around is of Italian origin.

Adherence to the Roman Catholic faith is practically universal, but the rural Italian is less a churchman than the urban Italian. Language and church affiliations are obstacles to intermingling and inter-marriage with Americans, but there is more social commingling with the better people in the country than in the city, and more where the proportion of Italians in the total rural population is small. Compared with the progress made by north European immigrants on western farms, the Italian's progress in Americanization has been slower; compared with many rural Poles, his advance has been quite as rapid. Fusion in the case of both races (Poles and south Italians) takes place in the third generation.

The quarrelsome, suspicious, mendacious Italian, so frequently heard about in labor gangs where numerous adult males live together, is infrequently found in rural communities; very rarely among landowners. The rural Sicilian is ordinarily peaceable, quiet, law-abiding, and more easily controlled than the south Italian day laborer, according to all accounts of employers and officers of justice. Quick temper and indulgence in liquor are at the root of most of the disorders that

arise in established Sicilian settlements. The north Italians seem to be fully as law-abiding as the other Teutonic races.

Progress in citizenship is less rapid among the south Italians than among those from the northern provinces of Italy, ordinarily; but leadership and live local issues touching property owners have much to do with the number of naturalized citizens. Voting is not the all-important test of Americanization, but in the town meeting of Hammonton, N. J., a vote argues more civic intelligence than in Christian street, Philadelphia. There is a noticeable cleavage along racial rather than party lines, but the country Italian in the North becomes a citizen sooner and votes more independently than the Italian in industry.

The rural Italian is still concerned with his material subsistence. He has a cheap frame house because he is not able to pay for a better one. Little about the house denotes leisure or higher living. Books, papers, and music, rocking-chairs, or hammocks, or swings find no place until the Italian is materially prosperous. His buildings and grounds do not compare favorably with his American neighbors, except in a few localities where the second generation is operating the farms; but the houses are comfortably large for even large families; there is no overcrowding in the ordinary sense, and the houses, excepting those of recent arrivals, are fairly clean and comfortable. In some old localities living conditions are as satisfactory as in any homes in the neighborhood.

All in all, the rural community has had a salutary effect on the Italians, especially those from the southern provinces of Italy. It has frequently taken an ignorant, abject, unskilled, dependent, foreign laborer and made of him a shrewd, self-respecting, independent farmer and citizen. His returns in material welfare are not great, but he lives comfortably and accumulates a small property. Where Italians have been established for some time in comparatively large groups in the open country, they suffer little by comparison with other foreign farmers in the locality, and second generation farmers are frequently not less progressive than Americans.

More than those in the North, the southern colonies reflect the influence of leaders or the want of them in their growth, economic characteristics, social progress, and institutions. The economic progress of the new colony at St. Helena, N. C., is due to oversight of a colonization company, that not only looks after the social welfare of the Italians, but oversees and gives expert advice with regard to planting, cultivating and marketing. The leaders, though not Italian, have been alert to meet the difficulties and to remove the obstacles that meet the newcomer, ignorant both of language, farm practice and methods of marketing produce. They have urged citizenship and provided a church and a school. Under this kindly tutelage the Italians have progressed rapidly. As a rather striking contrast, compare the independent spirit, the desire for ownership, the political and social progress of the Tontitown Italians with the progress along similar lines made by the Italians at Sunnyside, both originally from the same locality in Italy. Sunnyside, originated, as already noted, in the importation of a group of a hundred colonist families from Italy fifteen years ago, to the cotton region of the "Delta." Tontitown, a settlement of seventy families in the hills of Arkansas, was founded by deserters from Sunnyside, and is therefore the younger colony. Albeit, the land is naturally less productive, every farmer is an owner, while at Sunnyside all the immigrants are either "croppers" or renters.

In the South the absence of socializing factors in some districts has tended to make foreign settlements so many unassimilated lumps in the body politic. Wise leaders, either Americans or Americanized Italians, ownership of property, compulsory education, and instruction in the duties of citizenship are all fruitful and powerful influences in the development of foreign rural groups.

A POLISH MARKET IN BUFFALO.

IMMIGRANTS IN CITIES

E. A GOLDENWEISER

EXPERT IN CHARGE OF CITY INQUIRY, UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

Seven cities were included by the Federal Immigration Commission in its study of conditions: New York, which with its hundreds of thousands of tenement houses and with an equal number of pages describing their evils is pre-eminently the congested city; Chicago which in lifting itself out of a swamp left behind many a basement where the poor seek shelter, and many a yard which is dry only in the hottest season; Philadelphia, with its network of narrow alleys with surface drainage, its three-room houses with insufficient water supply and sanitary equipment, in a word, with its "horizontal tenement houses"; Boston, where "Americans in process" succeed each other in the restricted area of the North and the West Ends, and where the one-family dwelling, converted for the use of several households, emphasizes the rapid change of conditions; Cleveland, which awoke to find itself one of the leading cities in America and has not had time to think of the necessity of protecting itself from the slum; Buffalo, with its enormous colony of Poles who have come from farms in Europe and have to learn the solution of the problem of existence in a city; and Milwaukee, the most foreign city of them all, where there is no limit of space, and where in spite of that, economic pressure frequently results in crowding of houses on a lot and of persons in a house.

It was felt that an inquiry covering representative districts in these seven cities could safely be accepted as indicative of what may be found elsewhere in the United States in the poorest environment and most congested quarters. This also would afford a much broader basis for judgment than the study of a single locality. For many reasons the problem of the immigrant in large cities has for almost a generation attracted a great deal of attention. The vast majority of immigrants land in two or three seaports, and large numbers remain there for a time at least. The phenomenal growth of cities and the difficulties accompanying their growth have been intensified by the influx of millions of aliens, who for the most part are unacquainted with urban conditions in their own countries, and are dazed by the complexity of existence in the great American cities. And it must be remembered that writers, like

OUTLOOK FROM CLEVELAND'S MAGYAR DISTRICT.

AN ITALIAN COURT IN PHILADELPHIA.

AN OLD BOAT HOUSE CONVERTED INTO TENEMENTS FOR ITALIANS, BUFFALO.

immigrants, congregate in large cities, and their proximity to the foreign colonies has had its natural result. The social reformer who wishes to remedy preventable evils, as well as the journalist who is anxious to present readable material, has consistently dwelt on the crowding and filth, the poverty and destitution, of which there are such extreme instances in the poorer quarters of every city. Public opinion has been aroused, and legislation enacted which has tended to minimize the evils of over-crowding in many of the older cities, and to inform the younger cities of the dangers of unregulated growth. But the result also has been to create in the popular imagination an impression that the extreme instances cited are the whole story, and that the congested quarters of large cities, full of filth, squalor and depraved humanity, are a menace to the nation's health and morals. Moreover, the responsibility for these conditions is almost universally placed by old residents on the immigrant, and primarily on the recent immigrant, from the South and East of Europe. The Italian, the Hebrew and the Slav, according to popular belief, are poisoning the pure air of our otherwise well-regulated cities; and if it were not for them there would be no congestion, no filth, and no poverty in the great industrial and commercial centers of America.

Once the cities were selected, the problem was to choose the districts. The method of study agreed upon was to canvass a certain number of blocks, representing the most important races in each city and the worst representative conditions. After the blocks had been selected every household living there was visited, and schedules were secured from them. In this way the study was not confined to individual cases showing extremes of poverty or of prosperity, but included every family that resided within the chosen quarter. In most cases the blocks studied were uniformly populated by one race. It was no easy problem to find blocks of that description. The population of the districts in many instances changes so rapidly, that the race which predominates in one of them today may constitute but a small minority tomorrow. City officials and settlement workers were helpful in locating foreign colonies, but in addition we interviewed physicians, district nurses, grocers, letter-carriers, priests and saloonkeepers. It was especially difficult to find solid blocks of Irish and of Germans, and it is only fair to add that the households of these older races often represent the failures which were left behind when their more successful countrymen moved to better neighborhoods. For the sake of comparison, it was felt that some American households ought to be included; but

that was a still harder proposition. What was meant by Americans were households whose heads were native of native fathers. Few such households were found in crowded districts, and never did they form the majority of the population of a block. They were studied whenever found within the specified areas inhabited by working people. In Boston, to secure one hundred family schedules from such native stock, about 700 homes were visited. It is worthy of note that the search for Americans in the poorer quarters of American cities was an arduous task.

To secure the desired information from every family visited was not always an easy undertaking. The recent immigrants, who are more accustomed to a paternalistic government and have not learned the hall-marks of American liberty, were the easiest to interview. Some of the old residents, who have learned to look upon themselves as the sovereign people and consider the government as their agent, were unwilling to answer the questions. I shall never forget my own experience with an Irish woman, twice my size, but as it turned out with a bad memory for faces, who not only refused to answer my timid questions, but took the trouble to escort me down stairs and to threaten violence should I come "nosing around" again. This was at the very outset of the work. A month or two later, fortified by accumulated experience, I returned to the same house and obtained schedules from all the tenants, including my formidable antagonist, who this time was quite accommodating and confided that she knew the difference between a real government agent and a fraud. As proof, she told of the treatment she had recently accorded to a "mutt" who wished to impose upon her. One of the women agents had an exciting time in a "Krainer" household in Cleveland. The owner of the house, a man of consequence in the community, refused point blank to answer any questions, grabbed the agent by the arm and put her out. The agent referred the matter to the United States Marshal who accompanied her on her next visit. The "Krainer" was impressed, helped fill out the schedule, and ended by a proposal of marriage which was taken as a great compliment by the canvasser. Another schedule-worker was one time surrounded by a crowd of irate Italians, who would not let her leave the premises until she had destroyed the records which she had taken great pains to obtain. Incidents of this nature were not unusual, but every agent who worked in this investigation will agree with me, that the proportion of "difficult" families was surprisingly small, when the large number of questions asked and the personal character of some of them are taken into consideration, and that the investigators owe a great deal to the willingness and courtesy of most of the families canvassed.

SURFACE DRAINAGE IN PHILADELPHIA.

The inquiry covered over 10,200 households and over 51,000 individuals. The largest number of households, 2,667,

THE LOCATION OF AN ITALIAN COLONY IN CLEVELAND.

were studied in New York, and the smallest, 687, in Buffalo. It is apparent that this total represents only a small proportion of all families living amid congested conditions in the United States. Yet those studied were representative of many times as many households living under substantially similar conditions in the seven cities chosen. It seems fair, therefore, to say that what the study reveals are the worst living conditions existing on a large scale in any of the large cities of America.

What then are some of the vital facts disclosed by the investigation? First of all, it reaffirms that crowded districts are largely populated by immigrants, and more particularly by recent immigrants. In the eastern cities, New York, Philadelphia, and Boston, the Russian Hebrews and the south Italians are the largest elements in congested foreign colonies. In the cities on the Great Lakes, Buffalo, Cleveland, Chicago and Milwaukee, the various Slavic races, the Poles, Slovaks, and Slovenians, are found in large numbers. About two-thirds of the foreign-born in the selected districts have been in this country less than ten years, and one-fifth has immigrated within the past five years.

A noteworthy fact in this connection is that about one family out of every ten visited, owns its home. Of course, this does not mean that the families have clear titles to the property; but it is indicative of thrift and of the intention on the part of the immigrants to settle permanently in this country. The proportion varies greatly from city to city; in Milwaukee, it is one in five; in Buffalo, one in six; in Chicago and in Cleveland about one in seven; in Philadelphia, one in fourteen; in Boston one in twenty, and in New York, one in two hundred.

In connection with the prevailing opinion about the filth, which is supposed to be the natural element of the immigrant, it is an interesting fact that, while perhaps five-sixths of the blocks studied justified this belief, so far as the appearance of the street went, five-sixths of the interiors of the home were found to be fairly clean, and two out of every five were immaculate. When this is considered in connection with the frequently inadequate water supply, the dark halls, and the large number of families living in close proximity, the responsibility for uncleanliness and insanitary conditions is largely shifted from the immigrants to the landlords, and to the municipal authorities who spare no expense in sprinkling oil to save the wealthy automobilists from the dust, but are very economical when it comes to keeping the poorer streets in a habitable condition. The water supply, the drainage, and the condition of the pavement are also outside the jurisdiction of the tenants; and yet their neglect results in bad conditions for which the resident of the crowded districts is blamed.

Congestion itself is a relative term, and hard to measure statistically without going into more detail than any exten-

sive investigation can afford to do. And yet it does seem like something of an anti-climax to the cry about terrible congestion, when the fact is stated that the average number of persons per room in the 10,000 households studied by the commission is 1.34. The average is higher in Boston, Philadelphia and Cleveland than in New York, and is lowest in Milwaukee, where the figure is 1.15. Some races show averages far higher than those for all the households studied, and yet the highest figure which is found among the Slovenians does not exceed 1.72 persons per room. These figures are significant, because they indicate that the pictures of six or more persons per room, which are frequently given to the public, do not represent general conditions, but are exceptional. It is also interesting that New York shows lower averages than Boston and Philadelphia. This suggests that after all, when a certain density of population is reached, the building of tenement houses tends to increase the amount of floor area per acre and reduce the number of persons per square yard of floor space, and presumably per room. Not that congestion per acre is devoid of evils, such as traffic congestion, lack of breathing space or of playgrounds for the children; but this problem is part of the general problem of the growth of large cities and is not confined to foreign quarters.

Another current belief is that all of the foreigners in poorer sections of cities keep large numbers of boarders or lodgers, and sacrifice comfort and decency to their inordinate desire to save money, in order presumably to return home and live on what they have earned in America. I shall not stop to consider the economic fallacy involved in this reasoning, and in the theory that these savings when sent abroad are a loss to America; I shall only point out that the study of immigrant homes has shown that only about one out of every four keeps boarders or lodgers at all, so that three-fourths of the households consist of what may be called the natural family. It is further noteworthy that crowding in larger apartments is never as great as in smaller apartments, which suggests that the immigrant household is crowded either because, having a large family, the head cannot afford a sufficient number of rooms; or because, having taken an apartment of standardized size, he finds himself unable to pay the rent and support his family without the help of one or two lodgers. There is no evidence of boarders or lodgers being kept as a business nor of a sacrifice of comfort or decency to cupidity, as it is called in the immigrant, or even to thrift, as it is called

THE DEVIL'S POCKET IN PHILADELPHIA.

in the native. Crowding, when it appears, is the result of grim economic necessity, and as a rule it disappears as soon as the pressure relaxes.

In studying foreign colonies in cities, one is constantly reminded of the forces which create them and keep them together. Most immigrants come to join friends or relatives and thus form the nucleus of a colony; the first few families attract more, and in a short time a racial island is created in the city. Once the colony is established there are many reasons for its continued existence and growth.

It is expensive to move; it is sometimes hard to find a position in a new environment or to pay car fare, or even to be deprived of the possibility of coming home for lunch. Furthermore, friendly relations, kinship, language, religious affiliations, dietary laws and preferences, and the greater ease of securing boarders in districts where immigrants of the same race are centered, tend to keep the families where they have once settled.

But when the immigrant becomes accustomed to American conditions, when he has gained a firm economic footing, when his children have gone to American schools, the desire for better surroundings overcomes the economic and racial reasons for remaining in congested districts. The stream of emigration from the foreign colonies in large cities is continuous; some move uptown when they marry, some seek new places to establish their own business; others look for cleaner streets, and still others follow the current for no conscious reason. The older immigrants do not often form colonies in American cities any longer, and the newer arrivals clearly tend to follow the example of their predecessors in congested districts, gradually scattering over the city of residence and often leaving that city altogether.

In conclusion, I wish to say that this study has not touched the general problem of the distribution of immigrants and their concentration in cities. What it has done is to show that the immigrants in cities in a large majority of cases live a clean and decent life, in spite of all the difficulties that are thrown in their way by economic struggle and municipal neglect. The study strongly indicates that racial characteristics are entirely subordinate to environment and opportunity in determining that part of the immigrant's mode of life which is legitimately a matter of public concern; and finally, it shows that foreign colonies in large cities are not stagnant, but are constantly changing their composition, the more successful members leaving for better surroundings, until finally the entire colony is absorbed in the melting pot of the American city. The population of congested quarters constantly changes, but the quarters themselves remain congested and will remain so as long as new immigrants continue to arrive in large numbers. It is vitally important for the city to keep her crowded quarters clean and her tenement houses sanitary; but it is just as important that the public understand that congested quarters of large cities are temporary receptacles of newly arrived immigrants, rather than stagnant pools of filth, and vice, and destitution.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES IMMIGRATION COMMISSION

[Quoted from the Summary Statement Submitted to Congress December 5]

As a result of the investigation the commission is unanimously of the opinion that in framing legislation emphasis should be laid upon the following principles:

1. While the American people, as in the past, welcome the oppressed of other lands, care should be taken that immigration be such both in quality and quantity as not to make too difficult the process of assimilation.

2. Since the existing law and further special legislation recommended in this report deal with the physically and morally unfit, further general legislation concerning the admission of aliens should be based primarily upon economic or business considerations touching the prosperity and economic well-being of our people.

3. The measure of the rational, healthy development of a country is not the extent of its investment of capital, its output of products, or its exports and imports, unless there is a corresponding economic opportunity afforded to the citizen dependent upon employment for his material, mental, and moral development.

4. The development of business may be brought about by means which lower the standard of living of the wage-earners. A slow expansion of industry which would permit the adaptation and assimilation of the incoming labor supply is preferable to a very rapid industrial expansion which results in the immigration of laborers of low standards and efficiency, who imperil the American standard of wages and conditions of employment.

The commission agrees that:

1. To protect the United States more effectively against the immigration of criminal and certain other debarred classes—

(*a*) Aliens convicted of serious crimes within a period of five years after admission should be deported in accordance with the provisions of House bill 20,980, Sixty-first Congress, second session.

(*b*) Under the provisions of section 39 of the immigration act of February 20, 1907, the president should appoint commissioners to make arrangements with such countries as have adequate police records to supply emigrants with copies of such records, and that thereafter immigrants from such countries should be admitted to the United States only upon the production of proper certificates showing an absence of convictions for excludable crimes.

(*c*) So far as practicable the immigration laws should be so amended as to be made applicable to alien seamen.

(*d*) Any alien who becomes a public charge within three years after his arrival in this country should be subject to deportation in the discretion of the secretary of commerce and labor.

2. Sufficient appropriation should be regularly made to enforce vigorously the provisions of the laws previously recommended by the commission and enacted by Congress regarding the importation of women for immoral purposes.

3. As the new statute relative to steerage conditions took effect so recently as January 1, 1909, and as the most modern steerage fully complies with all that is demanded under the law, the commission's only recommendation in this connection is that a statute be immediately enacted providing for the placing of government officials, both men and women, on vessels carrying third-class or steerage passengers for the enforcement of the law and the protection of the immigrant. The system inaugurated by the commission of sending investigators in the steerage in the guise of immigrants should be continued at intervals by the bureau of immigration.

4. To strengthen the certainty of just and humane decisions of doubtful cases at ports of entry it is recommended—

That section 25 of the immigration act of 1907 be amended to provide that boards of special inquiry should be appointed by the secretary of commerce and labor, and that they should be composed of men whose ability and training qualify them for the performance of judicial functions; that the provisions compelling their hearings to be separate and apart from the public should be repeated, and that the office of an additional assistant secretary of commerce and labor to assist in reviewing such appeals be created.

5. To protect the immigrant against exploitation; to discourage sending savings abroad; to encourage permanent residence and naturalization; and to secure better distribution of alien immigrants throughout the country—

(*a*) The states should enact laws strictly regulating immigrant banks.

(*b*) Proper state legislation should be enacted for the regulation of employment agencies.

(c) Since numerous aliens make it their business to keep immigrants from influences that may tend toward their assimilation and naturalization as American citizens, with the purpose of using their funds, of encouraging investment of their savings abroad, and their return to their home land, aliens who attempt to

persuade immigrants not to become American citizens should be made subject to deportation.

(*d*) Since the distribution of the thrifty immigrant to sections of the country where he may secure a permanent residence to the best advantage, and especially where he may invest his savings in farms or engage in agricultural pursuits, is most desirable, the division of information should be so conducted as to co-operate with states desiring immigrant settlers; and information concerning the opportunities for settlement should be brought to the attention of immigrants in industrial centers who have been here for some time and who might be thus induced to invest their savings in this country and become permanent agricultural settlers. The division might also secure and furnish to all laborers alike information showing opportunities for permanent employment in various sections of the country, together with the economic conditions in such places.

6. One of the provisions of section 2 of the act of 1907 reads as follows:

And provided further, That skilled labor may be imported if labor of like kind unemployed cannot be found in this country.

Instances occasionally arise, especially in the establishment of new industries in the United States, where labor of the kind desired, unemployed, cannot be found in this country and it becomes necessary to import such labor. Under the law the secretary of commerce and labor has no authority to determine the questions of the necessity for importing such labor in advance of the importation, and it is recommended that an amendment to the law be adopted by adding to the clause cited above a provision to the effect that the question of the necessity of importing such skilled labor in any particular instance may be determined by the secretary of commerce and labor upon the application of any person interested prior to any action in that direction by such person; such determination by the secretary of commerce and labor to be reached after a full hearing and an investigation into the facts of the case.

7. The general policy adopted by Congress in 1882 of excluding Chinese laborers should be continued.

The question of Japanese and Korean immigration should be permitted to stand without further legislation so long as the present method of restriction proves to be effective.

An understanding should be reached with the British government, whereby East Indian laborers would be effectively prevented from coming to the United States.

8. The investigations of the commission show an oversupply of unskilled labor in basic industries to an extent which indicates an oversupply of unskilled labor in the industries of the country as a whole, and therefore demand legislation which will at the present time restrict the further admission of such unskilled labor.

It is desirable in making the restriction that—

(*a*) A sufficient number be debarred to produce a marked effect upon the present supply of unskilled labor.

(*b*) As far as possible, the aliens excluded should be those who come to this country with no intention to become American citizens or even to maintain a permanent residence here, but merely to save enough, by the adoption, if necessary, of low standards of living, to return permanently to their home country. Such persons are usually men unaccompanied by wives or children.

(*c*) As far as possible the aliens excluded should also be those who, by reason of their personal qualities or habits, would least readily be assimilated or would make the least desirable citizens.

The following methods of restricting immigration have been suggested:

(*a*) The exclusion of those unable to read or write in some language.

(*b*) The limitation of the number of each race arriving each year to a certain percentage of the average of that race arriving during a given period of years.

(*c*) The exclusion of unskilled laborers unaccompanied by wives or families.

(d) The limitation of the number of immigrants arriving annually at any port.

(*e*) The material increase in the amount of money required to be in the possession of the immigrant at the port of arrival.

(*f*) The material increase of the head tax.

(*g*) The levy of the head tax so as to make a marked discrimination in favor of men with families.

All these methods would be effective in one way or another in securing restrictions in a greater or less degree. A majority of the commission favor the reading and writing test as the most feasible single method of restricting the undesirable immigrant.[1]

The commission as a whole recommends restriction, as demanded by economic, moral, and social considerations, furnishes in its report reasons for such restriction, and points out methods by which Congress can attain the desired result if its judgment coincides with that of the commission.

[1] "The educational test proposed is a selective test for which no logical argument can be based on the text."—William S. Bennet in a minority report.

THE COST OF THE CRANBERRY SAUCE

OWEN R. LOVEJOY

PHOTOGRAPHS BY LEWIS W. HINE

In purchasing supplies for his turkey dinners this winter, the heart of Uncle Sam will leap with joy to find that one indispensable has not attached itself to the soaring aeroplane of prevailing prices. He will thank heaven that cranberries are at the old figure, and can be devoured with the relish of a conscience void of offense because he can pay for them. To satisfy the growing appetite of the nation, New Jersey has in recent years come to the relief of Cape Cod, and this year pours more than 600,000 bushels of the fruit upon our markets, according to estimates of the New Jersey State Board of Agriculture.

Nor do there arise the disquieting questions which disturb the vegetarian, nor pictures of pallid factory toilers, for the cranberry is a gift of nature and the farm is the paradise of our national traditions, where the cotter's Saturday night like a benediction ends the week of free and happy labor. Would that the tobacco fields, sugar beet fields, fruit and vegetable truck gardens and canneries might continue to wear this bucolic halo.

Unfortunately the halo dims as we pass from one to another of those industries in which the labor power of children is profitable, and even the farm is now found in some of its activities, in league with mine, store, factory and sweat-shop, in laying heavy burdens on the little child. It is almost vicious to disturb the comfort in which we have proposed to eat this fruit, by suggesting that the cash price demanded by the grocer, *and paid,* may not after all represent full payment, but may still leave unsatisfied a heavy obligation.

The vast stretches of marsh land in central New Jersey, formerly useless and barren, are now for five to seven weeks in the autumn overrun with a veritable army, organized and drilled to clean the region of its harvest. Bending at their toil for a ten- or twelve-hour day, this army crawls slowly across the marsh, stripping with deft fingers from the low tangled vines the ripe balls of delicious bitterness. Last season had one period of thirty-one days uninterrupted labor on most of the bogs in Burlington county, although Sunday labor is very rare in the Cape May region. A few in the army are men and women, but many of the rank and file, bending in a deadening monotony of toil under the omnipotent scepter of the *padrone,* are little boys and girls from fourteen years down to seven, or six, or five, whose hard labor must serve the mutual advantage of the employed parent and the hiring boss, and for whose protection no law exists.

When the Jersey harvest time approaches, the crowded tenement districts of Philadelphia literally disgorge their denizens to the cranberry bogs. Last autumn on six bogs 864 children, ranging in age from four to fourteen years, were found at work. Of this number 603 were ten years of age or under.

The cranberry vine stands but a few

CHILDREN OF THE CRANBERRY PICKERS.
All of these children lost six weeks at the beginning of the school year.

inches high. The pickers must double on their knees, causing extreme weariness and pain. The testimony of school superintendents and principals confirms the judgment of reason, that when these children return two months late for the school year, it is with deadened faculties and jaded nerves.

The bog is sometimes damp, as the crop requires occasional flooding, and ditches hidden in the weeds and vines offer not a dangerous, but a soggy and disagreeable surprise to the worker. Runners through the vines make picking difficult and scratch and tear their hands, while the myriad insects, whose fame in Jersey has long been heralded by poet and prophet, infest the swamp land, settling on the open sores of these toiling children to increase their torture. Many of the workers customarily place a wet handkerchief across the face to protect themselves from the swarms of mosquitoes and flies. The work is at top speed; for cranberries are picked by the peck which stimulates the worker, while fear of the first destroying frost stimulates the employer. Children cannot, as in ordinary agricultural pursuits, work until tired and then rest. They must work continuously. The proprietor of one of the largest bogs in the region denies that little children are compelled to work, and characterizes our description of their labor from 7 in the morning to 6 in the evening, as "wickedly false." He contends that they are "entirely under the direction of loving parents" and that the *padrone* is entirely indifferent as to the hours they work or the quantity they pick. It cannot be denied, however, that great pressure is put upon the people to get the bog cleared of berries before the frost comes, and everyone who can help is expected to do so. It is preposterous to suppose that either the owner or the foremen would permit any large number of idle people to take up space on the bog. When the vigilant *padrone* does not chance to be on guard, the parents themselves urge their children by curses and cuffs to keep in the line, as a score

CONGESTION IN THE OPEN COUNTRY.
Room ten by eleven feet in size occupied by a family of ten persons.

of pickers advance abreast across the field. The threats and curses of the *padrone*, swinging his club above the backs of tiny girls, become too common to arouse interest. Parents do not resent this abuse, for the harder the children work the greater the reward.

Children too young or frail to pick continuously are pressed into service to carry the boxes from picking-line to bushelman. When filled these boxes weigh approximately fifteen pounds. Girls and boys not nearly five years old are seen, sometimes carrying two or three boxes at a time. The box is held by an iron handle, one-quarter of an inch in diameter, which cuts the hands often already scratched upon the vines.

If a square deal were given these ignorant foreigners and their helpless children, the case would be less serious. Unjust exploitation begins the moment they leave Philadelphia. The return fare to a principal center of the industry is eighty cents. The *padrone* says he furnishes tickets to pickers at two dollars each. The name "peck" attached to the measure in which the berries are gathered is evidently used for convenience. One of the large growers, in speaking of the wage unit, ranging from ten cents to twelve and one-half cents a peck, said: "My peck boxes contain from thirteen to fourteen quarts. We expect good measure because the pickers would cheat us every time if we gave them a chance." The manager on another bog said: "The peck boxes on this bog contain from thirteen to fourteen quarts. That's where we get the best of the pickers." Another said: "Our peck boxes contain from two to four quarts in excess of the standard peck. We do this to allow for waste." A number of the boxes measured by investigators showed contents ranging from ten to eleven quarts. The growers contend that this excess is fair, as it allows for grass and other waste gathered in the haste of picking, the fruit being sent to market clean and firmly packed in barrels. This is doubtless the true explana-

"WORKMAN" AGED FIVE YEARS.

tion, but it does not explain why a ten- or twelve- or fourteen-quart measure is called a peck. Our investigators, who frequently stood for long intervals at the side of the bushelman, found that he uniformly required the boxes to be cleaned, and was in almost continual warfare with children who ventured to bring a box containing any grass or weeds.

Isolated from city food markets, the toilers depend upon local supplies furnished usually through a commissary. The prices charged and the service rendered are true to the traditions of the company store.

Despite these injustices of exploitation, the berry field is attractive to the workers; for compared with the chances of unskilled labor in the city, this opportunity to draft the whole family into the wage-working army is alluring. The D. family, employed last summer at one bog, was composed of father, mother and six children. The following table is illuminating:

	Age.	Average per day.
Father	39	20 pecks
Mother	38	17 pecks
Rose	17	15 pecks
Tony	15	13 pecks
Annie	13	10 pecks
Mary	11	5 pecks
Angelo	8	3 pecks
Teresa	7	4 pecks

In the aggregate, the three little children working a nine-hour day, add $10.43 to the family treasury in a week of seven days. For the week the family earns between sixty-five and seventy dollars. In their city home the combined earnings of the father, who is a junk dealer, and three children, who work for wages, aggregate twenty-four dollars a week.

To house this army of pickers during the brief season of employment, the bog owner carefully observes the principle of minimum cost. Shacks and barracks are erected to house one, two, six or twenty-four families, families of five or six persons living in a single room. One large shack, quite recently built, contains twenty-four rooms, each measuring five and one-half by six and one-half feet. A bunk, extending along the wall and about four feet above the floor, occupies half the room. The floor under the bunk is covered with a mattress, used as a bed for the children. In some of these rooms were found last season eight people, four sleeping on the bunk and four on the floor. Around the room hung clothing, food and other supplies. The food attracts swarms of flies and the odor in the house is nauseating. Although windows are built to open, they are almost invariably nailed shut. The sanitary conditions of these pickers' shanties are intolerable, and challenge the rigorous attention of those in our country who are awakening to the waste and extravagance of filth and disease.

A hut standing near, measuring ten by eleven feet and with a five and one-

CARRYING TO THE BUSHELMAN.

half foot ceiling, housed a family of ten father, mother, two boys and six girls. There was no partition between the sleeping quarters and no opportunities for privacy. A barrel was used to store the clothing; a table was constructed of b ards hammered together; a clothesline stretched across the room, weighed down with clothes still wet, added a rank smell. Bread, peppers and bologna hung from other lines in close proximity.

It is an easy answer to all this that campers enjoy such inconveniences. The proprietors argue that since the families occupy the houses for a few weeks only, they are as good as can reasonably be required. It is confessedly a serious problem, and one in which they usually lack the co-operation of the occupants in efforts to provide decent living conditions. Simplicity of structure is justified, but neither the ignorance of the pickers nor the economy of the owners can be permitted to subject any part of our population to such indecent herding as some cranberry bogs and other truck gardens display. To those who camp on mountains or seashore, where the zest of pleasure combines with restful idle hours, a rainy day in the cranberry bog would be unendurable. You see 350 pickers crouched side by side along the field, sweating under the oppressive sun glare that precedes a storm. Not a moment can be lost, for the harvest must be gathered. Suddenly the storm

SHANTY OCCUPIED BY TEN PERSONS.

THE WHITE CHILD'S BURDEN.

breaks and the toilers spring from the ground to rush across the tangled vines —mothers with babes, barefoot boys and girls, young women in thin garments —hastening to huddle under the scant shelter of some pine tree or over the dike to their shanties. Here, crowded six or eight in a room, in garments drenched with rain and steaming with perspiration, they must wait until the storm subsides or night falls.

Cranberry raising in New Jersey is an important industry. The wild land is cheap, but preparing it for the crop costs from $100 to $125 an acre. It requires three or four years to yield the first crop. Ten years ago there were about 8,000 acres of cranberry land in the state, and the yield was 230,009 bushels, an average of twenty-nine bushels to the acre. The acreage this year has not been reported, but the yield is estimated at 200 bushels an acre. That the profits are large is indicated by the estimated earnings of one *padrone* last season. His nominal wages were three dollars a day. An informant, in position to know, said that his profits would approximate $3,260 for the season. This sum was made up from railroad fares, commissary profits and "presents"—a hold-up system to which every family is expected to respond with an average of six dollars at the end of the season.

The pitiful share of the children in

these large rewards need not be pointed out to those familiar with the prevailing characteristics of child labor. Last May, little Joe Arneo, of three years, was found at work in the ripe berry fields of Delaware. Following the procession of the delicious gifts of Nature, he had migrated with his family from harvest to harvest, still bending under the heavy yoke of the long day, until in October we found him again, harnessed to his servitude in the cranberry bogs of New Jersey. It is a lame apology for this that little Joe was better off than he would have been in the stuffy tenement of Philadelphia. Two wrongs do not make a right.

The culture of cranberries appears to be one of those industries in which ideal conditions of living and labor might be introduced—an aid to the solution of our national child labor problem rather than an added phase of that problem.

SOCIAL PRINCIPLES OF THE NEW STATE CONSTITUTIONS

A. J. McKELWAY
Secretary for the Southern States, National Child Labor Committee

The New Mexico constitution would be called progressive, except for the earlier and widely discussed Oklahoma constitution, which, by the way, has been condemned by a good many eastern critics, who did not have time to read it lest it prejudice their judgment.

The constitutional convention was composed of 100 members, seventy-one republicans and twenty-nine democrats. Twenty-four of the republicans were elected on a pledge that they would advocate the initiative and referendum as a constitutional principle. The democrats were committed to the same principle, thus giving an actual majority of the convention. However, the republican caucus had a majority against the initiative and referendum, and by way of compromise the initiative was defeated and a referendum adopted. The referendum can hardly be resorted to except in the case of the most obnoxious laws, for it was required that ten per cent of the voters of the state and ten per cent of the voters of each of three-fourths of the counties must petition for an election for the repeal of a legislative enactment. The progressives claim that other concessions were made them in this caucus, which overbalance the loss of the initiative.

The convention was dominated by five or six men of great ability, some of whom will be the peers of any members of the United States Senate when the new state sends its first representatives to that body. The democratic minority held the whip-hand, however, in the threat that they would appeal to the people to reject the constitution if they should consider it too reactionary. Through the interplay of these opposing forces, an instrument was wrought out which in my judgment will commend itself to the country. But readers of THE SURVEY are chiefly interested in the social principles which the new constitution contains.

CHILD LABOR PENSIONS

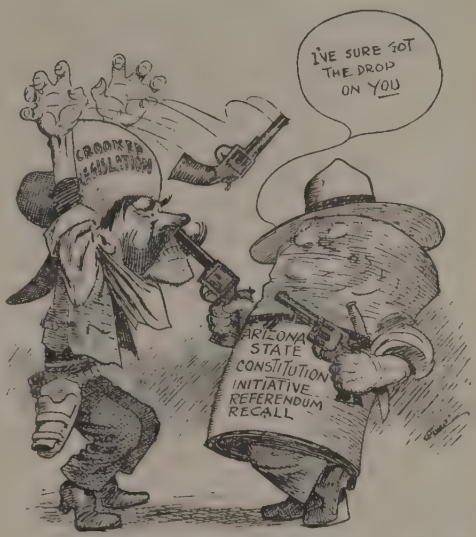
My own chief business with the convention was to effect the adoption of principles necessary to protect working children. I reached Santa Fe ten days before the convention adjourned and found that it had already adopted a provision, in the article on mines and mining, that "no children under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in mines." The attempt was made to strike this provision out on the ground that it was legislation, and that the standard of fourteen set in the constitution for the employment of children in mines was two years too low. The convention, however, decided to retain this. The mining interests, which were largely rep-

resented in the convention, feared that the Legislature would fix the age limit at sixteen, and the friends of child labor reform feared that subsequent Legislatures would be so dominated by the mining interests that they would not go beyond the present territorial statute, which fixes the age limit at twelve. However, a general provision was inserted, which says that "the Legislature shall enact suitable laws for the regulation of the employment of children."

The first section of the article on the judiciary department provides that courts inferior to district courts, and "including juvenile courts", may be established by law in any county or municipality of the state. Another provision will be of interest to the friends of prison reform: "The penitentiary is a reformatory and industrial school, and all persons confined therein shall, so far as consistent with discipline and the public interest, be employed in some beneficial industry; and where a convict has a dependent family, his net earnings shall be paid to said family if necessary for their support." Leasing of convicts is forbidden.

Under the article on education it is provided that "every child of school age and of sufficient physical and mental ability shall be required to attend a public or other school during such period and for such time as may be prescribed by law."

I paid a visit one Sunday afternoon to the penitentiary at Santa Fe. The service was conducted in the chapel, and one of the convicts acted as interpreter to the speaker since nearly every assembly in New Mexico must be bilingual. I was greatly pleased with the discipline of the penitentiary, and the general provisions for the care and comfort of the convicts. The territorial history of New Mexico during recent years is not altogether admirable, as is inevitable when a people is without real self-government, and improvement must come from legislative or executive authority 3,000 miles away. But I heard on all sides praise of the conduct of the educational, charitable, and penal institutions of the new territory.



Culver in Los Angeles *Express.*

"THE PEOPLE'S WEAPONS."

THE SPANISH AMERICANS

I wish it were possible in this brief article to remove some of the prejudices which survive in the East against the Spanish-American people of New Mexico. They form about sixty per cent of the population and have preserved the oldest civilization which has persisted on American soil. San Miguel Church was built before Jamestown was founded, to say nothing of the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers on Plymouth Rock. With their civilization was preserved the purity of their blood, through 400 years of isolation and of warfare with hostile Indians. They are not the mongrel race to be found on the southern border of Texas or across the line in Old Mexico. They do not like to be called Mexicans, and insist that they are New Mexicans or Spanish-Americans. While a good many of the older people do not speak English, the children, through the schools and their contact with other Americans, speak both languages with facility. In the convention I was especially impressed with the ability, and oftentimes with the eloquence, of the Spanish-American delegates, who numbered thirty-two. Twenty-six of these were alumni of St. Michael's College at Santa Fe, which in

the fifty-one years of its existence has sent out thousands of pupils into the territory. In the convention there was an interpreter for the chair and three interpreters on the floor, but only two members of the convention really needed their services. It is a species of philistinism peculiar to our arrogant Saxon race, that we should insist that our children be taught dead languages in school, while we object to the natural acquirement of two tongues by the children of these Spanish-Americans, as though it were a reflection on American institutions. It would be well if we could learn something of the courtesy, tolerance and hospitality of these, our fellow-citizens of old Spanish stock.

THE CONTRAST IN ARIZONA

But if New Mexico represents more than any other state the civilization of the old world, Arizona is of the West, western. No greater contrasts can be imagined than those to be met with in traveling from Santa Fe, "the city of the holy faith," to Phoenix and southern Arizona. You drop down from 7,000 feet above sea, with snow-capped mountains circling the horizon, to an altitude of 1,000 feet, where in the closing days of November roses and chrysanthemums were in full bloom. In Santa Fe the burro is still the chosen beast of burden. Phoenix boasts of more automobiles in proportion to its population than any other city in the country, and I have not seen so many bicycles since the early craze of the nineties. The compelling reason for both is the fact that Phoenix is a city of magnificent distances. The Capitol is a mile and a half from the City Hall, and the lots grow larger as one leaves the center of the city. The plain is well watered by irrigation, though it is not without its surrounding mountains, bare of foliage but glistening with rare colors in the sunlight.

As the New Mexico convention was typically republican, the Arizona convention was typically democratic. Of the fifty-two members, forty-one were democrats and eleven republicans. The able leadership and compact discipline of the New Mexico convention were lacking, but the average of native ability was higher. Only one caucus was held, for the election of officers, and there have been a hundred tie votes in the convention. Every report of a committee was threshed out in committee of the whole, each man speaking his own mind. Arizona has a population of 30,000 Mexicans, but they seem to be an inferior class to the New Mexicans, and the 4,000 voters among them had no representative in the convention. One county sent to the convention a machinist, a plumber, a locomotive engineer, two miners, a butcher, three lawyers—one of them the only corporation lawyer in the body—and a railroad switchman who successfully contested the place against one of the greatest mining magnates of Arizona and Old Mexico. But the chairman of the committee on revision was a Harvard graduate, formerly one of the editors of the *World's Work*, and the completed Arizona constitution is said to be the shortest in any state, and it reads well. The initiative, referendum and recall are writ large, the recall extending to all elective officers, including the judges. Ten per cent of the qualified electors have the right to propose any legislative measure, and fifteen per cent any amendment to the constitution, while five per cent may propose the repeal of any legislative act. and twenty-five per cent may order that the recall of an official be submitted to the people.

I found that the convention had tentatively agreed upon a measure fixing an age limit of fifteen for children employed in mines and dangerous occupations, and that it was bent upon fixing some age limit for the guidance of future Legislatures. I was able to persuade the members to adopt the following provision:

> No child under the age of fourteen years shall be employed in any gainful occupation at any time during the hours in which the public schools of the district in which the child resides are in session; nor shall any child under sixteen years of age be employed underground in mines, or in any occupation injurious to health or morals or hazardous to life or limb; or in any occupation at night, or for more than eight hours in any one day.

The fellow servant doctrine is abrogated. An employer's liability and workmen's compensation act is made mandatory upon the Legislature.

The distinction between juvenile and adult delinquency is made clear by the provision: "It shall be unlawful to confine any minor under the age of eighteen years, accused or convicted of crime, in the same section of any jail or prison in which adult prisoners are confined. Suitable quarters shall be prepared for the confinement of such minors." In another section the Legislature is required to establish and support reformatory institutions.

It is believed that both constitutions will be ratified by the people of the two territories, and as New Mexico will undoubtedly send two republican senators, and Arizona two democratic, thus continuing the present political status, the opinion is here given for what it may be worth, that Congress will conclude that each state is entitled to the kind of constitution it evidently wants.

INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF THE MONTH

GRAHAM TAYLOR

CHICAGO STRIKE ENDING

As the garment workers' strike at Chicago is at least approaching an end, a review of the course it has run may connect the details hitherto reported in our Common Welfare paragraphs.

In its sudden rise, rapid spread, and formidable proportions, it resembled a peasant uprising more than an organized strike. All but a few hundreds of the 30,000 or more who "went out" from all branches of the trade were unorganized when they quit working. The highest paid men, the cutters, walked out first, over a difference with their employers—Hart, Schaffner and Marx—concerning a fraction of a cent in wages. And then, without having a strike "called" or organized, without leadership or concerted action, one crew after another, in widely scattered shops, under different managements, threw down their work at the news that the cutters had struck. "Now is our chance" was the only argument, to which whole shops full of men and of girls, speaking six different languages and having no bond but their common toil, yielded by common consent.

Coercion is charged with responsibility for the strike. But the Garment Workers' Union was too small when the strike began to account for so much of a mass movement all at once. There were more thousands in the mass than there were hundreds in the union. Loyalty to the union cannot account for the strike, because the present local leader has never commanded even the confidence of its members or the public. Moreover, a very large proportion of the strikers consists of recently arrived immigrants, who have not been in America long enough to understand unionism, much less to be loyal to the local union which they had not joined before they struck. They were moved instinctively to stand together as shopmates or as fellow-countrymen, who were earning their living and supporting their families by the same trade.

While the grievances, considered apart, were minor and varied, they were sufficient, when taken together in each shop, to bind shopmates together. The greatest grievance common to all shops, which united most of their workers throughout the city, was the fact that the employers neither offered nor permitted any grievances to be presented by committees of employes. Each one having a complaint was obliged to suffer in silence or to risk disfavor, if not discharge, in making it known to the overseer, singly and unsupported. This was the more difficult for the employes to understand or submit to, because they were so closely related to each other in the organization of the shop, in the work they produced together, and in their relations to one another in each room.

Had this grievance been rectified at the start, or had it not been excluded from

the other grievances which Hart, Schaffner and Marx agreed with the garment workers' international president to submit to arbitration, the strike might have ended soon after it began with far more satisfaction and less loss to all concerned, than on any other condition. When this firm, having forty-eight shops and 10,000 employes, finally yielded this point, and included "whatever grievances, if any," in their agreement to arbitrate, the Chicago Federation of Labor and the Woman's Trade Union League, which had become parties to the controversy, promptly accepted it. The joint strike committee, representing both these organizations and the garment workers, at once set out to gain the strikers' acceptance of this agreement as the basis for their immediate return to work.

Their public-spirited effort, led by Pres. John Fitzpatrick of the Chicago Federation of Labor and Margaret Dreier Robins, president of the Woman's Trade Union League, to pave the way for a just peace by explaining these accepted terms to the strikers, was nobly and courageously undertaken. With copies of the agreement printed in Italian, Bohemian, Yiddish, Polish, Lithuanian and English, they started upon their rounds of over forty halls scattered over the city at which the strikers held their meetings. The odds against the committee lay in the fact that the wholesale clothiers' organization and that of the tailors to the trade, neither of which included Hart, Schaffner and Marx, and which considered themselves as competitors to this firm, refused to accept or even to consider the agreement which the latter had signed. Persisting in the fiction that there were no grievances for them to arbitrate, these organizations of employers declined to join Hart, Schaffner and Marx in conference with the City Council's committee to mediate the settlement of the strike. This caused their employes to object to accepting an agreement which applied to one firm and not to the others.

The leader of the local garment workers' union, who never worked with the others for peace, secretly urged this and other objections to the agreement before the visits of the strike committee to the strikers in their halls. Even this might have been overcome had it not encountered most unexpectedly another more formidable obstacle to united action. Polish men strikers confronted the strike committee at their own and other halls with the cry, "We have sworn by the crucifix to accept nothing but the closed shop." Then it appeared that an excommunicated priest of an independent Polish congregation had been stirring up the fanaticism of these men and their women to resist at any cost the arbitration agreement. Immediate violence, ending in the defeat of the agreement, seemed certain, if the committee continued its pacifying effort, which was therefore abruptly broken off.

With the failure to accept arbitration some strikers began to falter. A few employes returned to their work under individual agreements, assigning as a reason the refusal of the other strikers to arbitrate in accordance with the agreement of the firm. The good-fellowship, which up to this time had remained almost unbroken, began then to be marred by a fierce fighting spirit. Some of the women appeared to change their firm but kindly attitude to that of "an animal at bay, only fighting to protect its young," as one of their friends said who noted the transformation.

The Christmas spirit was seized by the Woman's Trade Union League to counteract all this. Through the "commissary stations," which it had united with the other interests in maintaining, Christmas dinners were sent by the hundreds to hungry homes. To light up the gloom of destitution and despair with the cheer of good-will, Christmas celebrations were held at some of the strike centers. At Hod Carriers' Hall, Pilsen Park and other rendezvous of the different nationalities, Christmas trees were lighted and goodies and gifts distributed to the young people of the older strikers. Cheery talks heartened the dispirited and turned the courageous from destructive to constructive purpose.

The peace promised to "men of goodwill" belongs to a woman this Christmas in Chicago. For if there ever was a peacemaker to claim the blessing it is Margaret Dreier Robins, after her unceasing and heroic effort during three

months of strife, under the fierce stress and strain of which she has met every demand and improved every opportunity for "peace with honor," and to mitigate the horror of cruel industrial war.

Public and press alike protest against ending the struggle by the mere exhaustion of one party under the endurance of the other, or ending it without some permanent adjustment between employers and employes. This is demanded to prevent the recurrence of such disturbances of the city's peace and its citizens' business interests. But what should appeal to the proprietors in the trade is the fact that with the present peaceful and co-operative pursuit of the industry at Philadelphia and New York, the principal competitors of the Chicago manufacturers, the garment trade of the West cannot afford the disadvantage of divided forces and interrupted work.

Some assurance of a more satisfactory settlement is given by Hart, Schaffner and Marx, who conclude their final statement to the mayor and the City Council's committee in this conciliatory spirit:

> Our workers can come back to us in full confidence that we shall be ready to meet them and deal with them liberally in all matters of our mutual interest and welfare, concerning which they and we are better informed than anybody else.
>
> We feel, and have always felt, that the interests of our employes, in wages, in sanitary conditions of labor, in all that affects their well-being, are matters which vitally concern us as business men and as fellow men.

Meanwhile the joint strike committee reports quick recovery from whatever slump was threatened by the failure to ratify the arbitration agreement. This seems to be verified by the fact that the strike benefits already assure fuel and food sufficient for another month and by the wonderfully well sustained attendance and enthusiasm at most of the halls. Another big parade of strikers demonstrates the multitude and loyalty of their rank and file.

ENGINEERS' STRIKE AVERTED

The value of having some recognized legal means of settling industrial differences is demonstrated every time the Erdman act of Congress is even held in reserve. Conciliation is facilitated by the fact that its provision for arbitration may be appealed to as a last resort. For in that event both parties at issue know that there is at command a rational means of settling their differences, "ready-made," easily accessible, promptly available, which gives promise of capable and just arbitrament.

Such again proves to be the case in the threatened strike of 32,780 locomotive engineers, 97.52 per cent of whom voted to strike on a referendum ballot. For weeks the managers' committee and Pres. Warren S. Stone, with other officers representing the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, had been in a deadlock. Then the mediation of United States Commissioner of Labor Neill was invoked, with a view of falling back upon arbitration in accordance with the Erdman act if this conciliation failed. When he arrived in Chicago both parties had refused to make further concessions and were about to break off negotiations for a second time. They differed as widely on the increase of wages as on the fifteen per cent demanded by the engineers and the nine and a half per cent conceded by the managers. After conferences with each side Commissioner Neill submitted a proposition to both, with the assurance that if it failed to secure their agreement further negotiations would be futile. By gaining some minor concessions from both, he was able to secure the agreement of each to an advance of wages of 10.33 per cent. This increase ranges from 8.5 to 14.5 per cent, according to different schedules of work. It adds about $4,000,000 to the payroll of the railroads, and will be the basis of a working agreement continuing several years.

But the magnitude of the loss saved by averting the threatened interruption of business may be imagined in view of the fact that sixty-one western railroads were involved and fifty-three per cent of the entire railroad mileage of the United States.

The differences between the managers and the Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen and the Order of Railway Conductors have been settled by a ten per cent

McCutcheon in Chicago Tribune.
CHANGING THE WREATH.

wage increase for 75,000 conductors and trainmen on fifty-one western roads—a total of five million dollars. This marks the culmination of the general wage movement begun by railway employes more than a year ago.

CHRISTMAS CONTRAST IN CIVICS

Chicago presented a Christmas Day contrast which may well make a grim impression on every man in public office and every citizen responsible for public opinion everywhere.

In his modest home lay the body of Fire Marshall James Horan, awaiting the highest tribute which a great city can give a man who had served it bravely for thirty years and had died in protecting it from flames.

In the county jail a former police inspector spent his first day behind bars on the way to state prison, sentenced for from one to five years by the decisions of three state courts for accepting bribes from disorderly resorts. Two years ago they were held in almost equal popular esteem and both were considered for appointment as general superintendent of police. There is little doubt that the former police inspector would rather lie in the honored grave of the dead fireman than live in disgrace. Although not considered the only guilty officer, or the guiltiest of his rank, the discipline of the force imperatively demanded the conviction of every guilty man.

The public cannot escape complicity in the death of the one or in the dishonor of the other. James Horan, from the time he became fire marshall until the very week he lost his life, besought both City Council and packing house proprietors to establish a high pressure water system at the center of town and in the stock yards district, and it was the lack of an adequate water supply that gave uncontrollable headway to the packing-house fire and cost the lives of twenty-four firemen. Now, all too late, the City Council is heeding the voice of the dead in planning what it denied the living, and the packers and other citizens are contributing a quarter of a million dollars to the families of the men whom they cannot call back from the grave to live for their loved ones, or to protect the property and lives of fellow citizens.

So, too, the public opinion which refuses either to regulate the social vice, as might be done, or to suppress it, as might be attempted, thereby becomes responsible for the dishonor of police officers and their failure to protect the public. For the discretion which this public opinion thus forces upon the police is impossible as a public policy and well-night irresistible as a personal temptation.

Bradley in Chicago News.
THE SENTINEL.

THE COMMON WELFARE

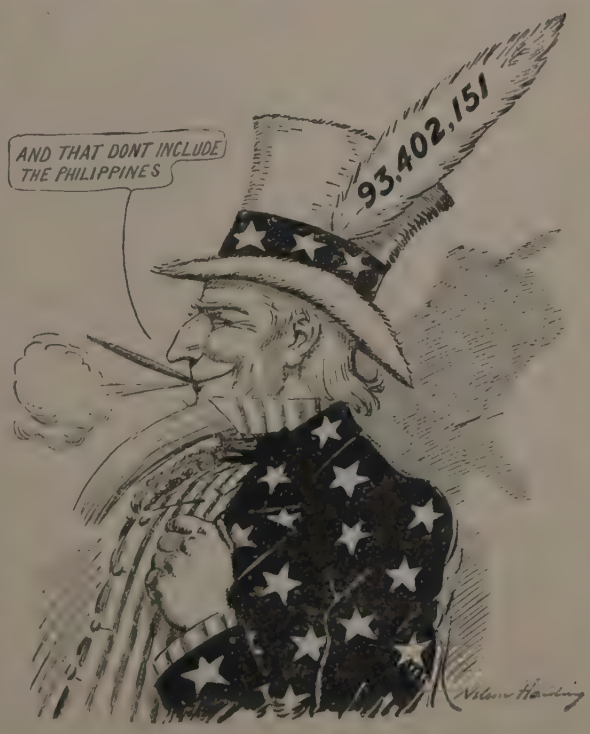
SIX-DAY WORK AND PENSIONS ASKED BY POSTAL EMPLOYES

The December issue of the *Postal Record* reports progress in the effort of the postal clerks throughout the service to get one day's rest in seven. The defeat in the last session of Congress of an amendment to this effect in the post office appropriation bill served to stimulate the agitation of the postmen's rest day committee. With the assistance of the ministry, and especially of the Lord's Day Alliance, the committee has given the movement such publicity throughout the country that there is hope of passing a "compensative rest time bill" at the present session of Congress.

The postmasters of Colorado Springs and Detroit have been closing their offices experimentally on Sunday mornings, since the law only requires opening in case of public demand. In Denver only five out of 25,000 people circularized protested against Sunday closing and in Colorado springs no protests are reported.

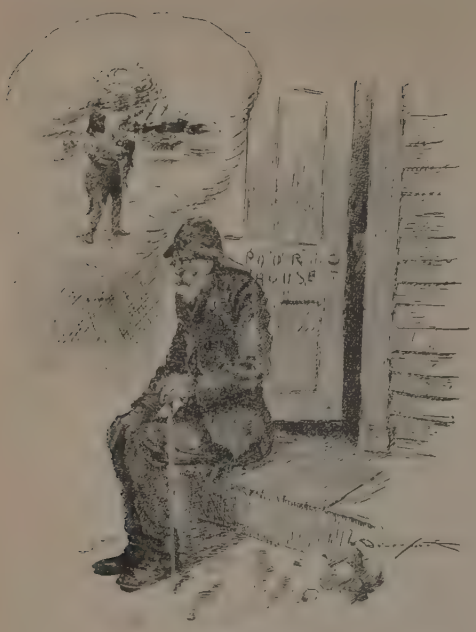
The postal employes have succeeded also in bringing up the Goulden Retirement Bill (H. R. 22, 776). Two postal retirement bills were introduced in the last Congress. That of Representative Gillette was a compulsory savings plan, with no contribution from the government except running expenses, and a sum sufficient to cover pensions for the first few years after the law went into effect. This cheapness was the principal argument for the Gillette bill which was vigorously opposed by the postmen. They argued that their salaries could not bear compulsory deductions, since the average annual salary in the department was only $758; and that those who could afford to save could obtain through ordinary business channels a rate of interest much higher than the three and one-half per cent offered by the government.

The alternative bill, introduced by Mr. Goulden, which has recently been referred to the committee on civil service reform, is enthusiastically supported by those who are to be its beneficiaries. It is a straight pension scheme making retirement at sixty years possible, at seventy compulsory, and providing a scale of pensions of from forty to seventy-five per cent of the average salary for the five years preceding retirement. This rate is based upon years of service, the minimum term that establishes eligibility being twenty years. Retirement on account of disability through



Harding in Brooklyn Eagle.

HE STUCK A FEATHER IN HAS HAT AND CALLED IT POPULATION.



Davenport in New York Globe.

THE ONLY DOOR OPEN TO HIM.

accident or illness is paid relatively higher, the minimum term of service required being five years, at which thirty per cent salary is paid during incapacity; seventy-five per cent is paid after twenty-six years or more of service.

The principal, and practically the only, objection made to the Goulden bill is its expense, which its opponents claim will tend to prevent increases in salaries. To this the postmen reply that the compulsory savings plan or any contributory scheme would have the same effect of lowering salaries, and that, furthermore, in the army, navy and judiciary, straight pensions have not had this effect. On the contrary, they point to the fact that these departments have seen substantial increases in salaries during the same period that salaries in the pensionless post office department are averaging lower than in 1854.

THE MONEY SPENT TO FIGHT TUBERCULOSIS

The annual survey of its field issued by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis shows that in 1910 nearly $15,000,000 was spent as against eight million in 1909. The largest item, $11,376,500 for treatment in sanatoriums and hospitals, is almost double that of the year before. Anti-tuberculosis associations spent $760,500, tuberculosis dispensaries $889,000, and special state and municipal expenses total $1,750,000.

The most significant point in the figures is held to be the increase in the proportion to the whole of the public money spent. It rose from 53.5 per cent last year to 62.6 per cent. The total of public moneys, $9,267,900, is almost double the amount for 1909. The ratio of public to private disbursements in the ten states making the largest expenditures is interesting:

STATE	PUBLIC	PRIVATE	TOTAL
New York.....	$3,039,000	$1,206,000	$4,245,000
Pennsylvania ..	1,431,000	673,000	2,104,000
Massachusetts ..	1,118,000	400,000	1,518,000
Colorado	105,000	731,000	836,000
Ohio	573,500	76,000	649,500
Connecticut ...	338,500	167,500	506,000
New Mexico....	250,000	251,000	501,000
Illinois	245,000	208,000	453,000
California	88,000	316,000	404,000
New Jersey....	255,000	130,700	385,700

New York again leads in both columns. Plans now under way will make changes next year as, for instance, in Illinois, where the new tax for tuberculosis work will greatly increase public disbursements hereafter.[1]

The most rapid gain of any kind is in New York state, where from November 15 to December 15 seven counties took favorable action on providing institutions—an average of two county hospitals every week for that month. This was brought about by the tuberculosis committee of the State Charities Aid Association, whose work was reviewed in THE SURVEY for December 17. The combined appropriations for the seven hospitals are over $200,000. When the association began its work three years ago only three counties out of the fifty-seven in the state made any institutional provision for consumptives. Today there are twenty-two county hospitals and several other counties with small populations are arranging for boarding their consumptives in the institutions of neighboring counties.

[1]See THE SURVEY for October 29, 1910, p. 155.

These institutions have cost to date over one and one-half million dollars. At least five more county hospitals, and increase of other provisions for consumptives are expected at the January meetings of the county boards of supervisors, and the outlook seems bright for realizing the association's terse program, "No uncared for tuberculosis in 1915."

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY BY OREGON REFERENDUM

The citizens of Oregon were given the choice under their referendum law of two liability measures, one supported by the Manufacturers' Association, the other by organized labor. The manufacturers' bill, providing for the appointment of a commission to investigate industrial accidents, which was not required to report its results until two weeks before the end of this year's legislative session, would have put off legislation for another two years.

The labor bill, which became law by a larger majority than any other measure put to the referendum, provides that all owners and others employing men in works of "construction, alteration, removal, or painting of any . . . . structure, or in the erection or operation of any machinery, or in the manufacture, transmission and use of electricity, or in the manufacture or use of any dangerous appliance or substance" shall see that all materials are carefully tested to detect defects, and all scaffolding or like temporary structure is constructed to bear four times the maximum weight to be sustained, and, if twenty feet or more from the ground, is secured from swaying and provided with a guard rail; that all dangerous machinery, shafts, or other openings are protected or enclosed; that complete insulation is provided where electricity is used and all except hand machinery is provided with a system of signals, so that the entire power can be shut off immediately in case of accident; and finally that every other safeguard possible, besides those specifically mentioned, is used in all occupations.

The bill provides further that a fine shall be imposed for failure to fulfill these provisions, and that in case the owner or his agent fails thus to protect his machinery, any person sustaining an injury is entitled to recover damages, without the possibility of recourse on the employers' part to the defences of the worker's assumption of risk or his own or a fellow servant's negligence.

Canfield in Pittsburgh Sun.

HIS START IN LIFE.

The *Telegraph and Telephone Age* charges that in securing legislation to keep boys out of the night messenger service, the National Child Labor Committee is "destroying the earning power of the embryo citizen."

The Oregon law does not go as far in the direction of compensation as the New York law, but it is in advance of that or any other state law in laying down and enforcing by fine a standard of accident prevention.

WOMEN ORGANIZE STRIKE COUNCIL

With the object of separating its strike activities from its regular work of organization and education, the Woman's Trade Union League of New York has recently incorporated the Strike Council of New York, which is to be financed by separate funds, but directed by Mary E. Dreier, Carola Woerishoffer, and

Bill in Baltimore Sun.

BACK TO THE LAND.

Johns Hopkins University has just succeeded in raising the funds for moving its buildings from the city to the country.

Helen Marot, all officers of the league. The objects of the council are to anticipate and prevent strikes of women workers in industries where they are threatened, by building up such strong organizations of women that their demands will be respected without recourse to a strike; to co-operate with trade unions in cases where strikes are unavoidable—either because amicable methods of adjusting difficulties have failed or because a strike would facilitate the process of trade union organization — in bringing such strikes to a successful issue; and finally, to pay benefits to strikers or wages to those whose work is interrupted by trade union activities.

The council held its first meeting in December and began its work by donating $1,000 to the striking garment workers of Chicago.

EXPRESSMEN REACH FINAL SETTLEMENT

Final adjustment of the difficulties[1] between the four great express companies and their drivers, helpers, and platform men in New York, which was made early in December, grants the eleven-hour day and a rate of pay substantially that demanded by the men—fifty dollars a month as a minimum for helpers, and an increase of about five dollars a month for all other classes of workers up to those receiving seventy-five dollars or over a month, who in all cases do not receive a raise. For overtime work helpers receive from seventeen to twenty cents an hour, according to an agreement made with individual companies; drivers and platform men from twenty-five to twenty-seven cents. Five holidays with pay are promised and promotion is to be made according to seniority.

[1] THE SURVEY November 12.

THE FRIENDLY VISIT OF A CHRISTMAS TREE

In December, the members of a department of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union decided that they would like to give a Christmas tree to some Boston family instead of gifts to each other. They offered it to one of the districts of the Associated Charities. A deserted wife with three children under twelve was chosen, and a friendly visitor talked over arrangements with the mother. The day after Christmas being decided upon, the tree was delivered Christmas Eve that the children might have all the joy of anticipation.

From early morning the mother's preparations were under way; the floors were scrubbed, curtains and bedspreads washed, and the children dressed in their best. She was asked by the visitor to entertain another family of five children and their mother and responded cordially to the suggestion. An hour before the time set for the tree, the visitor arrived laden with the gifts prepared with the advice and suggestion of the children's mother. All delightedly shared in the trimming of the tree. A friend loaned a music box which added much festiveness. The children recited carols learned at school and before the candles were burned to their sockets the gifts were distributed.

The oldest boy visitor acted as Santa Claus assisted by the eldest girl hostess. The joy over one another's pleasure was a sight not soon to be forgotten. One little girl, receiving a doll, exclaimed,

"He looks just like my baby brother that died. I shall name him Johnnie!" The visitor was herself much surprised with the gift of a green pincushion, the mother telling her she had "made every stitch of it" herself.

Eight children and two mothers filled the small room to overflowing but no one minded, and the hospitable soul of the green pin cushion maker found great satisfaction in providing coffee and cookies, though she had to borrow cups from the neighbors. At the end of the afternoon the visitor was thoroughly convinced that only in a home can Christmas truly be celebrated.

RESPONSIBILITY PUT UP TO DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH

By unanimous action at its last meeting, the American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis urged the New York Department of Health to establish compulsory reporting of venereal diseases as it does of tuberculosis, smallpox and other infectious diseases. Discussion at the meeting crystallized in the opinion that compulsory reporting is an absolutely necessary first step in any program for reducing the social evil and its accompanying diseases. Until the extent of venereal diseases is known, all efforts at improvement will be held back.

Dr. Stephen Smith, representing the State Charities Aid Association, showed that the department has full power to do this. It can make and enforce laws without interference by the courts, he held. When the bill establishing the department was passed, the sweeping powers given to it were not clearly recognized, but the law has been upheld in the courts. The department can require compulsory registration at once if it will. A number of speakers agreed to this and pointed out that all that is needed is to create the necessary support by physicians and by public opinion. This may not be accomplished in a day for, as Dr. Keyes showed, the medical profession as a whole is not friendly; when it was proposed fifteen years ago to make tuberculosis reportable, one physician was so angered that he left a meeting of the Academy of Medicine in disgust.

Harding in Brooklyn Eagle.
THERE THEY GO!

Action on this question followed a general discussion of the social evil and Clause 79 of the Page bill, which included a scholarly review of European regulation and its failure to reduce disease by Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman of Columbia, who made six suggestions for checking the evil:

Raise the general standard of living and thus diminish the necessity for going into prostitution as a means of livelihood.

Repress the white slave traffic.

Regulate and improve dance halls and saloons which often convert a first offender into a permanent prostitute.

Develop character through special education along these lines and thus tend to affect demand as well as supply.

Require a certificate of good health as a preliminary to issuing a marriage license. This is not illusory and is being done more and more.

Organization and continuity of effort are essential. The Committee of Fifteen did some good, but went out of existence within a few months. The Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis is doing an admirable work, but there is need for a permanent organization which will do still more. Such an organization should not only study the question from the bottom up—from the economic, social, medical and ethical points of view; but should draft laws for submission to the Legislature; should see to it that the proper authorities effectively administer the law when enacted; and should educate public opinion until it recognizes the hideousness of one of the greatest evils of our time.

THE ST. LOUIS MEETINGS

HENRY RAYMOND MUSSEY
Columbia University

Those respectable persons who think the world good enough as it is may well be pardoned if they object to students of the social sciences as shakers of the pillars of social order. If such a person had wandered into the Planters or the Southern Hotel in St. Louis during the last week in December, he would soon have wandered out in disgust, for he would have found lobbies, dining rooms, and parlors filled with men and women discussing methods of social improvement and means of interesting students in such questions. Perhaps the most striking features of the meetings of the six associations that gathered in St. Louis were, first, the practical social interest of the questions they considered, and second, the scientific, straightforward spirit in which those questions were approached.

American students today are primarily interested in the solution of definite practical problems, rather than in the clever solving of theoretical puzzles. Vast questions of industrial and political reorganization insistently press for solution, and settle themselves in some fashion whether we will or not. Live men are almost irresistibly drawn to study these questions, and pure theory suffers in consequence. The result may be a bit unfortunate scientifically; practically it gives the humanitarian and the reformer reason for unmixed rejoicing. The cause of sane and rapid progress is much advanced thereby.

As evidence of these statements let the reader note a few of the subjects taken up at St. Louis. While the economists were studying the effects of immigration and various kinds of taxation, the relative advantages of railroads and canals, not only to the shipper, but to the community in general, the development of an accounting system that shall make possible the determination of a fair price, and the possibilities of socialism; the political scientists were discussing direct primaries, progressive political movements in Europe and the reform of judicial procedure; the sociologists were considering the influence and possibilities of the church and other organizations in city and country; the statisticians were presenting the facts of agricultural development as drawn from the last census; the students of labor legislation were examining the results of phosphorus and lead poisoning, the frequency of its occurrence and the methods of preventing it; the home economists were studying in the broadest possible way the baking of bread and the cooking of meat, the decoration of the house, the judgment of textiles, the questions of domestic service and the training of children. Theory there was in plenty; for after all no one can think about facts without forming some sort of a theory, but it was theory arising out of interest in real and vital questions.

The meetings of all the associations were characterized by a certain unity of viewpoint and method, no less striking than their oneness of aim. All of them kept the whole field of social life more or less clearly in view. No program could illustrate this more clearly than that of the Sociological Society. The address of the president, Professor Giddings, was a thoughtful consideration of the part played by war in the history of civilization. At present, he pointed out, war constitutes a fearful menace to social progress, and he indicated the conditions that must be fulfilled if it is to be avoided. From the broad sweep of such ideas to the detail of what the church can do for the rural community seems no small step. Yet in studying both questions alike, the point of view embraced the whole on-moving social process. Much the same thing might be said of the other programs. If they limited themselves rather more narrowly to economic or political considerations, it was generally not from lack of recog-

nition of the importance of those large biological and purely social influences on which the sociologists rightly lay stress.

Within the broad field of social betterment, the Association for Labor Legislation has taken for its particular task the improvement of living and working conditions by law. It has wisely devoted itself to two problems: industrial hygiene and workingmen's compensation. Rarely has an organization come into the field when the time was more fully ripe, and rarely has one been able to point to definite results more quickly realized. While the association is in a sense a propagandist organization as none of the others is, yet its methods of work are identical with those adopted by the other bodies—the patient collection and study of facts relating to the problem under consideration, the examination of all known methods for dealing with it, the working out of a practicable policy of action. It is only by going a little further than the other organizations do in actually urging such action, that this association oversteps the narrow line that now separates the student from the social reformer. The report of progress in the fields of industrial hygiene and workingmen's compensation made at this meeting was an inspiring one, and gave promise of large results to be attained in the immediate future. Members of the association were urged to write to their congressmen at once in support of the Esch bill to prevent the use of white phosphorus in match manufacture, the secretary pointing out that all objections to the bill on the ground of its favoring the so-called match trust had been entirely overcome.

A large part of the changes that economic and sociological study indicates as desirable are to be attained only by political action. The political scientists are engaged in a comparative study of the best methods of such action. Consequently the meetings of the political Science Association increase from year to year in interest and importance. At St. Louis they went into recent constitutional developments in Europe, the working of direct primary laws in various states under various conditions at various periods of time, the advantages of different methods of judicial procedure. Such study, based on the facts, means rapid advance in political development, which is one of the necessary conditions of healthy social progress in these days of democratic government. It was interesting to see how the work of the political scientists fitted into that of the other students at this gathering.

The Statistical Association has for its task the improvement of a tool that comes to be used more and more by workers in all scientific fields. Vice-president Hoffman's annual address on life insurance progress was an excellent illustration of the possibilities of the use of this tool, as was Professor Fisher's masterly presentation of the quantity theory of money before the economic association. The statistical method is one of the most important in the marshaling of the facts that are essential to the establishment of sound conclusions as a basic for social action.

The Home Economics Association, latest comer in this family of scientific organizations, had its origin perhaps even more clearly than any of the others in the necessity of scientific treatment of practical problems. The solution of these home problems has hitherto been by rule of thumb methods handed down from generation to generation. But since the industrial revolution the problems have been changing before our eyes, and methods must change correspondingly. Hence, the home economists have been calling in all the resources of natural science, and latterly of social science also. One of the most interesting features of the St. Louis meeting was the sight of students of the practical questions of home management, met in conference, calling in the economist and the sociologist for suggestion as to the help they might derive from those sciences. The benefit will not be confined to the home economists; they will give no less than they get. Merely in bringing to these meetings a large number of women they performed a distinct service at St. Louis, and it is much to be hoped that they will

continue to meet with the other organizations.

As to the meetings of the Economic Association, which may in some sense fairly claim to be the parent organization of the others, the one thing most evident was the disappearance of the doctrinaire and the dominant position of the student of actual life. American economists may not know a great deal about the economic life of our time, but they are anxious to learn, and they are untiring in their effort to master the essential facts. They realize the importance to social progress of a rightly-organized economic life, and they are trying to understand the working of the existing mechanism in its influence on all classes of the people. From the beginning of President James's address on the economic importance of education, down to the end of the discussion on socialism at the last session, this point of view was constantly apparent. Economists in this country have ceased to quarrel about names; they have ceased to be interested in *a priori* theories that do not spring out of the problems of the present and do not fit with the facts of today, and they are increasingly giving their thought to the intensive study of one or another part of the economic organism with a view to its more perfect functioning. At this meeting they studied money, Ricardo (rest his bones, as most of those felt who attended this session), accounting, canals and railways, immigration, industrial disease and workingmen's compensation, taxation and socialism. They are reproached, on the one hand, with being minions of capital; on the other, with being dangerous radicals indifferent to the importance of the established order. The St. Louis meeting showed them once more for what they are, a body of men earnestly intent on better social relations, and working with sober scientific care to bring them about. If they are not all on the firing line in the battle between vested wrongs and militant rights, most of them are at work in the ordnance factories and powder mills, where the arms are being forged and the ammunition turned out. Meetings like this one serve to emphasize the unity of purpose among all the students of the social sciences; they serve to inspirit them in their march toward a better social life, based on a more thorough knowledge of the working of the social machine.

The local committee in St. Louis was too hospitable to waste the time of its visitors in those social functions where the visitors meet a large number of local celebrities whom they do not care to meet and who do not care to meet them. The holding of sessions in the two comfortable headquarters hotels saved a great deal of time. The programs, as usual, were stuffed full of papers, in general not less than three at every session. Some day a committee may arise with the courage to do away with this nuisance, and give time for the discussion that is the life of scientific meetings.

THE AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

HARDIN LUCAS
Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools
Louisville, Kentucky

The personnel of the program of the St. Louis meeting of the American Sociological Society was largely determined with a view to securing a number of "reports from the field," so to speak, from aggressive workers who have recently been busy a-pioneering, and the opening session partook conspicuously of this character. Prof. Edward A. Ross of the University of Wisconsin contributed some Sociological Observations in Inner China, his portrayal of the struggle for existence being especially convincing. Other conclusions as to physical and mental constitutions, the family, private interest and public interest, neglect of conservation, ideographic language, and the transformation of China were attentively heard. A Sociological Appraisal of Western Influence in the Orient by the Rev. Edward W. Capen, formerly of the American Board of Foreign Missions, was also based upon an extended investigation directed more particularly to the social influence of missionaries, but covering various other points: education, industry, medicine,

political movements, social reform and ethical reform.

A second sheaf of the papers had relation to certain conditions in our own country, which had been the basis of extended investigations by those presenting them. The Drift to the City in Relation to the Rural Problem was handled by Prof. John M. Gillette of the University of North Dakota, who presented the situation statistically with an analysis of the sources of city growth, and discussed the significance to rural communities of migration to cities. He emphasized the comparative fruitlessness of back-to-the-farm agitations which seem to attempt to ignore "the profound forces which are essential and intrinsic to this age," the possibility of setting up counter-attractions in the country as a partial check to city-ward tendencies, and the paramount need of reorganizing rural school life in harmony with rural interests and needs. The Church and the Rural Community, by the Rev. Warren H. Wilson, superintendent of the department of church and country life of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions, who has been directing a sociological survey of rural communities, dwelt upon the lack of leadership in country populations, and the need of re-valuating the country church as a social institution in the present life, rather than as a means of preparing for life after death.

The presidential address by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia University, under the title The Relation of Social Theory to Public Policy, may be regarded as introducing a third set of the papers. First, he dealt historically with Comte, Spencer and Bagehot, placing much emphasis upon the third, but his major concern was that "overshadowing question, the world-old query—'is it war or peace?'" This was analyzed with characteristic lucidity and humor, and included a treatment of simple and compound evolution, the control of public wrath, and government by discussion. This contribution might well be issued as a special pamphlet by organizations interested in the movement for universal peace.

An extended paper by Prof. T. J. Riley, director of the St. Louis School of Social Economy, showed the relation between Sociology and Social Surveys, citing especially the monumental Booth survey of London and the recent Pittsburgh Survey. His allusion to the permanent surveys now in progress in Buffalo and Kansas City was supplemented by Professor Ellwood, of the University of Missouri, who stated that the Board of Public Welfare in the latter place had requested that his department exercise a kind of continuous guidance over the work.

Social Control of Domestic Relations was dealt with constructively by Prof. George E. Howard of the University of Nebraska. He plead for "a rational examination of the existing facts," suggested the preaching of actual, rather than conventional, social righteousness, and discussed such varied aspects of his large problem as compulsory social hygiene, juvenile courts, state endowment of mothers, positive eugenics, venereal diseases, uniform marriage law, finally suggesting a college of the domestic relations.

A veritable challenge to all mere thinkers and talkers about social affairs was sounded by Prof. Frank W. Blackmar of the University of Kansas, in a paper on Leadership in Social Reform. He held that nine-tenths of self-styled reformers seldom get beyond the anarchistic stage, in which a bold, independent individual, impressed with a strong belief in the defectiveness of institutions; customs and laws, by his iconoclastic utterances may reap a large return for a small effort. It is comparatively easy to make programs and laws, but to work out the reform in practice is the difficult problem of the age. To eliminate the evils by the laboratory test in the actual human workshop is the crux of modern reform. The chief reason is that leadership in reform is not sufficiently equipped to continue to this stage of progress.

Papers of a fourth sort were analytic studies with comparatively little attempt to deduce rules for special occasions. Prof. Ulysses G. Weatherly of Indiana University wrote on The Racial Element in Social Assimilation. He quoted from

Mill, with approval, that "free institutions are next to impossible in a country made up of different nationalities," but later on showed how this general principle was modified (or evaded) in our own country by reason of our rapid "absorption" of immigrants owing to their very willingness to be absorbed. "Judaism has been dealt with in Europe as a racial fact, which it is not, while in America it has been treated as a civilization, which it is." His discussion of language as a very large factor in certain situations was noteworthy, his point being that "there is no reason to believe that the races will be merged in a universal melting pot. Both the ethnic and cultural differences between certain groups are so great that general amalgamation is for the present out of the question."

Under title of The Social Forces Error Prof. E. C. Hayes of the University of Illinois, taking his cue from Comte, urged that sociology must progress from the metaphysical stage into the scientific stage, as biology has recently done, by "replacing supposed forces and substances with scientific explanations." His argument was directed chiefly against certain writings by Professor Ward, who, to the regret of speaker and audience, was unable to attend and respond.

The last session was fittingly closed with a brilliant paper on The Rivalry of Social Groups by Prof. George E. Vincent of the University of Chicago, recently elected president of the University of Minnesota. Inasmuch as his particularly readable contribution will appear in the January issue of the *American Journal of Sociology*, no attempt will be made to abstract it here.

It was the sentiment of all that the next meeting of this society should be held concurrently with that of the American Economic Association, which, being interpreted, seems to indicate Washington, D. C., during the last week of December, 1911. Prof. Franklin H. Giddings was re-elected president and Alvan A. Tenney (also re-elected) secretary-treasurer. The very efficient service of the secretary was strongly commended. The society's abiding esteem for its former president, Prof. W. G. Sumner, deceased, of Yale University, was memorialized by a special resolution. As to the society itself, there were mutual felicitations among the members in attendance over the progress noted in the report of the secretary. The list now totals 300, comprising chiefly members of departments in colleges, advanced students, and prominent social workers. It seems regrettable that educationists have not more generally affiliated with this society and so shown their appreciation of the relation between sociology and specific work in the field of public education. But since it seems likely that at the meeting next Christmas a session or two will be devoted to the sociology of education, we may safely look for evidences of a livelier interest among specialists in that field.

AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION

T. N. CARVER, Secretary
Cambridge, Mass.

The meeting of the American Economic Association in St. Louis marks a turning point in its history. Though it has already passed its twenty-fifth birthday, most of its original members are still active—few of them, in fact, are yet past middle age, which is explained by the fact that the founders were a group of young and enthusiastic students and teachers of economics, who got together at Saratoga in 1886 and formed this association. When one sees and hears, at these annual meetings, such young and vigorous men as Richard T. Ely, F. W. Taussig, Edmund J. James, Davis R. Dewey, John B. Clark, Simon N. Patten, J. W. Jenks, Henry C. Adams and Edwin R. A. Seligman, it is difficult to realize that they were all active in the founding of the association.

That the founders builded wisely is evidenced not only by its continued activity, but by its very considerable growth in numbers. From a small group in 1886, the association has increased to over 1,700 members, more than 700 of whom have joined in the last two years. This increase in membership, showing as

it does a rapidly growing interest in economic studies, has determined the association to carry out an enterprise which it has been considering for several years. This is nothing less than the founding of a new economic journal to be known as the *American Economic Review*.

The final arrangements for projecting this publication were made at the St. Louis meeting. It is placed in charge of an editor-in-chief, Prof. Davis R. Dewey of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; an editorial board of six members, Professors Henry B. Gardner of Brown, J. H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins, E. W. Kemmerer of Cornell, Henry W. Farnam of Yale, A. A. Young of Leland Stanford, and Henry C. Taylor of the University of Wisconsin. The first number of the review will be issued in March. The subscription price will be four dollars a year.

The St. Louis meeting opened with the presidential address by President Edmund J. James of the University of Illinois upon The Economic Significance of a Comprehensive System of National Education. Everyone who knows President James's views on educational topics would have expected him to shape his designs on the scale of a hemisphere in treating a topic of this kind. They would not have been disappointed. The speaker was not content merely to plan largely; he went sufficiently into details to demonstrate the economy, practicability, and constitutionality of the magnificent plan of vocational education which he outlined.

At the session devoted to the problem of money and prices, the principal papers were read by Professors J. Lawrence Laughlin of the University of Chicago and Irving Fisher of Yale. They presented somewhat antagonistic views as to the relation of the increase of gold to prices, Professor Laughlin contending that this was a relatively unimportant factor and Professor Fisher that it was the principal factor. Both conclusions were supported with elaborate statistical evidence and great logical acumen. Professor Fisher in particular showed remarkable industry and ingenuity in an inductive statistical test of the accuracy of the mathematical formula of price determination. A spirited discussion followed the papers which proved to be of great interest to scientific students, though they would be difficult reading for the average layman.

One session was given over to a subject of little interest to the non-academic portion of the association, but of great interest to the professional economists—the Ricardo centenary. The work and influence of Ricardo and the success and failure of Ricardo were discussed by Prof. J. H. Hollander, James Bonar, deputy master of the Canadian mint, and several others.

The session on accountancy showed how the interest in accountancy has grown among economists in recent years. This is due mainly to a general recognition of the fact that it is hopeless to solve such problems as the control of corporations, the reform of city governments, etc., until the public, which must exercise control, is able to understand the accounts and the management of the things which they are trying to control or reform. Of what avail is it, for example, to compel publicity of accounts if there is no ability on the part of the public to understand the accounts after they are published? Prof. William M. Cole of Harvard presented an illuminating paper on the question, What Economic Principles Should Apply in the Apportionment of All Classes of Cost to the Individual Units of Production, and How Should these Principles be Observed in a General Accounting System in Order that a Fair Price May Be Charged for the Individual Units Produced.

The session on Canals and Railways was opened by Prof. Emory R. Johnson of the University of Pennsylvania and Prof. E. R. Dewsnup of the University of Illinois. Major William H. Harts of the United States Corps of Engineers and W. M. Acworth, fellow of the Royal Statistical Society of England, took part in the discussion.

Coming decidedly closer to the heart of the social problems of the present, was the session on Population and Immigration. The opening paper, read by

title only, contended that one large factor in the bad distribution of wealth was the bad distribution of men among the different ranks of society, and that this bad distribution of men was accentuated by the abnormally high birth rate among the poorer classes, and the abnormal proportion of our immigrants entering the unskilled occupations. Prof. J. A. Field of the University of Chicago read a paper showing by means of tangible evidence how active a part the classical English economists had taken in the neo-Malthusian movement in the first half of the nineteenth century. Prof. J. Allen Smith of the University of Washington described the social and economic results of oriental immigration to the Pacific Coast. He definitely discarded the use of such terms as "superior" and "inferior" races, but pointed out the undoubted fact that where physically different races try to occupy the same territory on a basis of equality there is an inevitable conflict, frequently breaking out into race war.

A joint session was held with the American Association for Labor Legislation on the general subject of Industrial Accidents and Industrial Diseases. Various phases were discussed by a group of experts, all of whom are well known to readers of THE SURVEY: Alice Hamilton, Frederic L. Hoffman, Fred C. Schwedtman, Daniel L. Cease, and Thomas I. Parkinson.

Two excellent papers on Taxation, one by Prof. Thomas S. Adams of Washington University on The Place of the Income Tax in the Reform of State Taxation, and the other by Prof. H. J. Davenport of the University of Missouri on Land Value and Taxation were presented at another session. Professor Adams took a decided stand in favor of a state income tax. Professor Davenport's paper was an analysis of the various elements of our national wealth, with a view to finding out what proportion of it is earned and what proportion unearned. His conclusion was that a much larger proportion is unearned than we ordinarily suppose, and that land values are not by any means the only forms of unearned wealth. So far as this general conclusion was concerned, there was practically no dissent by any of those who discussed the paper, but when it came to details there was considerable difference of opinion. It is particularly significant that economists are giving attention to this problem. It is of great importance, and requires a degree of knowledge and discrimination entirely lacking in those who have usually attacked it.

This paper and the discussion which followed it, when taken in connection with the paper of the afternoon session, are especially interesting. The latter, entitled An Attempt to Define Socialism, was read by John Martin. While Professor Davenport's paper and the discussion which followed it pointed out various forms of wealth and income which are not earned, Mr. Martin, as a socialist, was ready to recede from the position of the orthodox socialist and admit that various forms of capital are earned and may therefore be left in private hands. If socialists begin to discriminate between various forms of capital and to admit that some may be earned, it is not improbable that the exercise of this kind of discrimination will lead them to recede farther and farther from the "orthodox" position that all capital is the result of exploitation, and eventually bring them to the same position as that ordinarily taken by the economist. Mr. Martin's paper was a distinct step in this direction. Such papers as his will go a long way toward giving scientific standing to socialism, provided the more extreme socialists do not forbid him and others of his school to appropriate the term socialism to their own particular doctrines and programs.

Anyone who listened to these two discussions must have felt that if socialists generally would give up their blind devotion to a Marxian creed, or their outworn formula that capital is unproductive and interest unearned, and examine the matter carefully to see whether interest is not earned after all; and if economists would give more attention to the problems discussed in Professor Davenport's paper, it is not improbable that a common

ground could be reached and a constructive program of social reform agreed upon. But so long as socialists believe in that absurd formula and refuse to reconsider it, they cannot logically recede from their program of the public ownership and operation of all the means of production.

On the whole this was one of the most interesting and one of the best attended meetings ever held by the Economic Association. The officers for the following year are: President, Henry W. Farnam of Yale; vice-presidents, F. N. Judson of St. Louis, Joseph French Johnson of New York and B. H. Meyer of Washington, D. C.; secretary-treasurer, T. N. Carver of Harvard.

AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION

W. W. WILLOUGHBY, Secretary
Baltimore

The seventh annual meeting of the American Political Science Association was in every respect successful. With a single exception the sessions were held in the Southern Hotel, where the association had its headquarters, and this kept the attending members in close association with one another, giving them opportunity for exchanging individual views, making new acquaintances, and renewing older friendships. The secretary reported that during the current year the association had continued its rapid increase in membership, the total enrolment now approximating 1,350.

The president, Gov. Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, in his address to which he gave the title The Law and the Fact, emphasized that in our day business is seldom a private matter carried on by independent individuals, but is, in the main, conducted by great corporations, which exist only by express license of law and for the convenience of society. The task of politics, it was declared, is to bring the operation of these and of other forces into harmony with one another, and to provide that the effects of all of them shall be in consonance with the general welfare of the community. Thus, as distinguished from the economist, who must in very many instances, if not generally, consider the interests of individuals as such, the task of the political scientist is ever to view the general welfare and to seek its advancement, without, of course, failing to recognize that this community good involves and implies the true interests of the individual units. The address, which was a notable one, will appear in full in the February issue of the *American Political Science Review*.

The second session of the meeting was devoted to papers dealing with Recent Constitutional Developments in Europe; the question as to impending change in the British House of Lords being discussed by Prof. T. F. Moran of Purdue University; the Tendencies Towards Ministerial Responsibility in Germany by Prof. W. J. Shepard of Ohio State University; the Russian Duma by I. A. Hourich of Washington, D. C.; and the Turkish Parliament by Prof. A. H. Lybyer of Oberlin College. With reference to the constitutional question in England the opinion was expressed that while important changes in the powers as well as the composition of the upper legislative chamber are practically certain, no serious political crisis is to be expected. As to Germany, it was pointed out that the political condition of that country, together with the peculiar constitutional character of the empire under the hegemony of Prussia, will make extremely difficult the development there of a true system of ministerial responsibility. By Mr. Hourich the character and powers of the new Russian legislative body were luminously described, and the means outlined by which the czar, in violation of the manifesto of 1905, finally secured a majority in the third Duma. Mr. Lybyer's general estimate of the Turkish Parliament, as judged by its work during the brief period of its existence, was upon the whole favorable, and therefore one offering encouragement for the future. The cautionary remark was made, however, that political predictions, always dangerous, are especially uncertain with reference to Turkish affairs.

The third session had for its general topic Judicial Organization and Procedure, the two principal papers being read by Chief Justice Olsen of the Chicago Municipal Court and Edward J. McDermott of Louisville. Judge Olsen discussed the proper organization and procedure of a municipal court, basing his views upon the remarkable work of the important tribunal over which he has presided since its establishment in 1906. Upon both the civil and criminal sides efficiency and celerity have marked the exercise by the court of its powers. The accurate judicial statistics which have been kept show that during 1910, 87,922 criminal and quasi-criminal cases were tried, eighty per cent of these being disposed of within twenty-four hours of arrest, and ninety per cent within two weeks. During the same year 48,549 civil causes were heard and adjudicated. Judge Olsen was confident that the efficient work of this court had had a substantial influence in reducing the amount of crime in Chicago. Mr. McDermott made a convincing argument against the prevalent practice of American courts in attaching controlling importance to technical legal requirements, the justification for which, if there ever were any, having long since disappeared. Mr. McDermott's views were approved and supplemented by informal addresses from F. W. Lehmann, solicitor general of the United States, and Prof. John D. Lawson, dean of the law school of the University of Missouri, the latter resting his remarks upon a study recently made by him as commissioner of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology of English judicial methods.

At the fourth session problems of municipal government furnished the chief subject for discussion. H. E. Flack, chief of the Bureau of Legislative Reference in Baltimore, reviewed recent tendencies in municipal charters; and Mr. Myer of the Bureau of the Census explained what was being done and what might be done by the bureau for the collection and presentation of municipal statistics, and especially of those by means of which the administrative and economic efficiency of city governments may be measured. At the same session Prof. G. G. Wilson of Harvard University presented a valuable paper dealing with the jurisdiction of states over the air strata above their territories and, as founded thereupon, their authority to regulate aerial navigation; and Theodore Marburg of Baltimore spoke upon the methods of enlisting public opinion in international arbitration.

At the fifth session the results of the primary election laws in Illinois, Missouri, and Iowa were described by W. C. Jones of the Illinois Senate, Prof. Isidor Loeb of the University of Missouri, and Prof. F. E. Horack of the University of Iowa. Prof. C. A. Beard of Columbia University spoke briefly of the direct primary movement in New York, and Dr. E. M. Hartwell of Boston described primary elections and results in Massachusetts during the early colonial period.

The final session was held jointly with the American Economic Association, Taxation being the general subject discussed. The following papers were read:

The Place of the Income Tax in the Reform of State Taxation by Prof. T. S. Adams, of Washington University; Land Value and Taxation by Prof. H. J. Davenport of the University of Missouri. A discussion followed in which Prof. T. N. Carver of Harvard University and Prof. M. H. Robinson of the University of Illinois participated.

The following officers of the association for the year 1911 were elected: President, Simeon E. Baldwin; vice-presidents, Albert Bushnell Hart, Emlin McClain, Ernst Freund; secretary-treasurer, W. W. Willoughby; members of the executive council, A. R. Hatton, Stephen Leacock, Charles McCarthy, Isidor Loeb, C. H. McIlwain and T. E. Moran.

The papers read at the various sessions will be printed as speedily as possible either in the annual volume of the association's Proceedings or in its quarterly journal, the *American Political Science Review*. Both publications are sent to all members of the association.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

At the fourth annual meeting of the American Association for Labor Legislation, Prof. Henry W. Farnam of Yale University, who has been president for the past three years, resigned that position on being elected president of the American Economic Association. Prof. Henry R. Seager of Columbia University succeeds him.

Professor Seager brings to his work practical experience, having been engaged in securing labor legislation in New York state for some years past while president of the association's New York branch. He is vice-chairman of the New York Commission on Workmen's Compensation, and chairman of the executive committee of the National Conference on Workmen's Compensation for Industrial Accidents.

The program reflected the work already accomplished by the association, which is mainly responsible for the nation-wide interest in industrial diseases—a fact the more remarkable when it is realized that it is the result of a little more than one year's effort. The association is responsible for the investigation of phosphorus poisoning in the match industry in co-operation with the Federal Bureau of Labor, and it is energetically pushing its bill, which Mr. Esch introduced into Congress, prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches. It is responsible also for the first national conference on industrial diseases, as an outgrowth of which a memorial calling for a national investigation was presented to President Taft.

As Professor Farnam said in his presidential address, the association has passed out of the experimental stage and is now in the active stage. The membership has increased to 2,000, with a much larger affiliated membership through many different organizations that support its work.

The methods pursued by the association are undoubtedly responsible for a large share of its success. It holds that complete knowledge of the facts is the first essential, such knowledge being used as a basis for scientific legislation framed to meet the known circumstances. By this means no ligitimate interests are injured, while the nation as a whole is benefited by the increased health, comfort, safety, and efficiency of its workers. Social progress on such a basis carries with it the application of an increasing measure of scientific method to industrial processes, which is of itself a national gain of the first importance.

Frederick L. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company, urged the necessity for a thoroughly equipped factory inspection service, including medical assistants trained in the principles and practice of industrial hygiene. Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago emphasized the great damage wrought by hidden disease inevitable under the present system of inspection. He held that physicians owe a special duty to the community in reporting industrial accidents and diseases—they alone have the information necessary to do this adequately. "If they neglect this social duty misery and death will result. If they make their reports as perfect as possible science will be advanced, legislation will be wiser and more effective, and public health and happiness will be increased."

It was pointed out by John B. Andrews, secretary of the association, that a great step towards realizing such a program would be taken if this country were to establish an industrial clinic for the study of occupational diseases, similar to the one in Milan which was described in THE SURVEY for November 12, 1910.

A short report on mercurial poisoning in the hat industry was submitted by the Women's Branch (New York and New Jersey) of the National Civic Federation. The investigation was made by Florence Roehm, who in three months secured records of sixty cases of poisoning in Brooklyn, Newark, and Orange. The number is significant when it is remembered that in England, under careful inspection, only ninety-four cases have been reported in twelve years.

On the question of enforcing labor laws, Pres. Edwin R. Wright of the Illi-

nois Federation of Labor pointed out that the co-operation of workers can be relied upon when the responsible authority makes a real attempt to enforce the law; but the workers are naturally apathetic when the authority is a mere cog in a political machine.

Dr. Alice Hamilton reported briefly on lead poisoning in Illinois. She has recorded 640 individual cases in twenty-eight trades. She found both employers and employes frequently ignorant of the poisonous nature of the materials they handled. Adequate precautions against poisoning were rare. The tendency toward improvement in the lead industry in recent years she attributed mainly to greater economy in methods of production consequent upon the increasing value of lead. President Hamar of the Hamar Lead Works spoke of the danger of lead poisoning from the standpoint of a manufacturer.

Mr. Hoffman suggested that the question of compensation in industrial diseases is closely allied to that of industrial accidents, the two frequently shading into each other, and instanced the British workmen's compensation act.

Dr. Sidney I. Schwab of St. Louis reported that he had found a quite undue amount of neurasthenia from an examination of thousands of garment workers. He found it particularly prevalent among Jews, due in large part to their highly nervous constitutions.

Daniel L. Cease, representing the railway brotherhoods, made a distinct impression by two quotations—one from a railroad company's official bulletin setting forth rules for the safety of the men; the other, a circular letter from a railroad superintendent to his staff urging the establishment, under penalty of dismissal, of working conditions in direct contradiction to the rules given in the bulletin. Mr. Cease demanded full compulsory compensation, based on an automatic scale of awards that would eliminate litigation and insure adequate relief to injured workmen.

The employer's point of view was presented by F. C. Schwedtman, representing the National Manufacturers' Association. He said he would surprise his audience by stating that he did not believe voluntary indemnity would prove adequate, nor did he believe that compulsory compensation is adequate in itself. He recommended that an opportunity be given manufacturers to show what they can do without legislation. In Europe, he said, a greater number of accidents occur to agricultural workers than to any others.

Many other speakers contributed to the interest and value of the meeting, among them Dr. William C. Hanson of the Massachusetts State Board of Health; Dr. Rogers, medical inspector of factories in New York; Thomas I. Parkinson of New York, and Mrs. Florence Kelley, secretary of the National Consumers' League. A full report will be published shortly by the association.

The outstanding features of the meeting were the general recognition of the magnitude of the problem of industrial hygiene, and the supreme importance attaching to the enforcement of labor laws.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS

BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS, Secretary

The American Home Economics Association, which is a newcomer among associations dealing with economic and related problems, was organized at Washington, D. C., two years ago, at which time some 700 charter members formed a society whose purpose is stated to be "the improvement of living conditions in the home, the institution, and the community." The organization, however, has a longer history, going back some twelve years to the formation of an annual conference on problems of home and institutional management, which met first at the Lake Placid Club in 1899. Each year thereafter, at Lake Placid or elsewhere, a group of teachers and others met to discuss this field of work, and to devise educational and legislative measures to secure progress.

The nucleus of the group meeting at Lake Placid, which in turn became the center of the new organization, was a number of college teachers of household

science from the different colleges and universities, especially in the middle West, where home economics had become a subject of instruction after its introduction in the state institutions of Iowa, Illinois and Kansas about 1876. With this group were a number of high school teachers and supervisors of instruction in elementary schools, scientific workers such as Ellen H. Richards of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the late Professor Atwater of Wesleyan University, and other persons who felt the importance of the application of science to the practical matters of everyday life in the household.

The membership has more than doubled, so that the St. Louis convention brought together representatives of over 1,500 persons. Last year a meeting was held in Boston with the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at which time a number of prominent workers in natural science—physiologists, chemists and physicists—took part in the program of the home economics meetings, and showed the applications of these sciences in the matters of daily living.

Economists and sociologists made the contributions at St. Louis which were the heart of the program. One evening meeting was devoted to Aspects of Economics of Importance in Home Economics, and Prof. David Kinley, dean of the School of Commerce at the University of Illinois, gave the principal address, outlining a course in the economics of the household which he had given for several years for the benefit of students in household science. Prof. Frank A. Fetter of Cornell University opened the discussion.

Another evening was devoted to a parallel topic, What Courses in Sociology Should be Included in a College Department of Household Science, with a masterly paper by Prof. George E. Howard of the University of Nebraska, who outlined some eight related courses in social science, undergraduate and graduate, which might be provided in a completely developed scheme of instruction in household science. The discussion was opened by Prof. Charles A. Ellwood of the University of Missouri, who described beginnings which he had made in adapting his instruction to the needs of household science students. One especially helpful paper was given by Prof. William Morse Cole of Harvard University, pointing out How the Individual Home Economist May Help General Economic Progress.

A program of papers on Instruction in Home Economics, arranged by Sophonisba P. Breckenridge of the University of Chicago, included a discussion of The Productive System as a Preventive of Waste by Miss Van Meter of the University of Illinois; a paper on Knowledge of the Industrial System as a Basis for Consumers' Responsibility by Edna D. Day of the University of Kansas; and one on Cost Accounting by Mrs. Richards of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Other economic papers were by Dr. I. M. Rubinow of the Department of Commerce and Labor on Household Service as a Labor Problem, and by Mr. Lebovitz of the Library of Congress on Some Social-Economic Aspects of Labor Saving Machinery in the Household. John Leeds of Teachers College suggested the importance of a study of the economic values of various divisions of household work as performed by the average housewife, when measured in time, and outlined a projected investigation to ascertain these facts.

Throughout the convention the emphasis on economic and social problems was marked, and while the program involved the outlining of problems to be solved, rather than a record of work accomplished, yet all present were encouraged by the attendance of workers in the field of general economics, and persuaded that there is to be in time a science of the household which shall be based in due part upon the economic and social sciences. This was perhaps the most striking impression which a visitor to the convention would have received.

Especially encouraging also to members of the Home Economics Association was the long list of scientific papers which appeared on the program, particularly in the field of dietetics and nutrition. Some fifteen titles in this field alone represented scientific studies upon such practical

matters as bread making, cooking of meat, cooking of vegetables, and other food problems.

The topic of Clothing, another division in the trinity of food, clothing and shelter which roughly describes the field of home economics, was presented in a sectional meeting. Courses of study were discussed and scientific papers prepared, showing that there is coming to be a basis in science for the proposed regulation of textiles, parallel to the government regulation of food. A description of the textile testing laboratory of the United States army at Governor's Island, and a paper on textile tests carried out in selecting material for the Child Welfare Exhibit in New York, prove that the day of scientific textile regulation and honest labeling of fabrics is not far off.

A section on the Care of the Child, with papers by the supervisors of domestic science in the public schools of New York and Philadelphia and by other teachers in high schools and colleges, indicated that the care of the normal child will soon be a matter of instruction for all girls attending the public schools. Other divisions of the program dealt with housing and sanitation, extension work in home economics as it is carried on by agricultural colleges and among women's clubs, and various phases of instruction in household science.

The Home Economics Association takes as its field of interest the management of the home, and of the institution which reproduces the household on a large scale; and it looks to two lines of service: education and professional management, for the better control of these two. The St. Louis convention demonstrated that household science is not a myth, but an art which is rapidly being placed upon a foundation of natural and economic science.

AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION

CARROLL W. DOTEN, Secretary
Boston

The recent meetings of the several associations at St. Louis demonstrated anew the increasing tendency to utilize the statistical method as an instrument in social and economic research. It is almost a case of "carrying coals to Newcastle" for the American Statistical Association to undertake a program of its own under such circumstances. Practically all of the associations had something of a statistical nature in their programs, and some devoted a portion or all of several sessions to topics requiring the use of statistics for a satisfactory presentation.

That statistics do not always deserve the usual reproach of dullness was shown by the fact that the most interesting sessions of at least two of the associations were those where this method was employed. Economists and sociologists are finding less and less pleasure and profit in questions of theory and more satisfaction in a first hand study of facts.

The American Statistical Association contented itself with rather a short program. The presidential address by Frederick L. Hoffman on Fifty Years of Life Insurance Progress was a masterly presentation of a subject of the greatest interest. Naturally the methods and results of the thirteenth census afforded a number of subjects for discussion. The most interesting of these were presented at a special session on agricultural statistics by experts connected with that division of the Census Bureau and by professors of economics and agriculture from several of the state universities. During the ten years since 1900 great changes in land values, in the size of farms, in the shifting of rural populations, and in other agricultural conditions have taken place especially in the north central states. One striking economic fact was disclosed in this discussion, namely, that a more intensive cultivation of land under American conditions does not necessarily mean a smaller farm unit. It is true that the very large farms of one thousand acres and over are being broken up into smaller units, but this tendency is not nearly so important as the consolidation of small holdings into farms of from 175 to 500 acres.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Frederick L. Hoffman, Newark, N. J.; vice-presi-

dents, Walter F. Willcox, Ithaca, N. Y.; Henry W. Farnam, New Haven, Conn.; E. Dana Durand, Washington, D. C.; Charles P. Neill, Washington, D. C.; Edward M. Hartwell, Boston; editor, John Koren, Boston; treasurer, S. B. Pearmain, Boston; secretary, Carroll W. Doten, Boston.

EDITORIAL GRIST

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

EDWARD T. DEVINE

Fortunately it is a living intelligence and not a dead hand which is shaping the plans for what seems likely to be one of the most beneficent institutions ever undertaken for the promotion of human welfare. Those plans, even as formulated in the original bill of incorporation, were abreast of previous and contemporary endowments. We thought at that time that there was some ground for the hope that they might nevertheless be improved and brought fully abreast of sound economic theories and progressive social policies. We gave expression to that hope in arguments addressed, as we took pains to say at the time, primarily to Mr. Rockefeller and his advisers, secondarily to Congress, where the act of incorporation was pending. The amendments now offered by the senator who introduced the original bill are the response to this hope; and the response is precisely what might have been expected. No reasonable critic would have expected or desired that his suggestions would be adopted *verbatim*. What has been done is better. They have been considered, rejected in part, adopted in part, and improved upon.

The original bill created a corporation which "shall have perpetual succession." A proposed amendment adds after these words, "save as hereinafter provided." We are unable to find any subsequent provision which limits the existence of the corporation as such, but the reference is clearly to two new sections, one of which provides that Congress may at any time impose such limitations upon the *objects* of the foundation as public interest demands and that all gifts shall be received and held subject to this proviso; while the other provides a method for the termination of any particular *endowment*.

It was the principle of endowment in perpetuity which we challenged. It is this principle which is now definitely abandoned in favor of the alternative which we suggested. In substance this new section provides that the foundation may after fifty years distribute both principal and interest of any particular gift, however large; and that after one hundred years the foundation shall make such distribution if directed to do so by Congress. This clear recognition of the policy of social control is of the utmost importance. It may be a long time before there is occasion to make such a distribution as is here contemplated; but again it may not, and the very presence of such a stipulation is certain to have an enormous influence in that "gradual broadening down from precedent to precedent," which operates irresistibly in the field of philanthropic endowments.

The original bill states the objects of the corporation in the most liberal language which could be devised so as to include all education, all charity, all the elements of human progress. This language remains unchanged, but the amendment to which we have already referred, providing that Congress may impose such limitations upon these objects at any time as it may deem that the public interest demands, offers a safeguard against abuse of this broad grant of power.

The next amendment, fixing the maximum amount to be held absolutely or in trust at one hundred million dollars, is chiefly interesting as discountenancing the more extravagant guesses originally made as to the amount of the proposed endowment. Still it is possible to do a

great deal with a mere hundred million dollars.

Another new section adopts, in an improved form, our suggestion that the corporation be required to expend its income for the purposes enumerated in the charter, rather than accumulating and adding it to the principal. This provision is very properly made subject to such reasonable delay as may be necessary in a wise administration of the fund. No one would desire such a rigid stipulation as would require the trustees to get rid of a large sum of money over night, as if they were insurance company trustees caught on the day of an annual statement with unauthorized securities in their possession.

A minor amendment stipulates, for the sake of clearness, that the exemption from taxation for which the bill provides shall apply only to federal taxes. Under state laws the property of the foundation actually used for educational or charitable purposes would ordinarily be exempt also from state and local taxation. It is a well established principle of American finance that such property shall not be taxed. Why should it be? We raise money by taxation for the very purposes, among others, for which this foundation is to exist. Property which is already being used for public purposes under government control may properly be exempt, since to tax it would only be to transfer income from one public use to another. Our own reference to the subject of tax exemption was only to suggest the extent of the public interest as one ground for government control and participation.

This brings us squarely to the only important point on which the pending amendments do not go as far as we have considered advisable, *viz.*, the selection of trustees. The original bill contemplated a self-perpetuating board, starting with five members. Our suggestion was that the government should have a voice in filling vacancies, either by election of Congress or by appointment of the president.

To prevent misunderstanding, we may first express very frankly the opinion that this is a point on which the deliberate opinion of the founder and his advisers should prevail. It affords ample room for difference of opinion. University boards of trustees, as the New York *Times* has repeatedly said in this connection, are often self-perpetuating. The Russell Sage Foundation and many other excellent institutions are so organized. The filling of vacancies by the governing board, either by direct election or by nomination and influence, may be said to be the prevailing practice. When, therefore, Senator Gallinger, doubtless representing the founder's wishes, provides in a proposed amendment that additional members of the corporation shall be elected by the corporation itself, but that before such election becomes effective four high officials of the government and the presidents of five great universities shall have an opportunity to pass upon such election—the disapproval of a majority making the election void—he probably goes quite as far as can reasonably be expected in admitting outside cooperation in the selection of trustees.

This amendment is a safeguard against unfit appointments. Names which are to be scrutinized and passed upon by nine such competent and disinterested authorities would doubtless be selected with care. Moreover, the election of new members in this manner would probably give rise to illuminating discussion in the public press. The subject should prove at least as interesting as the balloting on candidates for the Hall of Fame. In this way public opinion would become enlightened regarding the work and policies of the foundation, and would be ready to deal with any situation which seemed likely to call for that legislative intervention for which other amendments provide.

The objections to the self-perpetuating plan are partly, but not altogether, met by the outside veto. The bringing in of entirely new elements from time to time seems to us valuable as a means of preventing the inbreeding of ideas; as a means of keeping the corporation in touch with current public opinion and fresh, vigorous ideas; as a means of preventing the development of such a situation as would require drastic interven-

tion by Congress and the courts; as a means of preventing that lofty isolation, pharisaical self-sufficiency, and imperviousness to new ideas which self-perpetuating boards tend to exhibit. At the same time we recognize that self-perpetuating boards can keep themselves wholly free from these tendencies if they deliberately set about it; and we recognize also that there are objections to any plan yet devised for compelling the introduction of outside and fructifying elements. It may be very disastrous to disturb the working harmony of a board of trustees. The financial resources of the foundation might become the football of contending financial interests. Membership in the foundation might fall to the level of a reward to political henchmen, like the consulships of a generation ago. Aside from all such rather remote possibilities, it may fairly be argued that the existing trustees are really better judges of the qualifications for membership in the board than Congress, or the president, or any other outsiders can be. Being more interested in this particular undertaking, they would know where to look for good candidates and could more easily make sure that the new members would bring to their work the necessary interest and devotion.

The arguments for and against a self-perpetuating board are so evenly balanced that a generous donor may fairly plead that he be allowed to have his own way about it. The gist of the matter is, as we see it, that our plan implies greater confidence in republican institutions and greater distrust of closed corporations. But the proposed charter clearly indicates that Mr. Rockefeller is more ready than any of his predecessors or contemporaries among large givers to trust public opinion, more ready to admit public participation in his humanitarian projects, and less inclined to insist upon an absolutely self-perpetuating, hermetically sealed corporation. We are therefore emphatically of the opinion that Congress should promptly give him the charter for which he asks.

There would of course be no difficulty in securing incorporation in almost any state of the Union. It is a sound and generous impulse which seeks instead to entrust the care of the new foundation to the nation; establishing its headquarters in the District of Columbia; making annual reports to a federal department; accepting freely in advance the disciplinary oversight of Congress and the ultimate control of that body for every fund which may be intrusted to its administration. The discussions and developments of the past year and further observation of other endowments at home and abroad confirm the opinion with which we began this discussion ten months ago, that in conception and purpose the Rockefeller Foundation compares favorably with the wisest and most generous of all previous donations. The general conception and purpose of the foundation remain unaffected by the amendments proposed; but the charter, as a legislative enactment, expressing the founder's intentions on the one hand and the national sanction on the other, is very greatly improved by them. In one sense they add nothing to the concluding section of the original bill, that the charter shall be subject to alteration, amendment, or repeal at the pleasure of Congress. Obviously Congress cannot by one legislative act give itself power to pass a later act, which is what some of these amendments would seem to attempt. This, however, is a very narrow, technical, and essentially false interpretation of the amendments. The charter becomes not only an act of incorporation, but a contract with the trustees, a chart for their guidance, a general formulation of policy, and a precedent for other foundations. In its present form it expressly invites public interest and co-operation. It imposes moral obligations upon Congress as well as upon the trustees. The amendments diminish the probability that there will ever be occasion for hostile criticism of the foundation. They insure that it can never depart radically from its humanitarian purpose, unless the people fail to use the powers which they have reserved to their legislature against the time when trustees prove recreant to their trust.

Insignificant as most of the amendments seem in a strict construction of

their terms, they make of the foundation a more worthy and more enduring monument, for they imply a greater, or at least a more clearly expressed, faith in the ability of future generations to solve their own problems, and a desire to make an outright contribution to human welfare from present resources.

Paris, Christmas Day, 1910.

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

ROBERT W. de FOREST

It is well that John D. Rockefeller has determined to meet the criticism with which his magnificent gift to the nation was received, by amending the proposed charter of his institution. A less broad-minded man, finding such unparalleled generosity met in a spirit of criticism which, however well intended, must have seemed to him and his advisers somewhat captious, might easily have concluded to put his hundred million dollars back in his own pocket instead of giving it to his countrymen. Mr. Rockefeller has shown himself to be above any such impulses and has considered the original criticisms of THE SURVEY in the spirit in which they were meant by its editor. In common with many others I have not shared in these criticisms; not because I did not think some future limitations upon the powers of the foundation possibly desirable, or because I did not think it expedient that it should spend its income substantially as it accrued, or because I did not think that principal as well as income might at some future time be wisely expended; but because these and any other changes in the charter that public opinion might hereafter make expedient could have been effected easily by the power of amendment expressly given by the original charter, and because insistence on making them now might have led to the entire withdrawal of the gift. The greater includes the lesser. The amendments which Mr. Rockefeller has now made, and any others that plainly seemed advisable, could have been made at any time in the original charter by the use of this reserve power. To make them now is simply stating what the trustees chosen by Mr. Rockefeller presumably would have done without any legislative command, and what they could have been made to do under the original charter at any time when public opinion was sufficiently united to force them to do so by the process of amendment.

None of the new provisions of this amended charter militate in any respect against the usefulness of Mr. Rockefeller's great gift. None of them stand in the way of its wise administration, for it is inconceivable that a majority of five university presidents and four high officials of the federal government should ever veto the election of any qualified trustee.

Mr. Rockefeller's action in this matter only illustrates again the sincerity of purpose, breadth of conception, and well poised judgment which have to such an extraordinary degree been manifest in his public benefactions.

TWO BOOKS

PAUL U. KELLOGG

Of the series of six books in which the findings of the Pittsburgh Survey are published, the two which come from the presses this month are in a special sense companion volumes. In The Steel Workers[1] Mr. Fitch deals with the work relationships of the mill men; the family end of their wages problem is the subject of Miss Byington's Homestead: The Households of a Mill Town.[2]

Bound by a hundred ties to the dramatic story of the Pittsburgh people, these inquiries are, nevertheless, of more than local significance. Steel is a basic industry for America as a whole no less than for western Pennsylvania. It has been a beneficiary of the most fiercely contested governmental policies since Civil War times. Its products enter into every tool and structure and means of traffic in civilization. By the side of half

[1]The Steel Workers. By John A. Fitch. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Charities Publication Committee. New York, 1911. Pps. 350. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.71.

[2]Homestead: The Households of a Milltown. By Margaret F. Byington. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Charities Publication Committee. New York, 1911. Pps., 292; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.70.

a hundred mill sites along the Ohio and its tributaries, at our newest lake ports, and above the old mineral beds of the Superior Basin; in the sun-baked Southwest, in the valleys of the New South, and, by anticipation, in the ore regions of Alaska, what men may earn by digging, reducing, rolling, and fabricating this master metal, what leisure and resource they may gain in the process of it all, set the standards of life for hundreds of communities. A constructive statesmanship demands that Americans look well to what those standards tend to become for so numerous and vital an element in the population.

Moreover, the largest employer of steel workers in Pittsburgh is the largest employer of steel workers in the country as a whole; and the largest employer of labor in America today. That employer is in the saddle. So far as the mills and the shifts that man them go, the steel operators possess what many another manager and industrial president has hankered after and has been denied—untrammeled control. What has this exceptional employer done with this exceptional control over the human forces of production?

Here Mr. Fitch's findings state the problems of an industrial democracy in ways which cannot be lightly thrust aside. He entered upon his commission without any promptings, other than the general instincts toward an independent, resourceful citizenship inbred by the spirit of the northwestern prairies, and the quickening sense of economic justice which stirs the University of Wisconsin. To Prof. John R. Commons of that university, both for his initial field work and for his consecutive suggestions and advice, author and editor are indebted. For information and insight, acknowledgment is made to steel workers of the greater city and the mill towns, Braddock, Duquesne, Homestead, McKeesport, to engineers, foremen, superintendents and higher corporation officials, many of whom are facing in their work problems which are beyond the power of isolated men to solve. As the author points out, the steel industry could be interpreted from other points of view,—from that of its tremendous administrative burdens, of its fierce commercial competition in the past, of its wonderful technical progress. For these there are many spokesmen. Mr. Fitch makes articulate what the steel industry means to the men who are employed in it—for whom it makes up the matter of life, and who have no voice.

Miss Byington has summed up in a single phrase the negative aspects of the situation, so far as the home life of the men is concerned: "to turn daily from twelve hours in the din of the huge mills to home, supper, a smoke and bed." What steel production holds out to the families of these men is set forth within the covers of her book.

The family as a social unit takes us back into shadows beyond where history begins; the town carries with it a thousand written memories of walled boroughs, county markets and communes, where self-government had its beginnings. But the mill with its acres of tracks and sheds, its continuous operation, its intricate plan of discipline, of interlocking processes, of insistent demands upon human nature, is a newer institution. Factory production is less than two centuries old. The power transmission through which the modern plant with its thousands of workmen has expanded and developed, is scarcely as many generations old. Electrically charged wires have become the binding nervous cords of industrial mechanism well within the memory of living men.

Miss Byington's study is essentially a portrayal of these two older social institutions, the family and the town, as they are brought into contact with this new insurgent third. Have their development and equipment kept pace with mechanical invention? Have they held their own against the mill? Is the balance of life and work preserved? Or have we, in the industrial town of twentieth century America, not a "deserted village" such as Goldsmith lamented in eighteenth century England, but a more serious, antithetical problem in an overcrowded, overwrought aggregate of households. The query is not, shall "every rood of

ground maintain its man," but, shall the day's work afford an adequate basis for American livelihood?

Such a description, however modest in scope and put forth in the homely imagery of domestic life, deals thus with the forces which are wrenching at the very structure of society. There are other, perhaps more obvious, circumstances which give this book a distinctive place in the general scheme of these volumes. The colleagues in the field work of the Pittsburgh Survey took up special factors affecting the welfare of the wage-earning population—such as sanitation, housing and public education; Miss Byington's commission was to analyze these factors as they enter jointly into the life of one of the small industrial communities which are characteristic of the Pittsburgh district, and especially to analyze them as they bear upon the well-being of family groups. In carrying out this commission, she made an intimate case study of ninety households, employing methods of budget taking which have been developed for standard of living inquiries. She brought to her work, as basis for comparisons, an acquaintance with tenement conditions in New York and Boston. The resulting data have some rather obvious statistical shortcomings, which she makes clear; but as a transcript of everyday economic existence, they served at once to re-enforce and to check up the impressions which grew out of her personal contact with the people who earned the money, and ate the food, and lived in the houses, and worshipped in the churches of this town. If the book inevitably brings out sharply the odds of life with which many industrial communities have to reckon, the hope is expressed that the loyalty of Homestead residents will not take offense that theirs should have been the town thus singled out for study. "The rank and file of the people are with you," said an old mill man. To housekeepers and steel workers, to professional and business people, who gave freely of their time and information, thanks are not offered, for the book is partly theirs. Theirs, also, are the two irrepressible, grim interrogations which underlie both the statistical tables and the bits of neighborly gossip with which the author has enlivened her narrative. In their bearings upon contemporary economic and social conditions, these are questions for a nation as well as for this community.

The first has to do with the town:—how shall local self-government keep abreast of a nationalized industry?

The second has to do with the family:—here is a town dependent upon one of the great industries of America which has profited by brilliant invention, by organizing genius, by a national policy of tariff protection. It was studied at the close of the longest period of prosperity which has been known by our generation. What has that prosperity brought to the rank and file of the people whose waking hours are put into the industry?

Underlying the initial reasons for a protrayal of labor conditions in steel making is another reason which developed in the course of these inquiries, and which, like the Mariner's tale, leaves no choice open as to the telling. The issues which Mr. Fitch and Miss Byington take up are of a sort which are not publicly discussed in the mill towns of the Pittsburgh district. Old employes do not dare petition their employers to consider them. Men have been discharged for calling meetings to discuss them. It would mean instant dismissal for large numbers of men should they act together to affect these things in the way that farmers would take up freight rates or the price of apples at a grange hall, and dismissal would mean the entire dislocation of life. An old resident is quoted by Miss Byington as saying, "If you want to talk in Homestead, you must talk to yourself."

It is fully time to bring these issues out into the open, where a man will not risk his livelihood by discussing it. That is the manner of America.

SOCIALIZING COMMERCIAL ETHICS

GRAHAM TAYLOR

Very surely, though all too slowly, American business men are squaring themselves and their methods to the new

demands of the ethics of the group. In unexpected quarters and by their own associates, they are faced with the imperative mandate of a changed situation. The open resentment or silent cynicism which such facts would have met a few years ago have given way to a seriousness and responsiveness which surely indicate a change of front.

There have been three remarkable instances of this changing attitude in Chicago recently. Before the Commercial Club, the most influential and wealthy group of men in commercial, banking and manufacturing interests of the city, Alfred L. Baker, one of their most highly appreciated members, faced this issue perhaps more fully and fearlessly than had been done before in their presence. Addressing himself to the problem of harmonizing great corporations with democratic institutions, he urged the necessity of establishing ethical standards applicable to the relations between them. He demanded right of way for "collective rights," which he defined to be "the highest good of the community as a whole." He insisted that business men cannot consider lightly the derelictions of politicians, even when personal interests are not adversely affected; nevertheless moral and political progress is blocked in Chicago and Illinois by business men's toleration of dishonest politicians. He urged them to get out of such "corporation politics," and enter into such public service as the protection of the safety and health of working people, the abolition of child labor, educational progress, park and playground extension, safeguarding of immigrants, fostering continuation or vocational schools and city planning, in which latter cause the Commercial Club has already taken the most advanced action of any public body.

The Chicago Association of Commerce, the largest and one of the broadest and most progressive commercial organizations in the United States, honored itself in hearing four men who came from the firing line to address them. In simple, manful fashion Rudolph Spreckles told the story of his fight for the integrity of San Francisco against the commercialized politics of its exploiters:

> There never was a political crime committed that business was not at the back of it. Cut off that supply, and let the managers of these corporations take their stand and say, "No bribe money." If we find in operating our property that political bosses propose to hold us up, we are going to the people to get our redress and to get our rights. My experience with the people has taught me that they are fair and just and will give you what you are legitimately entitled to. It is right that you should know your own affairs and above all scrutinize the affairs of the corporations in which you hold stock, not only because you ought to know the source from which come your income and profits, but because it will pay you in money dividends, increased and saved.

Alderman Charles E. Merriam, who is professor of political science in the University of Chicago and is urged to become a candidate for mayor, spoke to the same effect out of his experience as chairman of the City Council's commission on municipal expenditures. "Good government," he said, "is not a liability; it is an asset. It is economy, not expense. You will one day find it a necessity rather than a luxury."

Boston contributed its message through Robert A. Woods, who was introduced by the president of the association in the words of the president of Harvard in conferring upon him the degree of master of arts, "A man who labors to raise his fellow men, trusted alike by those who toil and those who think; a knight of Christ's chivalry, without fear and without reproach."

The only solution of the problems of good government, Mr. Woods contended, is to be found in "a city plan and policy that will include all the people, in which racial, class and religious distinctions shall be lost in the movement for civic advance, and a new start shall be taken from the doorsteps of the people." He also affirmed that "our failure to apply our personal efforts to our human relationships results in the loss of the individual's moral sense."

Gruesome facts were cited by S. S. McClure of New York in evidence of that assertion. He inquired why our American civilization turns out so badly in having the largest proportion of deaths and injuries by accident, the great number of murders, and the unparalleled

combinations between vice and business. He accounted for our being "in so great arrears because we have not a trained body of men in official positions. We do not have them because, of all the occupations that a young man may enter in the United States, the occupation that affords him the least of honor, of income, of certainty, of permanence, employment in government is the worst."

We cannot have a government by crooks and have a moral community. Moral welfare is absolutely dependent upon government. Any civilization can well be judged by how many chances a baby has to live its first few years and by how many chances that baby has, as it grows up, of becoming a good man or a good woman.

The Illinois Manufacturers' Association has heard less of such talk than any of our commercial bodies, until its last meeting. Gov. W. R. Stubbs of Kansas was expected to reinforce the manufacturers' fight against increasing railway rates, but he included in his vigorous indictment every "alliance between professional politicians, corporation lawyers, and financial and commercial interests, which is concerned in shaping state and federal legislation to serve its own special interests, as a menace to the welfare and life of our republic." And he added that "the relation of the federal government to the unlawful commercial institutions organized for spoils and plunder is one of the most humiliating and disgraceful chapters in American history."

A still more personal warning and appeal were incisively uttered by Gov. Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey. Appealing direct to the very instinct of self-preservation in the captains of industry, he emphasized the dangers to business and the public alike in the exploitation of either in these ringing sentences:

It will not do to exploit the public. The trouble with business in this recent period of extraordinary expansion has been too much exploitation and too little regard for the permanent interests of society. Since workingmen are being dealt with in bodies, they must be dealt with on principles of reciprocity and partnership. We are working in the interest of business and not against it, when we oblige all to regard its action as a process of service, not exploitation.

What a whirlwind is rising against the exploiters who are sowing the wind he thus graphically describes:

What are some men doing? They attend Peace Congresses and sit on the platform in order to sustain the speakers and give them their moral support and applause, and these very men, engaged in business, are exploiting the Orient in such fashion as will inevitably bring on war, because they are ignoring every national prejudice of the people they are dealing with, and they are sowing the seed of passion which some day will spring up in a great crop of absolutely irrepressible bloody strifes.

Our refuge and resource he finds in the kind of politics which "adjusts all affairs to the common interests, and concerns itself with the forces of business." Because of their failure to do this, he declares that "our political parties have come to a day of reckoning and are dissolving. If somebody could draw together the liberal elements of both parties in this country, he could build up a party which could not be beaten in a generation, for the very reason that we would all join in." By "liberals" he meant "the men whose votes you cannot predict."

Despite these very imminent perils to our public and private interests—and the more because of them—there are signs of a better day dawning. The boldness of such utterances as these, and the unchallenged or responsive way in which they are received by hitherto self-assertive or silent bodies of men, betoken the daybreak after the dark night which has so long settled over our moral sense in industry, commerce, and politics.

There are waymarks of progress by which we may measure the advance. One was registered by a little group of Chicago friends of William Kent, congressman-elect from California, in welcoming him back to his old home on his way to the national capital. The ease with which he was elected to Congress as a progressive was contrasted with the difficulty with which he was elected to the Chicago City Council twelve years ago on the issue of common honesty. The overwhelming majorities in Illinois for the initiative and referendum in the last election were recognized to be the legitimate consequence of those first Municipal Voters' League campaigns for integrity and independence in Chicago's city politics. The

gloom under the shadows of the black bribery in the election of a United States senator by the state Legislature, and the shame of the local failures to convict either the legislative bribers or the jury fixers, was lifted a little by the glimpse into the future which was afforded by this glance into the past.

THE PLAY-MAKERS

JOSEPH LEE
Boston

The peculiarity of the recent Playground Institute at Holyoke, Mass., as compared with any other conference that I have attended, was that it was designed, and as it seemed to me successfully carried out, purely for the benefit of those already in the business and not as a means of general propaganda.

Its purpose was to call not the sinners, but the righteous, to repentance, to furnish the actual playground workers with the definite information that they need. Nothing was said as to "why have playgrounds," but a great many very specific things were said as to what kind of playgrounds to have and how to get them. How often ought the sand in a sand-box to be disinfected and how; what is the best kind of a bank for a child to roll down; what are the ten worst kinds of surface for a playground (a good kind has not yet been achieved); are there few enough splinters in maple to make it better than cold iron to slide down—these are the sort of questions that were discussed. Some of the other things we got excited over were: Ought you to have a definite program for a children's corner (saying, for instance, that "hill dill" will be played Tuesdays and Thursdays at 2.30 sharp), and if you have such a program, how closely ought you to stick to it; ought girls to be shunted off into sewing and other quiet occupations because it is so easy to handle them in that way, or ought they to be encouraged to romp; and if you believe in the latter course, don't you have to begin at eight years old, or can a sinner return as late as nine; what are the comparative merits of "London bridge" and "three deep" (both as to the class of game and as to which is the better game of its class) for children under ten. We discussed whether in enlarging our repertoire of national games, it is best to try modifying the existing favorites or inventing new ones.

These are the kinds of questions that Dr. McCurdy, Miss Kennard, and Mr. Affleck of the Y. M. C. A. presented in a most concrete and enlightening manner. Miss LeGarde of Providence spoke of activities of children under ten.

The most exciting meeting was the one addressed by Howard Bradstreet, director of park playgrounds in New York, and George B. Markham, principal of evening recreation center, New York Public School 159, at which meeting it was shown what a system of public recreation really means and how in the concrete it can be applied in the school buildings. Edward W. Stitt, director of playgrounds and recreation centers, Board of Education, New York, at the closing session rubbed in the possibilities of school evening centers, as they are and as they may be, in a way to add to the spiritual burdens of the aspiring member of a school committee. Arthur A. Carey and Hugo Seikel of Waltham told about the principles and methods of the Boy Scouts of America.

I think the institute accomplished its purpose. There were sixty delegates from outside Holyoke, chiefly from New England, and I believe that all of us went back with a more concrete idea of where we were at, and which way we were going, and how.

Incidentally two things bearing on propaganda, as distinguished from the intensive work we came for, did clearly appear to the delegates, namely, that one man who is absolutely red hot on a subject can save a city.

Secondly, it was made evident at the reception Friday evening at Mrs. William G. Dwight's that a good playground campaign may help to fuse and intensify public opinion for all purposes. The mayor and the mayor-elect and others of the leading workers and officials were at the reception, and they seemed embued in an unusual degree with the spirit of youth and hope and local patriotism—partly I think as a result of what they have achieved for playgrounds.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION PUBLICATION

Photo by Hine.

WASH DAY IN A SLAVIC COURT

HOMESTEAD

THE HOUSEHOLDS OF A MILLTOWN

By MARGARET F. BYINGTON

Large 8vo, 292 Pages
40 Tables, 4 Appendices
Illustrated

PRICE POSTPAID $1.70

TWO NEW VOLUMES

Two of the volumes comprising the findings of the Pittsburgh Survey are published this month: "Homestead" by Margaret F. Byington, and "The Steel Workers" by John A. Fitch.

While parts of a set, each is complete in itself and these two are so closely related in many ways as to form companion volumes. Mr. Fitch writes of the men who work for wages in the steel mills; Miss Byington of the families who live on those wages in a steel town. Such a rounded study of the human factors in the master industry of America has not before been attempted.

Two others of the Pittsburgh Survey set were published in 1910: *Women and The Trades, by Elizabeth Bearsley Butler, and Work-Accidents and the Law by Crystal Eastman. The two remaining will be published this year.*

Each volume may be bought separately at the price given below; or the set may be had for $10., *express prepaid. Those buying the set will be sent four volumes on receipt of the order, and the other two as published.*

Homestead, by Margaret F. Byington. Price postpaid, $1.70.

The Steel Workers, by John A. Fitch. Price postpaid, $1.71.

Women and the Trades, by Elizabeth B. Butler. Price postpaid, $1.72.

Work-Accidents and the Law, by Crystal Eastman. Price postpaid, $1.71.

The Pittsburgh District, by John R. Commons, Robert A. Woods, Florence Kelley, Charles Mulford Robinson and others. In preparation.

Pittsburgh: The Gist of The Survey, by Paul U. Kellogg. In preparation.

THE MILL HOUSEHOLDS

Miss Byington's HOMESTEAD studies our two oldest social institutions, the family and the town, as they are brought into contact with a new and insurgent third, the factory. It raises sharply the questions: Have home and town held their own against the mill? Has local self-government kept abreast of a nationalized industry? What has prosperity brought to the rank and file of the steel workers? The answers are drawn from the author's experience of a year spent among the people who earned the money, and ate the food, and lived in the houses that make up Homestead; and in her household budgets and other statistical matter.

The book begins with the Great Strike—many things in Homestead began or ended with the Great Strike. There are chapters on Table and Dinner Pail, Rent, Children, Human Relationships, The Slavs; and one chapter which tells in simple, bread-and-butter terms the family story of Life at $1.65 a Day, —what was paid to common labor.

This volume, perhaps more than the others of the set, tells in human values—of men at their work and women in their homes and children in their growth—the story of life and labor which the Pittsburgh Survey is unfolding. It is not a story for student and social worker alone, but for every reader who would know what underlies the drive

THE COMMON WELFARE

CIVIC FEDERATION FOR UNIFORM LAWS

Underlying all the special subjects of discussion at the annual conference in New York of the National Civic Federation, a body whose members represent pre-eminently industry carried on on a national scale, was the theme of practically wiping out state lines by uniform state legislation on certain subjects, and by extending the scope of federal legislation on others.

At the first session on January 12, which was devoted to regulation of monopolies, there was substantial unison on the part of all the speakers with Samuel Untermyer's charge that in the twenty years of its existence the Sherman anti-trust law had proved effectual only against labor unions, and groups of small capitalists who had combined to protect themselves against the great trusts. Both Mr. Untermyer and Samuel Gompers condemned any law which aimed equally at organizations for raising the price of coal and pork, and those for protecting wages and working conditions of men.

In place of the Sherman law, Mr. Untermyer, in common with Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell, Edgar A. Bancroft, counsel for the International Harvester Company, and others, advocated federal license or incorporation of trusts and their regulation by a commission, with such powers as that established by the Canadian combines act of May, 1910. The possibility was even suggested of the regulation of maximum prices by the government—an interesting proposition which recalls the medieval principle of fair price, which was swept away by the *laissez faire* principles of the last century.

At the afternoon session what was almost in the nature of a spirited discussion took place. Two industrial engineers, Harrington Emerson and H. L. Gantt, pointed out the advantages of industrial efficiency. The former claimed that if all industrial waste were eliminated the full amount of saving would go to the workers. The latter outlined a bonus system, paid in part to worker and in part to overseer, by which the workers' output could be vastly increased and the increase redound entirely to his own advantage. In reply to the claims of these two speakers, Warren S. Stone of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers held that the bonus system leads not to efficiency, but to bad work, and instanced an example in his own trade where work was so hastily and carelessly done in order to show quantity instead of quality and get the bonus, that it had to be done over seven times before it was permanent. He said, furthermore, that the bonus system resulted in pace-making, and was especially vicious because the bonus made the overseer a tyrant. John Mitchell offered substantially the same objections, claiming that the bonus system becomes in reality a method of over-working employes in order to increase profits.

At the Friday morning session Alton B. Parker discussed uniform legislation in its

PRISON VISITING IN 1787.

The *Journal of Prison Discipline*, published by the Pennsylvania Prison Society of Philadelphia, tells in the current issue of the beginning of prison visiting by members of the society. The warden was so doubtful of the effect that he had the prisoners assemble before a loaded cannon to hear the gospel preached by the Rev. William Rogers.

Morris in Spokane Spokesman-Review.

THE PIED PIPER UP TO DATE.

general aspects. He was followed by experts on law, insurance, and other subjects. Of special social interest was the address of John Williams, commissioner of labor of New York, on the need of such uniformity in labor laws of all states as the Child Labor Committee is endeavoring to accomplish in its field, if for no other reason than to relieve the states with decent labor laws of unfair competition from those whose laws are bad.

UNIFORMITY OF COMPENSATION

In the matter of compensation for industrial accidents the first step toward uniformity has already been taken in the proposals formulated at a meeting of commissioners of the different states in Chicago a short time ago.[1]

The uniform compensation bill proposed by the federation's committee on compensation was outlined by the chairman, P. Tecumseh Sherman, and the principle underlying compensation was vigorously supported by Theodore Roosevelt, who declared that our present liability laws and court decisions on accident cases represent a social philosophy which was applicable to the working conditions of over a hundred years ago. He repudiated the idea of the workman's freedom of contract, and said that owing to the inevitable risks of modern industry a workman's chances of death in working on a modern building are greater than those of a soldier in such a battle as Santiago or Manila. He urged that the full advantages of compensation be extended to aliens working in the United States.

The compensation act proposed by the federation provides four years' wages to a dead man's dependents, not to exceed $3,000, and in cases of injury fifty per cent of earnings for a period not to exceed ten years. Weekly payments are in no case to exceed ten dollars, nor are payments to be continued after the sufferer has reached the age of sixty.

In discussing arbitration and conciliation at the last session of the conference, C. J. Doyle, chairman of the Illinois Board of Arbitration, was in substantial agreement with E. W. Frost of the Wisconsin board, who preceded him. He spoke in the highest terms of the efficacy of the Erdman act, which has made possible the amicable adjustment of the demands of the employes on interstate railroads, to the extent of a $5,000,000 wage increase. He suggested the possibility that this federal act might be extended to carriers by water. He also strongly advised the pushing of state arbitration laws modelled on the Canadian act, which provides for compulsory suspension of hostilities during investigation of the causes of dispute. In case even so slight an element of compulsion were deemed un-American, he argued that the right be given state arbitration boards to investigate without invitation from either side, and, if possible,so soon as trouble threatens.

Seth Low, president of the federation, proposed an amendment to the New York law, some of whose provisions were later outlined by the chairman of the New York commission, A. C. Rogers. Mr. Low's amendment, which would add twenty-five citizens to the Board of Arbitrators, was designed with the object of bringing into play that disinterested public opinion which he held to be a most valuable element in arbitration. James Duncan, vice-president of the American Federation of Labor, opposed any ap-

[1] See THE SURVEY for December 10, 1910.

proach to such a scheme as the Canadian act, on the ground that a compulsory suspension of hostilities at the beginning of a strike takes away the workers greatest advantage in trying to enforce their demands—the power to strike without notice. He held that arbitration boards in general tend to encroach on the freedom of labor, and that the trade agreement is the best preventive of industrial warfare. Marcus M. Marks spoke in support of the Canadian act.

The following officers were elected for this year:

Seth Low, president; Samuel Gompers, Nahum J. Bachelder, Ellison A. Smyth, Benjamin Wheeler, vice-presidents; Isaac H. Seligman, treasurer; Ralph M. Easley, chairman executive council; William R. Willcox, chairman welfare department; John Hays Hammond, chairman committee on organization; John Mitchell, chairman trade agreement department; Alton B. Parker, chairman committee on uniform state legislation; August Belmont, chairman department compensation for industrial accidents; George W. Perkins, chairman wage-earners' insurance commission; Nicholas Murray Butler, chairman industrial economics department; Mrs. John Hays Hammond, chairman, woman's department; E. R. A. Seligman, chairman taxation department; D. L. Cease, secretary; B. J. Greenhut, V. E. Macy, Mrs. F. McN. Bacon, Mrs. Samuel Spencer, Leo Rowe, James Duncan, James Lynch, J. C. Richberg, nominating committee.

TRUSTEES CHOSEN FOR HARMLESS PHOSPHORUS

The Diamond Match Company has carried out its offer to assign to trustees its patent rights to the use of sesquisulphide of phosphorus for matches. The trustees selected are Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman of Columbia University; Charles P. Neill, United States commissioner of labor; and Jackson Ralston, an attorney for the American Federation of Labor. They have absolute power to fix terms which they think are fair, under which all match manufacturers who have not already arranged for licenses giving to them the right to use this non-poisonous substitute for white phosphorus may acquire this privilege. Their names are a guarantee that all will receive fair treatment and no one will be so suspicious as to charge them with being under the domination of the match trust. This arrangement is in accordance with the plan followed in Great Britain at the time white phosphorus was prohibited there.

Philadelphia Record.

IF THIS BE COMPETITION, MAKE THE MOST OF IT.

In a letter to the ways and means committee of the House of Representatives, the independent manufacturers declare that "this trust agreement, coupled with the amended contracts between the Diamond Company and ourselves, effectually meets all the objections and arguments that have been made against the favorable consideration of the bill now before you (the Esch bill) on the ground that its passage would tend to create a monopoly in the manufacture of matches." The match companies have also withdrawn their request that "a clause fixing the duty on matches imported into this country that will fairly protect the industry" be incorporated in the Esch bill.

Shortly after the Christmas holidays a bill was introduced in Congress by Representative Mann of Illinois, chairman of the committee on interstate and foreign commerce, prohibiting interstate commerce in matches manufactured from white phosphorus and providing that any person shall have the right to use upon fair terms any patents covering ingredients which may be used as a substitute for white phosphorus. This bill would

be ineffective, for small local factories could be established for intra-state trade which, owing to the fear that state legislation might be passed on the subject, would be cheaply constructed and so would tend to spread phosphorus necrosis. The provision as to the acquisition of the right to use patents is of doubtful legality and would in all likelihood be contested. So far as patents held by the Diamond Company are concerned it is unnecessary in view of the assignment made. The introduction of this second bill is calculated to confuse the issue and may prevent the passage of any legislation on the subject.

The investigation of phosphorus necrosis in American match factories, inaugurated by the American Association for Labor Legislation, and conducted by the United States Bureau of Labor, continues to scare the Diamond Match Trust. The first effect of the exposure was the abandonment by the Diamond Company of its factory in Portland, Me. This was one of the worst match factories in the country. The next effect was to substitute a policy of publicity for one of suppression as to the facts concerning phosphorus necrosis. The latest concession of the Diamond Company to public opinion is transfer of the legal title of its patent.

PREVENT CRIME TO REDUCE POVERTY

The administration of the so-called "inferior criminal courts" received special attention at the twenty-eighth annual meeting on the evening of January 10 of the New York Charity Organization Society. All those who learned from the graphic and witty narrative by Chief Magistrate William McAdoo how the former confusion and hurly-burly in these courts has been replaced by a patient, impartial, orderly and decent administering of justice, which enhances to many thousands the majesty of the law, realize the importance of the reform wrought in the past four months. No longer do "stout, surly policemen with protruding viscera," order the innocent inquirer to "g'wan out of here." The elbowing, jostling crowd of "complainants, defendants, clerks, court attendants, policemen, murderers, representatives of the press, shysters, witnesses, political bosses and curiosity seekers" all trying to get a whispered word in the private ear of the magistrate, is a scene of the past.

Robert W. deForest in his opening speech as president, after giving a brief summary of the history of the society for the past year, stated that the formation of a special committee to give attention to the administration of justice in our criminal courts "simply emphasizes the development of our sphere of work increasing along the lines of preventive or constructive charity," and shows a proper recognition of the fact that "injustice or imperfect methods of securing justice are among the chief causes of misery and want."

Bronson Winthrop, chairman of the committee and a member of the Page Commission which reorganized the Courts of Special Sessions and the magistrates' courts, outlined the importance of the work undertaken. "These courts," Mr. Winthrop declared, "are inferior only in their jurisdiction. Their immediate effect on our civilization is as important, in many ways more important, than our higher courts. Consider that to 200,000 persons who are brought into these courts in one year, to that vast multitude with their friends and witnesses, a city magistrate represents the embodiment of American justice." Not only are these courts educational, but also really charitable rather than judicial in their operation. "Many of the cases brought before these courts, I may almost say the majority of them, are in no sense criminal; they are merely unfortunate."

Mr. Winthrop explained also the benefit which has followed from greater uniformity of action on the part of the various magistrates. The main specific achievements of the new régime, in his opinion, have been the abolition of the "bridge" with its obvious opportunities for favoritism and the exclusion of the public; the establishment of the Domestic Relations Court and of the summons system, which reduces the number of

needless arrests, and the installation of more adequate records.

Julius M. Mayer, who was counsel to the Page Commission, briefly outlined some of the objects that body had in view in drafting the new law. Perhaps the most interesting point brought out by him was that in the Men's Night Court, "during the four months ending December 31, 1910, 6,865 cases have been disposed of and of this number almost one-half have been discharged, so that some 3,400, during the short period of four months, have not been detained over night but have had a speedy hearing." This, in his opinion, constitutes a full justification of the Men's Night Court.

REFORMS OF FOUR MONTHS

Chief Magistrate McAdoo concluded the program by telling the story of the accomplishment of the first four months under the new law. "To start the course in the new and better way, the law provided for a change in the physical surroundings of the court-room to make the proceedings more open to the public, and give to them the air of a well-conducted, orderly, judicial tribunal."

In pursuance of this policy separate rooms for the preferring of complaints have been set aside at each court and the "bridge" has been abolished. The 120 policemen who have rejoiced in immunity from "good, honest police duty" through political pull or by conveniently incurring lumbago have been replaced by civilian attendants. "So radical has been the improvement in these courts, that people accustomed to former methods and conditions could hardly make themselves believe that such evils were allowed to exist for so long a time."

Summonses, which formerly were passed out to lawyers, complainants and court-room loungers "as freely as hay is fed to animals in the zoo," are now issued in book form and numbered, which makes it necessary to account for each one.

The appointment of the special committee of the Charity Organization Society, which has among its members a former justice of the Court of Appeals who resigned to be a candidate for president of the United States,[1] marks an increasing appreciation of the importance of these tribunals which deal with the everyday tragedies of human lives, and not solely with large money interests as do many of the more pretentious higher courts. This fact was further evidenced by a good attendance of the members of the society, who listened to a serious discussion of a subject that formerly many would have thought hardly a proper theme to which to devote the entire program of an annual meeting of a charity organization society.

Denver Post.

A CENT IN THE BANK IS WORTH TWO IN THE CANDY STORE.

AGREEMENT REACHED IN CHICAGO GARMENT STRIKE

On terms which, from the standpoint of the strikers, are an improvement over those recently rejected, the long struggle of the Chicago garment workers,[2] so far as the 10,000 who struck in the shops of Hart, Schaffner and Marx are concerned, came to an end on January 14. A week before an agreement had been reached with a smaller concern, Sturm, Mayer and Company, employing about 500. The interval was occupied with conferences among the strikers which enabled their representatives to deal definitely and

[1] For a full list of the members of the committee and a statement of its scope and plans see THE SURVEY for October 29, 1910.

[2] See THE SURVEY for November 19, December 10, December 17, December 24, 1910, January 7, 1911.

quickly with the employers on a basis already acceptable to the strikers.

The final agreement differs from the rejected agreement in three particulars. Most important is the elimination of the clause under which the firm could refuse to re-employ strikers who had been guilty of violence. This was the provision to which the strikers had taken most determined exception, fearing that it would be used as a pretext to refuse to take back those who had been prominent in leading the strike and recruiting the union. The other changes are that the board of arbitration is to consist of three instead of five members, and that,—specifically,—there shall be no discrimination against the members of the United Garment Workers of America, this in place of a general assurance of no discrimination against any member of an organization. All former employes of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, who were on strike, were to be taken back within ten days. The arbitration committee was to be chosen within three days, one member by the firm, one by the strikers, and the third by these two. It is to take up, consider, and adjust whatever grievances, if any, the employes of Hart, Schaffner and Marx shall have, and shall fix a method for the settlement of grievances if any, in the future. The finding of the arbitration committee, or a majority thereof, shall be binding upon both parties."

It is understood that in addition to the 10,000 to be re-employed, the firm is to select and employ 2,000 of the best workers among the 20,000 strikers who remain out.

The Sturm, Mayer and Company agreement was in the form of a letter from the firm to its striking employes, stating that all former employes would be taken back within ten days; that there would be no discrimination and no objection to employes belonging to any organization they may see fit. It goes further than the Hart, Schaffner and Marx agreement, in that it specifically provides for shop representation.

The Hart, Schaffner and Marx arbitration committee was to be selected by January 17. On that day each hall meeting of the striking employes of the firm was to choose three representatives. All of these were to meet with the strike executive committee and the joint conference board to select the labor member of the arbitration committee.

The successful negotiations toward an agreement were conducted after the strikers had all voted on the specific terms. In this respect the procedure differs from that used in the case of the rejected agreement, which was first formulated by the joint conference board, approved by them and the Chicago Federation of Labor and accepted by Hart, Schaffner and Marx, and then repudiated by vote of the strikers themselves. The final agreement was first approved early last week by a vote of the strikers, ninety-seven per cent of which was favorable. At the same time a resolution was passed authorizing and instructing the joint conference board to offer the terms of agreement decided upon to the strike-bound concerns, and giving the board the power—when the agreement should be signed by any firm—to call the strike settled so far as that firm was concerned and order its employes back to work. The strikers' executive committee and joint conference board chose John Fitzpatrick, president of the Chicago Federation of Labor, Thomas A. Rickert president of the United Garment Workers of America, Mrs. Raymond Robins president of the Women's Trade Union League, and H. C. Harris, a cutter representing the strikers directly, as a committee to present the proposed agreement to the various firms. The settlement with Hart, Schaffner and Marx has greatly encouraged the committee to hope for success with the other firms to which they have already presented or are about to present the agreement.

RICHARD H. LANE

FRANCIS H. McLEAN

Richard H. Lane, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Montreal, died in that city on December 5, after a short illness.

Mr. Lane was a native of Vermont. After his graduation from Vermont

College he spent some time in settlement work in London. Upon his return to this country he was a resident for several years of the New York University Settlement, and for a time was connected with the Charity Organization Society. His field of service also extended to the Pro-cathedral and in other directions.

But his longest and most valuable service was undoubtedly performed in Montreal, where he went in 1902 to occupy the position which he held to the day of his death. It was the writer's privilege to occupy the same position from the inception of the society in 1900 until Mr. Lane's appointment. So in a peculiar and intimate way he can estimate the value of Mr. Lane's eight years of hard work, realizing how roughly the ground had been ploughed then and how well cultivated it is now. The weight of influence, the good feeling of the many groups, the bulk of the service rendered —the chief agent responsible for all this has been Mr. Lane, for in one thing he was deficient—he did not know how to spare himself; he was not always just to himself. This undoubtedly hastened the end. But at least he had the deep satisfaction of knowing that in that strangely complicated city of the North he had accomplished amazing weldings; had made many differing personalities unite on common standards; had accomplished almost the impossible. For the society has not only been the most potent force in the social progress of Montreal, but has steadily developed a mutual understanding among most diverse and conflicting interests.

He bent everything to his purposes. The so-called society life of the city sought him, and in such cunning ways he combined service with social pleasure that constantly some profit was coming to the great movement he represented. Not that he himself did not find healthy, normal pleasure in society, but he bent it to his purposes, which were not to his own profit, but to that of the many. His unselfishness was put to the test, for local opportunities in other directions, offering larger pecuniary returns and demanding less strain, presented themselves, but were pushed aside, though physically he was not over strong. He believed the work he was doing was his work and he fought in the harness to the last.

Yet so essentially was he a man of the world, using that term in its best sense, that by his actions, not by word of mouth, was one able to judge just how deep and firm and good were the foundations of this jovial companion, with his piquant flavor of cynicism, his raillery, his toleration which shocked others with more confined views, his general "all aroundness."

"A strong and cheerful soul," might well be Richard Lane's epitaph.

LIMITING WOMEN'S WORKING HOURS

FLORENCE KELLEY
Secretary National Consumers' League

The enactment of laws limiting women's working hours is an immediately urgent task, with thirty-six legislatures in session in 1911, and the Southern Conference on Women's and Children's Labor pledged to introduce bills on this subject in nine southern states.

The state supreme courts having within the year sustained the Louisiana, Illinois and Michigan statutes, thus further confirming the principle of limited working hours, the path is clear for greater gains in 1911 than have ever before been made in one year.

Our efforts now rest upon the firm foundation of favorable judicial decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, and of the states of Massachusetts, Nebraska, Oregon, Washington, Louisiana, Michigan and Illinois — the Illinois court having reversed in 1900 its adverse decision.

In the most difficult task of all, in saving such laws, when enacted, from annulment by the courts, the present simple method of co-operation has worked quite perfectly whereby, whenever a case was pending as to the constitutionality of a statute, the Consumers' League placed at the disposal of the court, in a brief prepared under the direction of Louis D. Brandeis, the common knowledge of the subject in relation to the public health,

and all the organizations interested united in making public opinion, each in its own way.

No statute has been annulled since this method has been applied. In two years since January, 1908, statutes have been sustained by the courts of the United States, Louisiana, Illinois, Michigan and Virginia. In a case now pending in Nebraska the indications are that the law will be sustained. The points at issue are the employment of women at night and an alleged insufficiency in the title.

In so vast and difficult a field of action as that of getting forty-one statutes in as many states to restrict the working hours of women, the first preliminary to co-operation is a common goal; and the second is a careful distribution of parts. As our immediate goal the following is suggested:

A working week of six days; not more than sixty hours. preferably fifty-six, fifty-four or forty-eight.

Abolition of night work.

A closing hour set at 6 P. M. in the textile industries and not later than 10 P. M. in others, following the precedent of Massachusetts.

A working day of ten hours, preferably not more than nine or eight.

A short working day on Saturday, if provided, should not depend upon longer hours on other working days.

Working hours to be posted where the persons named in the notice actually do work, not in remote corners; posted notice to show hours of beginning and hours of stopping for noon hour; hours of beginning and stopping in the afternoon; presence on premises to constitute *prima facie* evidence of employment.

The words "permitted or suffered to work" are indispensable in addition to "required" in the prohibiting sections.

No industries should be exempted in the text of the bill.

The title should state that the measure is to promote the public health (or the health of the employes designated) and must contain every subject mentioned in the text. (The statute of Nebraska is attacked because its title is defective.)

A bill containing these provisions is in preparation by the National Consumers' League, modeled on the general scheme of the standard child labor law, *i. e.*, containing all the best provisions now in force in any state. It will be published this month.

After these essentials of proposed legislation are accepted, each organization interested should immediately urge upon all its local organizations and isolated correspondents in states in which legislatures will be sitting (except Michigan which has its newly sustained statute) to get at once into touch with all available local forces and work together for an improved law during 1911.

The following proposed distribution of parts is of course purely tentative:

Wherever the trade unions,—particularly the Women's Trade Union League,—are strong, they will naturally introduce a bill for the eight-hour day and all organizations interested will rally to its support.

Where bills are already pending, as in New York, where the Workingmen's Assembly has long been pushing a bill for the ten-hour day and the fifty-four hour week for women and minors over sixteen years of age, like the laws now in force in Rhode Island and Michigan, we are all morally bound to support them. The New York Child Labor Committee and the New York Consumers' League are already doing so in that state.

Where trade unions are absent or weak, as in New Hampshire and South Carolina, the other organizations might well try for the adoption of the Oregon law. In such states we must all unite in educating public opinion in favor of the ten-hour day.

The National Consumers' League is arranging for the introduction of a Congressional bill for the District of Columbia because, although the number of persons concerned is small, the discussion of congressional bills is nation-wide and of very great educational value. Although Congress has never used its powers in this direction during the long period when it could legislate for the territories, it may follow up its recent child labor law with a statute regulating the working hours of women in the District of Columbia in line with the decision of United States Supreme Court in the Oregon case.

All the organizations interested will naturally help by enlisting all their local forces to educate their representatives and senators in favor of the proposed District of Columbia bill.

THE CORRECTION AND PREVENTION OF CRIME

EDWARD T. DEVINE

For the detection and punishment of crime we have invented and inherited an elaborate scheme of police, judiciary, and prisons. The police, it is true, serves also incidentally other purposes, such as the regulation of traffic and directing strangers to their destinations. Courts settle disputes as well as try criminals. Prisons, on the other hand, were invented for no other purpose than the punishment of crime. Now prisons, courts, and police are very expensive and it must be admitted very disagreeable institutions. The naïve pleasure and moral benefit which citizens of junior republics are said to derive from the operation of their courts and jails are certainly not reflected in the larger world. A Broadway police parade is very inspiring, but not so a raid, an arrest, an arraignment in court, the leading away of a sentenced prisoner, the administration of torture to secure evidence—or almost any of the routine work of an ordinary policeman in his relation to crime.

Who, with any spark of sympathy and inagination, can stand in a criminal court, whether of higher jurisdiction where great lawyers are pitted against each other, and the issues are of life and death, or of lower jurisdiction where the worst that can befall the convicted prisoner is a term of six months in a workhouse, without turning fairly sick at heart? An angry spectator denounces the public sentence to a hospital, pronounced upon a woman who had been certified to have a shameful disease. But if we were not hardened by custom, we would feel much the same in regard to all the sentences pronounced daily upon men, women, and children in the hearing and sight of their fellow creatures. The Christ was crushed not by approaching death, but by social misery; the sorrow of Gethsemane and the agony of Calvary come again in the court room to any son of man in proportion to his clearness of vision and his greatness of soul.

One may understand crime and the criminal precisely in the degree in which he compreheuds that not the individual standing there at whom stones are to be thrown, but literally the community itself, the individuals who surround the prisoner—judge, jury, advocate, and spectators—above all, the spectators—are responsible for this thing that we call crime. We measure our incapacity for self-control and for decent social control by the size and brutality of our police force. We sound the depth of our failure to deal with crime by the strength of our prisons and the subtle learning of our courts.

One to whom this gigantic social failure comes home vividly for the first time may easily lose his moorings. If police, courts, and prisons are expensive to maintain and ugly to contemplate at close range, why not join hands with any revolutionists who promise to rid us of them entirely, or to bring such a social and economic order as will make them unnecessary? This is a sound impulse. Just such a revolution is indispensable. But the revolution must go to the root of the matter; and the root of this matter is character. The best programs are those which seem likely to give us social institutions both permanent and beneficent; and those institutions are permanent which have their foundations in the past. Police, courts, and prisons have not been erected artificially out of hand to serve private or selfish ends. They have grown normally, gradually, and their roots are in social needs. We

are not to destroy, but to transform them. They are ugly—not because they were made so, but because our ideas have changed; because our standards have been raised. They have been useful in the past. They now represent a partial mal-adjustment. They must be adapted to our present and future needs, and any features which cannot thus be transformed must be eliminated—gradually, normally, but thoroughly.

The new penal system has been taking shape for two generations or more and is now practically complete—not with any ultimate unchangeable completeness, but complete in the sense that one may boldly accept it, and resolutely challenge all those demonstrably obsolete and destructive features which make it unfit to serve its purpose. Some of those features are mere ideas, theories, assumptions, traditions. Others are concrete obstacles embodied in brick and mortar, or in legislative enactments and court decisions. On the whole the latter are more vulnerable than the former. Americans have never stood long helpless before a physical obstacle. Of mountains, rivers, deserts we have made easy conquest. Manufacturers scrap their machinery, and business men replace comparatively new buildings with newer and better ones, without the least hesitation. But our traditions and theories are the most tenacious and obstinate in the world. When, therefore, we speak of concrete obstacles to reform on the one hand, and mere ideas and assumptions on the other, we put our "mere" in the wrong place. We could get rid of dirty jails and infected prisons and obsolete penal codes quickly enough, if it were not for pernicious traditions and false assumptions. We would be fortunate indeed if we had to do merely with the concrete results of our ancestors' errors. Unfortunately we have some of their errors and some of our own still to expose and eradicate. Not that we are exposing them for the first time. Our reformers are by no means lacking in originality, but nevertheless they are called upon to repeat for the thousandth time demonstrations long since complete; to expose again fallacies long since exploded; to lay anew foundations which were as sound a generation ago as logic and science and practical statesmanship could make them. Still the new penology grows stronger and more convincing as demonstration is added to demonstration, proof piled upon proof; and the bad ideas, the false assumptions, the vicious practices of our conventional penal system are surely crumbling.

The very center and citadel of the old order which is passing away is the assumption underlying the system of fixed penalties for crimes. It is assumed that for every specific offense there is an appropriate and invariable penalty, which can be determined in advance by the legislature or discovered through some mysterious illumination at the moment of sentence by the judge. The sentence is to fit the crime. Nothing is easier than to demonstrate *a priori* the absurdity of this assumption, unless it is to accumulate, *a posteriori,* instances of its absolute failure in practice. Yet the idea persists. Obviously there is no such inevitable and natural relation between specific offenses and the prescribed punishment. Obviously, if there were, there must be gross injustice in the complete lack of uniformity with which the punishments are meted out in different states, at different periods in the same state, by different judges, and even in the same court by the same judge on different days. It would be tedious to repeat the arguments against the system of definite fixed sentences, or to reproduce the comparative tables of sentences which expose its absurdity and destroy every vestige of respect which one might have retained for so venerable and universal an institution. The assumption that there is a just and natural penalty for every crime is false. It must be abandoned.

And yet, in times past this assumption had its justification. There are regions where the recognition of the principle today would be progress. As against arbitrary punishments, having not even a theoretical relation to the offense, the system of definite punishments is certainly to be preferred. As a protection against tyranny it is well to have a penal

code, to which the people or their freely chosen representatives must give their assent, a code roughly at least corresponding to popular ideas as to the relative gravity of different offenses; a code which fixes maximum penalties and determines definitely which particular acts or omissions shall be considered crimes, leaving nothing to the despotic will of the ruler. It is conceivable that conditions may again arise among us in which such safeguards are necessary. Individual civil rights, including the right to trial by jury and the right to be punished within measure by a scale determined and known in advance, have been secured at a great price and may not be lightly thrown aside. Herein lies the strength of the system which we now find on its merits so unsatisfactory and so essentially unjust. The protection of individual rights now rests upon firmer ground.

Our dangers lie in a different direction. It is not the autocrat, but the outgrown social institution, against which society requires protection. Not the legislature or the executive, but the constitution and the prevailing judicial and administrative procedure, are in the way of progress; or rather, carrying the analysis one step farther, our difficulties are not so much with the constitution and procedure, as with our own reluctance to amend and modernize them. Knowledge and conviction have gone far ahead of existing mechanism and habit. The clash is none the less real because it is not between two distinct classes, between a ruling class and a revolting class, for example; but rather between our own selves of tradition and habit on the one hand, and our selves of the present environment and new standards. These conflicts with our own inherited traditions and habits are perhaps the most exasperating and tragic of all. Leaders are scarce in such conflicts. There are generals enough for any war against an external foe. Political leaders arise in abundance when the time comes to smash the trusts, or curb the railways. But in the more critical and the more vital tasks of transforming our institutions and methods to make them fit our present needs we require leadership of a somewhat different kind. There are of course conspicuous examples of leaders who have capacity in both directions; and these are the natural heroes of social progress.

Next in importance after the false assumption of the possibility of adjusting penalties to crimes, and prior to it in time, are the traditions of vengeance and expiation. It may well be that our new scheme of penology, as Professor Adler has suggested, will still give some place to all the various sanctions which historically have entered into the social conception of the relation of society to crime. Perhaps we shall always think to some extent of punishment as expiation and as the execution of vengeance. The trouble is that as yet we give these elements an altogether undue place in our thoughts.

The underlying idea of the new penology is social protection. The means to that end are three: prevention, reformation of the corrigible, and isolation of the incorrigible. All of the new features of the social treatment of crime grow naturally from this central conception of social protection and all would seem to be illustrations of one or another of the three means by which we seek to give effect to it. Reformatory, indeterminate sentence, probation, probationary fine, juvenile court, employment of prisoners at educational tasks, separation of corrigible from incorrigible, parole, aid to discharged prisoners, modern prison architecture, and sanitation, the definite organization of preventive educational agencies, the socializing of our police, and the very reform of government in order to bring it into closer accord with our ideals of justice—these things, together with others like them, make up our new penology, and the unifying conception underlying it all is social protection. We think less of the atrocity of particular crimes now-a-days and more of the social order in which the temptation and the opportunity to commit crime are at a minimum. We think less of the personal depravity of the individual criminal and more as to what, if anything, we can find in him out of which to make a law-abiding and useful citizen.

Of the souvenir volumes[1] it is to be said, first of all, that they embody the best thought of many men and women who have thought to some purpose; the ripe experience of administrators who have really administered and not merely held office; the definite programs of reformers who have been so fortunate as to exercise a genuine reformative influence in the old world as well as in the new; and at least some first fruits of scholars whose labors both in scientific research and in the application of the results of their studies to a difficult and complicated set of practical problems have already won recognition. The names of Captain Lynds, Brockway, McClaughry, and Mrs. Johnson among administrators; of Dorothea Dix, Wines, father and son, and Barrows, man and wife, among reformers; and the two principal authors of the volumes before us, Professor Henderson and Dr. Hart, among scholars, may be mentioned without incurring the danger of invidious distinctions. The brief biographies of Livingston, Lieber, and Dwight, and the liberal quotations from Dugdale and Warner, connect the volumes with some of the best American scholarship of earlier years; and special contributions appear from many active men of our own time. Even though it involves some repetition we must name them all: Frederick Howard Wines, Frank B. Sanborn, Z. R. Brockway, W. M. F. Round, Isabel C. Barrows, Robert W. McClaughry, Joseph P. Byers, Paul U. Kellogg, Amos W. Butler, Richard Sylvester, Warren F. Spaulding, Frederick G. Pettigrove, A. J. McKelway, Joseph F. Scott, James A. Leonard, Robert V. Ladow, William J. Batt, Julius B. Ransom, Robert B. Lamb, Mary W. Dewson, Frederic Almy, William H. Pear, Roswell C. McCrea, Bernard Flexner, Julian W. Mack, Harvey H. Baker, Franklin Chase Hoyt, Henry W. Thurston, Homer Folks. If liberal quotations are taken into account the list becomes even more representative of active social work and vigorous thought on social subjects in the United States: Jane Addams, Graham Taylor, Lawrence Veiller, Jacob A. Riis, Joseph Lee, William H. Allen, Henry M. Boies, O. F. Lewis, B. C. Marsh, Luther H. Gulick, Irving Fisher, Hugh F. Fox, John Dewey, F. W. Blackmar, E. P. Bicknell, Felix Adler, and even Theodore Roosevelt and President Taft, come into the volumes in this informal way—some of them, in fact, having written to the editor letters which are scarcely less important than the signed articles.

To Professor Henderson and his associates we extend our hearty congratulations on the success with which they have carried out the plan which they conceived. If there is any point on which a word of criticism may appear to be necessary this lies not in the execution, but in the plan itself. Nothing is, perhaps, more ungracious than to criticise a work which is good of its kind because it did not try to be something else. Nevertheless, we cannot help indulging the speculation as to what Professor Henderson could have done if, instead of pursuing the policy of compilation and quotation, he had assembled all the splendid material which he presents in these volumes, and the still larger amount which he has obviously had at his disposal, had thoroughly digested it all and had then presented to the delegates the concentrated result in a brief well-written volume half as large as any one of these four. It would have been more generally read, it would have reflected even greater credit on American scholarship, and it might easily have become a classic handbook of reference. The present work can scarcely serve such a purpose. It resembles too much the proceedings of the congress itself, or of the National Prison Congress. One feels like congratulating the editor when he could not find an

[1]Correction and Prevention. Four volumes prepared for the eighth International Prison Congress. Edited by Charles Richmond Henderson. Russell Sage Foundation Publications. New York, 1910. Charities Publication Committee. Price per volume $2.50 net; price per set $10 express prepaid. The four volumes are as follows:

Prison Reform. By various writers. Pp. 320. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.66.

Penal and Reformatory Institutions. By sixteen writers. Pp. 350. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.70.

Preventive Agencies and Methods. By Charles R. Henderson. Pp. 440. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.68.

Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children. By Hastings H. Hart, assisted by others. Pp. 420. Price $2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.70.

apropos quotation. He is then able to express his own conclusions and convictions with clearness and vigor. The objection to the policy of quotation is that it never quite fits the need, though to a superficial reader it may appear to do so. An amusing illustration of this arises in the volume on Preventive Agencies and Methods. We find on page 292, under a discussion of immigration, an extended quotation from a personal letter to the author, introduced by the explanation that the writer is himself an immigrant and one of the illustrious citizens of America. The introduction is perfectly just and the letter is interesting; but on page 384, in discussing the public school as a social center, we find *in extenso* the same letter, with the same tribute to the illustrious citizen, himself an immigrant. Even so genial a correspondent as Jacob Riis might well prefer not to be introduced as an immigrant twice to the same audience. This, of course, is an accident such as might happen to anyone, but it is mentioned as typical of the danger inherent in the method. Irrelevant matter, such as the details of the Barge Canal dispute on pages 89-91, is bound to creep in. It is difficult to exercise judicious discrimination as to the selection of authorities. For example, our good friend, Dr. S. Adolphus Knopf (page 104), may well be pardoned for his slip as to who furnishes the scholarships for children kept out of school in New York by the child labor law, as this is not one of the subjects on which he claims to be an authority; but for this very reason he should not have been quoted on a subject which is so fully covered by accessible publications of the child labor committees. Even the present writer, while appreciating the compliment of quotation, might fairly protest against appearing as sponsor for the statement in Bliss's Encyclopædia as to the number of charity organization societies "at present," when there was available, in a special department of the very foundation under whose auspices these volumes were published, information three years later and more than three times as valuable for the present purpose. The plan of quotation involves repetition, as in the repeated accounts of the founding of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, some omissions, and some lack of co-ordination.

These may well be thought to be trifling defects when compared to the great merit of the work. One must not be captious, or unmindful of the sudden increase of responsibility thrown upon the shoulders of the editor in the midst of the preparations for the congress, and of the magnificent way in which Professor Henderson met these doubled and tripled demands. No one would recognize more quickly, however, than the editor of these volumes, that it would be but a sorry compliment to praise these labors as they deserve, and remain silent on the question as to whether, if circumstances had permitted, another method of treatment might not have yielded better results.

This question arises also in a less degree in connection with the concluding volume, edited and largely written by H. H. Hart. Here, also, there is some repetition, as when the author tells us on page 23 and again on page 26 that both Minnesota and Iowa have employed women as state agents; and there is some lack of co-ordination, as when Dr. McCrea is allowed, on page 207, to speak far too respectfully of the suggestion that the juvenile court was established in New York seven years earlier than in Chicago, while Mr. Flexner's unequivocal statement to the contrary is reproduced on page 260 without comment.

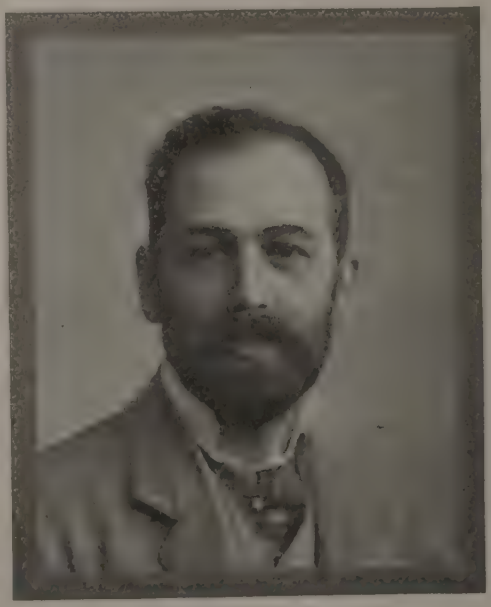
These are petty things; but European scholars, to whom these volumes are offered, have long been accustomed to very exacting standards of accuracy, and have been inclined to look askance at our own too tolerant attitude. The Germans have an expressive word which means *to work through*. We are accustomed, as we say, to work up the material for a volume. If we could invent a word which meant to work through our material, instead of working it up, it might help us to establish a more exacting standard and enhance the value of our product.

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF PRISON OFFICIALS

R. VAMBERY
BUDAPESTE

In the administration of a modern prison the organization of the state is reflected in miniature. As the state looks after the welfare of its citizens, keeping the balance of its economic forces and—as with us in Europe—superintending the affairs of church and school, and by wise legislation promoting the peace and happiness of society—so also in a penitentiary the interests of the inmates should be studied and, as far as practicable, the ends of imprisonment fulfilled.

Now the fundamental basis of a well organized state is the right man in the right place. This same principle necessarily holds good for the administration of prisons, but thus far has unfortunately not yet been properly realized in any civilized country. We have in Europe as well as in the United States, penitentiaries built in the United States, penitentiaries built in the most practical manner and provided with the latest modern improvements. We endeavor to make the prison rules, which regulate the execution of punishment, as effective as possible; but the selection of the human material which should put life into the dry prison system has thus far been left to chance.



PROFESSOR VAMBERY.

Dr. Vambery is a professor in the University of Budapeste. He is a royal attorney and, although still a comparatively young man, has been a judge for ten years. He was one of the leading progressives in the debates on the indeterminate sentence at the International Prison Congress at Washington and the paper here presented is his address as one of the four public lectures at the Washington meeting.

Yet the history of prison management ought to have taught us something better. At the beginning of the last century there was much agitation in Europe in favor of one or another system of prison management. As once the Guelphs and Ghibellines took sides each for his party, people favored either the Pennsylvania or the Auburn system of prisons. Duke Larochefoucauld went so far as to assert that the pudding which was given to the convicts in the Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia had peculiarly wholesome moral properties, and was therefore quite as important an element in cases of solitary confinement as the "most rigid and unremitted solitude" on which the system was based. In a historical, objective consideration of the subject, many really essential details of existing prison systems appear as mere accessories. One might almost say that most of the systems are not systems at all, but the products of strong personalities endowed with much knowledge of human nature and a talent for organization. When, for instance, in the forties of the last century, Obermeyer was appointed governor of the old penitentiary in Munich, he found there from six to seven hundred

chained prisoners, who although there were one hundred and twenty warders lived in the greatest insubordination. By his energetic action, by the power of his personality, Obermeyer succeeded in a very short time in gaining the confidence of the prisoners. He took off their chains, dismissed half of the jailers, appointed convicts as warders in the workrooms, with the result that only about seven per cent of the convicts after their discharge relapsed again. His method was subsequently adopted by those not in favor of solitary confinement and enlarged into a system. Frederic Wines considers this attempt, and the organizing work of Colonel Montesinos in Spain which took place about the same time, as the beginnings of the reformatory treatment.[1]

Various other prison systems, such as the system of Captain Macondchie, and Sir Walter Crofton's progressive system, possess strikingly original features,—for instance, the mark system in the former and the intermediate prison system in the latter,—but the brilliant success which the history of penology attributes to these reformers is due in large measure to their personal influence and their peculiar aptitude for the work they undertook, rather than to their systems. In the case of Sir Walter Crofton this is clearly proved by the fact that shortly after his resignation from office the intermediate prisons Luck and Smithfield began to degenerate; and the English government made short work with the so-called "Irish" system. I do not deny that the initial idea of the reformatory system, *i. e.*, the harmonious development of the body, the intellect, and the moral character has its objective value. Yet I doubt whether the scientific principles laid down by Wines and Sanborn would ever have developed into a system without the active co-operation of a Brockway, a Scott and others.

Every intelligent prison system is marked by some distinctive feature in the treatment of offenders, and is therefore thought and action combined. Without the living action the thought is dead. As was pointed out by Dr. Krohne, the most prominent European representative of penological science, it is ridiculous to quarrel about prison systems and leave the carrying out of them to officers who do not understand their theories. It is labor lost to establish the strictest rules and to make the most elaborate provisions, and then place these in the hands of officials who scarcely understand the letter, much less the spirit, of the act. It is foolish waste to spend millions on millions in the erection of magnificent establishments, and then leave the management to men who are not equal to the demands of the system of administration.[2]

One may be tempted to argue that the jailers and wardens of olden times, upon whom we look down in the consciousness of our superior culture, came nearer to the standard of the then existing ideal of punishment than modern prison officers fulfil the demands of modern penal systems. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the idea of punishment was merely expiatory, and the greater the pain inflicted, the more perfectly its object was accomplished.

It is revolting to us to read of the abuses perpetrated by the prison-keepers in England up to the end of the eighteenth century. Extortion was practiced on criminals and debtors; on entering upon their term of incarceration they had to pay a fee of entrance called "garnish" of ten shillings and sixpence. For every favor granted, such as changing the heavy chains for lighter ones, extra food and drink, exorbitant sums had to be paid, so that the yearly income of the warden in Marshalsea prison amounted to between three and four thousand pounds sterling.

In Germany, prison inspectors were at that time already paid officials, but with permission to supplement their income by other means. Thus, for instance, the (note) book of Von Arnim, then Prussian minister of justice (home secretary), contains an entry which may now sound humorous. It was to the effect that the inspector of prisons at Gleiwitz fulfilled

[1] In his public lecture at Washington on the History of Prison Reform in Holland, Dr. Simon van der Aa, found earlier traces in the Rasphouse of Amsterdam opened for use in 1596. See THE SURVEY for November 5, 1910, p. 202—Ed.]

[2] *Lehrbuch der Gefk.* (Manual of Penology) p. 518.

at the same time the office of slate-layer, market assistant, and night watchman. No wonder that all the prisoners escaped in one night! Generally speaking, the jailers were the scum of society, illiterate, and morally hardly higher in the social scale than the criminals whom they subjected to the roughest and most cruel treatment. Yet these men were the expression of the idea of punishment as then understood, the earthly realization of divine retribution. Physical suffering was, as Byron expresses it in the Prisoner of Chilon,

> .....the fate of those
> To whom the goodly earth and air
> Are bound and barred—forbidden fare.

This "infliction" of punishment the pre-revolutionary jailers understood to perfection. And the more brutal, that is the less humane, they were, the better they fulfilled their office.

We cannot doubt that the conception of punishment came gradually with public enlightenment to be modified; but in the last hundred years under the influence of criminological investigations it has undergone a still more marked change. Of course I am speaking of the conception of punishment not of its object. The object of punishment was always the prevention, controlling and combating of crime, even in the days when blood vengeance represented punishment. It is only about ways and means that the struggle has been going on for thousands of years, while philosophic minds have claimed exclusive right of existence for their own penal theories derived from the practical effects of the punishment. In spite of the heated contention which is still going on, especially in Germany, between the "classics" and the "moderns" of criminal science, regarding protective punishment *versus* expiatory punishment, the practical application of punishment is not seriously affected by these contending views. The chief point in the transformation of penology lies in this, that psychological punishment took the place of that which reflected the crime committed.[1]

Fully realizing that criminologically also the offender should be dealt with as a separate individual, the tendency now is towards an individual psychological treatment. Formerly it was thought that crime originated in the human will, just as, according to the myth, Pallas Athene came forth out of the head of Jupiter. Nowadays all experts are agreed that crime is the issue of social and individual components, but criminal etiology has not yet found the right method for ascertaining in what measure these separate factors contribute to the production of crime.

A second reason for the changed aspect of punishment is the ever growing conviction that expiation (retribution) by means of punishment is a form of self-deception. Even if we possessed an objective standard by which guilt and punishment could be measured, we should decline to accept Shylock's interpretation as our ideal of justice. A well-informed judge of the London High Court of Justice, Sir John Bridge, once said: "I have nothing to do with punishing crime; that rests with a higher power. My business is to protect society." Our human intellect is too clouded, our vision too limited to allow us to usurp the divine right of meting out vengeance. Such metaphysical and unattainable ideals as the restoration of the just balance between crime and the expiation of crime are beyond the control of the state.[2] "Vengeance is mine, saith the Lord, I will repay."[3] And this must remain His prerogative, even although euphemistically revenge is called punishment. In no country has this truth been so thoroughly, and at the same time so practically, grasped as in the United States. Boies, one of your most eminent penologists, speaks of it being "an absurd and arrogant assumption, an impertinent attempt by mortal men" to exercise vengeance, and your institutions convincingly show that you have discarded this scientifically unpractical principle.

And so the old idea of punishment is gradually dying out everywhere. The law of development is exemplified also in the conception of punishment. Modifica-

[1] Rosenfeld: Vergl., Darst., III, 100.

[2] Helmberger: *Reform des Strafvollzugs* (Reform of the System of Administering Punishment), p. 23.

[3] Rom. xii, 19.

tions in the original idea of punishment are gaining ground. Common sense has taught us that the complex psychological and sociological elements which we call crime cannot be combated with any one weapon alone. In Europe this truth, although acknowledged, is making but slow progress as regards the practical administration of justice.

Major Griffith, in his Fifty Years of Public Service, tells a story about a gunboat which was sent out to the East provided wih a medicine chest, but without a doctor on board. The captain, who had no medical knowledge whatever, was entrusted with the dispensing of the medicines, as occasion should demand. He mixed various medicines together in a bottle, and whenever a man was ill he received a dose of this mixture. The captain argued that the medicine required in each specific case would be sure to be contained in the mixture. Sir Robert Anderson, in his interesting work, Crime and Criminals,[1] compares with this treatment the indiscriminate application of the same punishment to different kinds of criminals.

Unfortunately our knowledge of criminology is not yet sufficiently advanced to enable us to classify crimes in causal groups, and to build up our penal methods in accordance with these. But in all civilized countries it is agreed that youthful offenders need other treatment than incorrigible adults; that professional criminals and the partially responsible must be treated in a way different from that taken with the offender who is acting from accident or passion. The practical outcome of individualization as the highest principle for the judicious administration of punishment is the progressive classification of criminals into groups, in order that the social function of punishment, that is the restoration of the offender *to* society, or, where this is found to be impossible, his separation *from* society, may be successfully accomplished.

The jailer of past ages was as little capable of distinguishing these complicated and various phases of crime, as *one* prison system—even the best—is capable of doing justice to different aims of individual punishment. It is indubitably true that the successful carrying out of the changes which have taken place in the conception of punishment, as referred to above, depends in the first place on the men who are the executive organs of the state. The transformation of the system must go together with the transformation of the officials. New conditions require new people. No one would dream of making the driver of an old fashioned stage-coach over into the pilot of an aeroplane, or of entrusting a village barber with the management of a dispensary. It is almost a platitude or truism to say that the success or failure of the system of administration depends upon the management of the establishment and the capability of the superior and subordinate officers. Mr. Goos, the late Danish minister of justice, uttered these memorable words. *"Donnez-moi le meilleur réglement avec un mauvais directeur, vous aurez aucun résultat. Donnez-moi un bon directeur même avec un réglement médiocre, et je vous réponds que tout ira á merveille."*[1] This remark has since been repeated in different keys and with many variations. To give another quotation: Frederic Hill, for many years inspector of prisons in England, declared: "Of such supreme importance do I regard the appointment of good officers, that I should expect better results in one of the worst built prisons, where no system of discipline was prescribed, but where there was an earnest and able governor, unfettered in his choice of subordinates, than in the best constructed buildings and under the most carefully devised plans of management, but where there was an incompetent head with ill qualified assistants." Du Cane likewise said that the importance of the choice of good officers cannot be over-estimated. The prison warden has such influence for good or for evil over the convicts, that one can hardly conceive of any more responsible position, or of one in which the officer is exposed to greater temptations.[2]

Now one may justly say that surely

[1] P. 65.

[1] *Actes du Congrès pénit. intern. de Stockholm* 1878, I. 120.

[2] Tallack, p. 278.

the prison officers of our time—the higher as well as the lower—cannot be compared with the jailers of Newgate prison or of the Conciergerie. No, certainly not. Rough treatment, cruelty, and systematic abuses are unknown factors in the penal establishments of civilized nations. The officers are respectable men of proved character who conscientiously fulfil their regulation duties. All this I grant. But does this exhaust *all* that modern administration of punishment demands of its officers? Of all the things we expect the penal system to accomplish, the hardest is the reform of the criminal who needs and is capable of reformation. To the criminologist who is not utopian in his demands, this reform can only mean the restoration of the criminal to society; that is, in the first place, in the removal of the social causes of his criminality. It sounds well when Dr. Horace Bushnell says that "the soul of improvement is the improvement of the soul," but unfortunately practical experience has taught us that although it is a mistake to say that human nature cannot be changed, we are not in a position to exercise direct influence on so indefinite a thing as the human soul. Therefore, although the prison is not a mind and soul factory, yet prison discipline can lead the delinquent into better ways by accustoming him to regular labor and orderly habits. They are golden words which Brockway wrote: "Give a motive, you may direct a habit. To form a habit is to create a character. Habit is the school of conscience."[1] But this habit is not formed automatically either. It requires the assistance of a kind-hearted, able man, who possesses not only a knowledge of human nature in general, but also a special knowledge of crime, of criminals and of penal science.

There are two qualifications which are indispensable to the modern prison officer: tact and skill; in other words: soundness of character and professional knowledge. One might think that these are both self-evident. Yet, curiously enough, opinions agree only on the former point. Frederic Howard Wines says that the fitness of officers in reformatories consists in "high moral character, earnestness, devotion, self-sacrifice, rare intelligence, insight into human nature, tact, tenacity of will, experience patience, and hope."[2] In all honesty, we envy you the possession of prison officers who unite all these qualities in themselves. With us, anyone possessing such exalted virtues can become a minister of state or an archbishop! We in Europe must of necessity be more modest in our demands. So, for instance, Du Cane stipulates only a high moral character, physical fitness, and intelligence. We also can boast of philosophers as eminent as Gabriel Tarde who consider that a thorough and energetic prison reform consists in *"Mettre en regard les uns des autres á la meme prisons les pires des brutes humaines et les meilleurs des hommes."*[3] But speaking generally, we can hardly hope at present, considering the pay and the social position enjoyed by the prison officer in Europe, that high minded men with the self-sacrificing joy of an apostle will hasten to devote their lives to the prison services. We may be glad enough to enlist men of average talent, honest and clear-headed, and it is universally acknowledged,[4] that even this is no light matter. I do not wish to imply that the professional training of prison officers makes up for want of character, but I certainly believe that professional knowledge, like education in general, increases self-respect, strengthens character, and makes the performance of one's duties easier.

Now although the right choice of officials is more or less a matter of chance —since we do not possess Professor Mantegazza's chimerical psychoscope,— the professional training of prison officers is entirely in our own hands. It is not a magic means for producing ideal men, but it is the first link in the chain which from a right understanding of crime and criminals leads to a right treatment of both.

The fact that the training of prison

[1] The Reform System of the United States, 1900, p. 27.

[2] Punishment and Reformation, p. 319.

[3] *Philosophie pénale.*

[4] Tallack: Penological and Preventive Principle. p. 277.

Krohen: Manual of Penal Science, p. 518 and foll.

officers is the essential point in prison reform has been acknowledged as early as the end of the eighteenth century by the German penologist Wagnitz. In this interesting book he describes the evil practices of German penitentiaries as boldly as Howard did in England. He suggests that every province should have a well organized seminary, not merely for testing the moral worth and strength of character of prison inspectors and wardens, but as a place where they can be actually trained for their future work. In these seminaries, special theoretical and clear instruction should also be given in the manner of dealing with those intrusted to their care.[1] This appeal has been echoed in Germany ever since. Prison reformers and prison disciplinarians—I limit myself to mentioning a few of the most prominent—such as Wichern,[2] Jagemann,[3] Berner,[4] and Krohne,[5] have never tired of advising the establishment of schools for prison officers and courses of study for higher officials. And in modern times the cry for theoretical instruction coupled with practical tests has become more and more urgent.[6] In England, Sir Walter Crofton published a treatise,[7] on Training Prison Officers, and at the first international penitentiary congress held in London, one of the points discussed was "the importance and necessity of a special education of prison officers.[8] Unfortunately the discussion, in spite of Guillaume's striking proposals, led to no practical results. The same question was also brought forward at the congress held at Stockholm, and at the St. Petersburg congress in 1890 we meet with it again in the form of "Instruction in Penology." All writers on the subject, such as Lombroso, Jagemann, Foinitsky and Lacointa agree,[9] in saying that there is a prison science which comprehends the investigation, prevention and repression of crime and that the interests of prison discipline demand that this science be taught at the universities. It was only Henry Joly, however, who, in his report, made it clear how important the acquirements of such knowledge was for the administrative staff of penitentiaries.

Strangely enough the Petersburg Juridical Society, when giving its decision on this matter,[10] denied the necessity of the special education of superior prison officers. It was thought that they might learn the history and theory of penology at the university, while for the wardens practical experience would suffice.

I was much surprised not only to meet with this same narrow-minded view in Anglo-American penology, but to find it even surpassed there. Tallack recognizes the usefulness of a special knowledge of the principle and history of penal discipline and science, but he thinks it is sufficient to encourage prison officers by occasional lectures and addresses, to study these subjects privately, penological societies and special periodicals giving ample opportunities for doing so.

At the National Prison Association in Cincinnati in 1890, Wines emphasized the fact that nowadays one expects of the warden of a prison that he possess not only firmness, kindliness and tact, but also a large measure of special knowledge,[11] but he omitted to indicate how this knowledge could be obtained. Boies also points out[12] that "the warden of a large penitentiary must needs be a man of strong personality, large experience and training," and urges the introduction of the criminal laboratories recommended by the National Prison Association in 1900, but he preserves a deep silence on the question how the officers who have had no special training are to work in these laboratories. So, for example, Brainard Smith expresses himself most decidedly against a scientific training, when he says:[13] "There are no special schools to prepare prison employes, prior

[1] *Historische Nachrichten*, etc., Vol. 1, p. 99, 1791.

[2] *Zur Gefängnisreform, Ges. Schriften* IV, 1905. pp. 423, 453-55.

[3] Bl. f. Gefk. XX. p. 336; *Holtzendorf-Jagemann Handbuch* II. pp. 19-21. *Monatschrift für Kriminalpsych.* I. pp. 374-84.

[4] *Lehrbuch d. Strafrechts*, 18th edition, p. 186.

[5] *Lehrbuch*, pp. 536-548.

[6] See: Willert, Fliegenschmidt, Wrilffen, Stammer, and others.

Tallack: Howard: Letters and Memorials p. 62.

[7] E. Pears: Prisons and Reformatories. 1872, pp. 395-409.

[8] Actes I, 431 and foll.

[9] Actes III, pp. 399-411.

[10] Z. f. *dieges. Strfw.* XI, p. 592.

[11] The Science of Penology, p. 304.

[12] Prison Systems of the U. S., 1900, p. 30.

to their employment, for their duties. We do not regard such schools as essential to the good administration of our prisons." The official view in England is much the same. I have been told on good authority that the need is not felt for a theoretical training in the various branches of criminology. It is thought that the duty of the prison staff is simply to carry out the instructions of the chief authorities, while the initiative for the reform in the treatment of prisoners is the prerogative of the commissioners. It is presumed that these latter, although they do not receive any special training, are, through their higher general education, fitted for their important posts.

To some extent this view may be the result of the spirit of matter-of-factness, which is a predominant feature in the character of the Anglo-Saxon race on all social questions. But on the other hand it is curious that the meaning of Bacon's words, *knowledge* is *power,* should not be understood in the contest with crime. When a small tradesman engages a teacher for his child, he expects to find in him every imaginable qualification; but when the state undertakes the far more complicated task of the education of adults, who moreover, as a rule, are socially deficient, it is pretended that the men entrusted with this task need no theoretical preparation.

There is not in England another branch of public administration in which at least a minimum amount of professional knowledge is not required from the official in his official capacity; but in the case of prison discipline even the most elementary knowledge of the work to be done is considered superfluous. As long as the idea of detention was all that prison discipline meant to the average unschooled mind, it probably sufficed that orders should be strictly obeyed.

But now, with reformatories in America and a Borstal system in England, this standpoint has become untenable. Practical experience in the penitentiary cannot take the place of previous training. Since the German Association of Prison Officers entrusts the theoretical training of candidates for the prison service to the prison wardens,[1] we naturally presume that these officers are thoroughly competent to perform this task. Stevens, the celebrated Belgian penologist, is quite right in saying that a good prison warden cannot be improvised, but must be educated for the fulfilment of his office. And the same holds good for all superior officers; but the education required in our days cannot be obtained except by special training.

One may object that in the carrying out of punishments the decisive factor is not always reformation, for which the personal influence of the prison officer is so essential. Of course not. But punishment should be individual treatment at all events, if we are going to attain any special aims by its infliction at all. This much is certain, that the officer who understands the social and personal causes which provoked the crime will treat the offender otherwise than the officer who sees in him merely a representative of original sin, a lawbreaker acting with the freedom of will, a bad and impious subject. So also the prison officer who has a critical knowledge of the history of punishment, of the organization of prisons in foreign states, of the scientific principles of prison labor, of discipline, of the moral education, of the intruction of prisoners, will perform his duties quite differently from the official automaton who mechanically and blindly obeys the rules. He who cannot rule must needs obey, says York in King Henry VI, and we now-a-days have the right to expect that prison officers be fit and able to rule the human material entrusted to their care by the state. Individualizing after all is nothing but the carrying out of fundamental principle: *divide et impera.*

But what about America, where in the reformatories the individualizing treatment has reached, as we were told, an unlooked for height? By a happy choice it has doubtless been possible to secure in most cases competent men, but I cannot hide the fact that Paul Herr, for intance, who has thoroughly studied the reformatory system of the United States, and who is full of praise for it,

[1] Blätter J. Gefk. XXXI, pp. 477 and foll.

has to acknowledge that the lack of scientific and regular education is a perceptible want.[1] Frances Kellor likewise demands a two years' course of training for the correctional institution officers.[2] I would here remark incidentally that she considerably oversteps the boundaries of this field of labor by including in her program literature, natural history, and æsthetics, in all of which subjects, according to her, a prison officer should be proficient. However that may be, the reformatory movement would certainly not suffer in its results if more care were bestowed on the special training of prison officers, and if in the prison administration of the United States generally more weight were set upon knowledge than upon political influence, which latter, I am told, still plays an undue part in appointments.[3] I am not in a position to judge how far in America this lack of education is remedied by self-tuition, but with us in Europe experience teaches that autodidaxy produces only incomplete and superficial knowledge. One reason for the partly active, partly passive resistance of influential circles against the present day demand for trained prison officers is, I believe, to be found in Europe in the preponderating influence of militarism. It is said that to fill the vacancies in prison staffs by late or non-commissioned army officers is in the interest of the prison system, but as a matter of fact the reverse is the case. Du Cane brings prominently forward that the military type, by its sense of order, discipline, and obedience, and by its fitness "to deal with large bodies of men," is particularly suited for the prison service, but on the other hand it must not be forgotten that the ultimate object of military training is to prepare men for united action, while penal training, as Tallack rightly remarks,[4] has for its object "to prepare the convicts advantageously to separate." Moreover, the general experience is that the superior military elements only very seldom apply for positions in penitentiaries. Where it concerns the reorganization of disorderly prison discipline, as was the case, for instance, in Austria towards the end of the nineteenth century, the appointment of military officers exclusively may be a good thing; but the ideal of prison administration it certainly is not.

With you, in a democracy where the distinction between military men and civilians is not so pronounced as with us in Europe, the martial bearing, the roughness and brusqueness which so often characterize the erstwhile military man in the prison service, and which sometimes lead to brutal treatment, will perhaps not be noticeable. But in Europe—apart from penologists who once themselves were army men—we are all pretty well agreed[5] that drill and military exercises should not occupy the first place in corrective punishment, that is, if we expect from punishment something more than mere retribution. What Anatole France said of the judge: *"La loi est morte. Le magistrat est vivant,c'est un grand avantage qu'il a sur elle,"*[6] also applies to prison rules and prison officers. The letter killeth, the spirit giveth life. Even the best of military officers can only act in the spirit of the system of administration after he has received the necessary instruction.

Thus far in dealing with the fundamental principle of professional training I have not distinguished between superior and inferior prison officers; although necessarily the actual relative position occupied by them varies considerably in the different leading states of Europe. Starting with the point of view that the lower officer, the prison guard, comes most in contact with the offender, we should—in so far as we are concerned about the matter at all—attach most importance to the training of these men. In France, in addition to the guard's school which is connected with every penitentiary, the *école penitentiaire supérieure* was instituted in 1892, to give the more talented prison guards further opportunity of improving themselves, and thus ensuring

[1] *Das mod. amer. Besserungssystem*, 1907, p. 154.
[2] Experimental Sociology, p. 285.
[3] Grubb: Methods of Penal Administration in the United States, p. 17; also Herr. l. c.
[4] Op. cit., p. 297.
[5] See: Iternau; Kaldewey; Schmölder; Friedrich; Lohsing.
[6] Crainquebille, p. 284.

their promotion to higher offices.[1] After one decade this school was closed, notwithstanding the protests of such experts as Grimanelli, Boudenoot and others, in order to reduce the state budget by 6,000 francs.[2]

There are training schools for prison guards in Italy, organized by Beltrani Scalia of Rome, and also similar establishments in Spain, Hungary, etc. But all these being under the management of higher prison officers who have had no scientific training, they are chiefly confined to the elucidation of the prison rules. Dr. Guillaume has told me that as early as 1874, at the request of the Swiss Association of Penology, he held courses for higher prison officers and superintendents which were attended with the greatest success. In the present condition of prison affairs, the special education of inferior prison officers is most decidedly desirable, because those in highest authority, already overburdened with their administrative and economic duties, have not the time to occupy themselves with the actual treatment of prisoners. But this division of labor does not solve the problem before us, because the knowledge which it is necessary for the higher officer to possess could not be expected from the average intelligent subordinate officer. In advocating the special training of the superior officers, I take it, of course, for granted that such officers are in a position to occupy themselves personally with the prisoners. One primary condition to make this possible is that each chief officer shall have under his care only a small group, a limited number of say twenty or thirty prisoners, who from the point of view of criminal-psychology are offenders of the same nature. Thus the notion will be destroyed at last that punishment is a uniform, worn alike by all prisoners regardless of personal characteristics, and that the secret of the right administration of punishment lies in taking it for granted that all offenders are only undisciplined persons.[3]

[1] *Lois, decrets etc. se rapportant aux services penit.* 1896. p. 210; *Code des prisons* C. XIV. p. 337.

[2] *Revue penit.* 1902. p. 287; 1905. p. 286.

[3] This notion was still held by the Parliament of Austria in 1900. *Blätter für Gefäor.* II. 192.

Now as regards the special training of the superior prison officers, there are only three states in which institutes for this purpose have been established, namely, Japan, Spain and Hungary. In 1898, after some fruitless efforts, Japan organized an academy for the study of prison discipline, where officers in actual prison service had to attend a six months' course and candidates for the service a course of twelve months of six lectures per day. The former (the officers in actual employ) were commanded to go through this course of study and received, besides their traveling expenses, an additional monthly allowance of thirty-five yen. The subjects of the lectures included prison discipline, criminal psychology, penal law, prison hygiene, pedagogics of juvenile criminals, anthropometry, statistics and the principles of public and civil legislation. Fifteen professors were appointed to give these lectures. With practical common sense, the Japanese realized that it availed little to build beautiful establishments without also improving the human material in charge of them. Ogawa, the inspector-general of prisons in Japan, spoke at the Brussels congress of the complete success of the institution.[4]

The Spanish School of Criminology, erected in 1903 by royal decree, received less recognition at home. Its object was the special education of administrative prison officers and also to supplement the university faculties. It is a two years' course of study, admission being obtained by an examination which entitles the successful candidate to a scholarship in the first year of 1,000 pesetas, in the second of 1,500 pesetas.

The course of study is intended for the chief officers of the *cuerpo da prisiones* and the officers of the general direction, but the "agregé 's" of other faculties are also admitted. At this university there are six professors enjoying fairly good salaries, who give lectures in Spanish and comparative criminal law and penal science, prison systems, preventative institutions and patronage. Upon the conclusion of their course of training the students who are not already in the

[4] *Actes du Congress* N. p. 536. F. Crusen: Bl. A Gefk. XXXVI, pp. 341-86

service of the state can be returned as assistant officers. The academy, from the time of its opening in 1906, has been subject to many sharp attacks. It is especially the *Rivista de las prisiones* which has inveighed against the new institution.[1] It has found fault with the heavy costs, with the difficulty of finding posts for the graduated students, the awkward position in which the trained officers stood with regard to an untrained governor, etc., all of them objections which do not touch the root of the matter and probably arise out of personal grounds. However this may be, the Spanish academy certainly displays a broadness of view not in keeping with the means and the circumstances of the country. With all due modesty I think I am entitled to say that we in Hungary, with less outward show, attain our object just as well. For two years we have now had special courses of lectures for the training of prison officers. The course is divided into two periods of ten weeks each, which the chief officers of the various penal and corrective institutions throughout the land are successively invited to attend. The choice of the candidates lies with the ministry of justice, and the officers receive, beyond their travelling expenses, a suitable remuneration. The course of study, which occupies from five to six hours a day, includes lectures on the elements of jurisdiction, criminology, criminal psychology, theoretical and practical prison management, treatment of youthful offenders, and prison hygiene. The lectures are delivered in a manner calculated to raise the general standard of education of the hearers. Upon the completion of the course, the students undergo an examination, which counts as a qualification for preferment. Of course the officers must also qualify for their special positions (such as chaplain, instructor, clerk of the counting house, etc.). The cost of the institution comes to about $1,200 a year. The theoretical part of the training includes visits to other institutions, and to the state prison museum which was established last year and already contains several thousand objects. The museum, in addition to the library, is divided into three parts, containing specimens from the history of penology, models of penitentiaries, and ethnographical and anthropological collections. To the best of my knowledge the state prison museum of Hungary is the only institution in Europe in which anthropological data of criminals are officially collected.

I do not wish to imply that the Hungarian course of study is a perfect one, but apart from the praise bestowed on it by eminent penologists such as *von Engelberg*, I am of opinion that our way is more likely to lead to the desired end than, for instance, that of Italy. There, as Commendatore Doria, the director-general of penal administration, kindly informed me, administrative officers have to take their degree in jurisprudence before they can be appointed to any post. The various branches of legal service offer the ordinary prison officer either too much or too little. In Europe many are still under the impression that the jurist is the flower of society, and juridical self-conceit has a good deal to answer for in the present crisis of criminal law, a crisis which can only be brought to a successful issue by a thorough reform of the execution system of punishments. It is, however, no exaggeration to say that a knowledge of the history of jurisprudence and of commercial law is of very little use in the rational treatment of criminals.

Of course the simplest solution of the difficulty would be for the universities to add to their program the sciences of penology, criminology and criminal psychology. This would give to judges in criminal courts and to prison officers, the chance of acquiring the knowledge so necessary to both. But I am sorry to say that in some of the universities of Europe the wind of conservatism still blows, which is anything but auspicious for the introduction of new knowledge. A hundred years ago Henrich Heine satirized the learned Georgia Augusta, where the beadles of the university jestingly have been warned to keep a sharp look-out lest "any new idea, which ought to be kept in quarantine for a few dec-

[1] *Revue penit.* 1903, p. 629, 1308; 1906, p. 635; *Rivista de las prisiocs* 1906, 16 Nov., 1909, p. 1. May number.

ades, be smuggled in by some speculative privatdocents." This mockery still unfortunately applies to many European universities; now, however, the professors themselves keep watch against the too impetuous influx of the waves of radicalism. At the University of Rome, it is true, a chair of penology was established as early as 1882, and at two other Italian universities, Turin and Naples, professors of criminal anthropology have been appointed. But these exceptions, although reflecting favorably on a Lombroso or a Zucarelli, in no wise affect the principle here under consideration.

In France, as we learn from Professor Vidal's excellent work, the study of penology has won for itself an honorable place in criminal law, but for Germany the sad remark of the great Leipzig criminalist[1] still holds good: that there is no more a science of prisons than a science of hanging.[1] Although conservative criminologists practically allow that the center of gravity in penal law is the punishment system, they are not prepared to admit that the *science pénitentiaire* should, at the universities, occupy an equally high rank with penal law.

Criminology, of course, fares worse still, since it is a branch of sociology and the latter has the reputation of being a revolutionary science, shaking the foundations of throne and altar and of all existing social conditions. They who know how dependent the universities of Europe are on the power of the ruling social classes will not think it strange that until quite lately Herbert Spencer's works were not admitted in the library of the "liberal" London University College.[2] An American who may be thoroughly convinced by the writings of, *e. g.*, Chaplain Drähms, that criminal anthropology is not a wicked science, will scarcely be able to understand why in central Europe a *leris notae macula* should still be attached to the deterministic conception of criminal law as the necessary issue of criminology. Although in Italy, France and Germany, criminology — the first fruit-bearing branch of sociology—has yielded a rich harvest of scientific literature, it is yet far from being acknowledged by the worthy professional scholars of law as a grown-up member of the family of sciences, although most of the universities in the United States have accepted it as such.[3]

In conclusion, although well aware that the question has by no means been exhausted, I must mention an interesting experiment which has been made in the German Empire. The initial idea was that it was necessary for the governors of smaller penitentiaries—magistrates and state attorneys—to receive instruction in penology. At the instigation of Jagemann and Krohne courses for this purpose have been instituted in several German states: Baden, 1886; Prussia, 1895; Bavaria, 1900; Hamburg, 1904; Hesse, 1907, etc. These courses are held at one of the penitentiaries and each course occupies from ten to fourteen consecutive days. Theoretical and practical information upon all branches of prison life is imparted by means of lectures and visits to penitentiaries.[4] No words need be wasted in proving the necessity for judges and other magistrates to be well versed in prison matters.

It is quite as absurd that a judge should pronounce a sentence, the purport of which he does not understand, as that a physician having no knowledge of medicines should prescribe a physic. Yet we must not deceive ourselves by believing that these courses can take the place of the professional training of prison officers, although they might profitably attend them. Detached lectures on penological subjects are excellent helps for bridging over the gulf which still separates penal law and prison discipline, just as it is recommended for law students to offer themselves for the prison service.[1] Prison officers receive in these lectures no more than a sip of the knowledge they require; their interest is roused, but to satisfy it requires a more thorough handling of the subject than could be attempted in so short a space of time.

On the solution of this burning question depends the entire future of prison

[1] Hutchburg.

[2] Spencer: Autobiography II, p. 208.

[3] The Criminal—New York, 1900.

[4] Naheres: *Mittermair-Clemens Jurist. psychiatr. Grenzfragen.* Vol. V. Part 6. 1907.

[1] Wulffen: *Archiv f. Kriminalanthrop* XVI, pp. 143 and foll.

reform as well as of penal law, and it can no longer be passed over in silence. Criminal anthropologists whose views are not clouded by the cobwebs of medieval dogmas have fully realized the importance of this fact, and I, for one, quite agree with Havelock Ellis[1] where he says that "the prison officer of today is about as well fitted for the treatment of criminality as the hospital nurse of a century ago was fitted for the treatment of disease," and further: "The criminal in all his manifold variations, with his ruses, his instinctive untruthfulness, his sudden impulses, his curiously tender points, is just as difficult to understand and to manage as the hospital patient, and unless he is understood and managed there is no hope of socializing him.

In India a "security bond" of from 150 to 500 rupees is exacted from any prison officer as a guarantee for the faithful performance of his duties.[2] What I demand is a moral guarantee of his knowledge and fitness, without which it is impossible for him satisfactorily to fulfil his professional duties. I have raised the question, but I have not solved it. For the solution we look to the practical mind of this mighty country, where full justice is always done to the theoretical exigencies of any problem. For more than a century we, in Europe, have been accustomed to see the sun of prison reform rise in the west. I am fully convinced that in this case also the light will first break forth in America; not *ex oriente,* but *ex occidente lux!*

THE HOUSING AWAKENING[3]

IV

HOUSING REFORM IN COLD STORAGE—BOSTON

EDWARD T. HARTMAN
SECRETARY, MASSACHUSETTS CIVIC LEAGUE

In considering the housing question during the past fifty or more years, Boston has been almost purely academic.

Some talk, some writing, mild laws and milder enforcement were the order of the day until in 1888 Professor Dwight Porter prepared a report on some of the tenement house districts of Boston which should have justified quite a little activity on the part of the people and the officials; but very little was done.

A decade later the Twentieth Century Club issued a "thesis based on original investigations," after the manner of the graduate schools of the country. After this a number of literary productions with housing as their subject appeared in the newspapers and magazines.

In 1903 Mayor Collins appointed a commission to investigate the subject. A fairly good report and a draft of a law were the results. This was printed in generous quantities of which the city still has a good stock on hand. It may also be found in numerous public and private libraries. In 1904 the Legislature authorized a commission which reported in 1905. On this report there were some hearings.

In 1906 Mayor Fitzgerald appointed a commission which devoted itself exclusively to fire protection, strength of materials and other structural matters. In the meantime, a committee of the Massachusetts Civic League was considering tenement house provisions, which the commission promised in turn to consider. The commission, however, reported its proposed law without giving attention to the tenement house sections. Later, at the instance of the mayor, these were embodied in the bill by the committee of the Legislature and, after many amendments, finally became the present law on

[1]The Criminal. 2nd edition, p. 325.

[2]H. L. Adam: Oriental Crime, 1909, p. 270.

[3]A series of articles describing housing conditions in typical American cities, large and small, East and West, and the efforts being made to improve these conditions. Published with the cooperation of the National Housing Association. I. Introduction, by Lawrence Veiller, THE SURVEY, November 19, 1910, price 10 cents; II. Socialists and Slums—Milwaukee, by Carl D. Thompson, December 3, 1910, price 25 cents; III. The Awakening of a State—Indiana, by Albion Fellows Bacon, December 17, 1910, price 10 cents.

tenement houses. Many builders and owners have protested that this law renders future building impossible, but buildings are now in course of construction which show that practically any kind of lot may be used under the law. These buildings are of such a nature that the people, so far as they have given the matter attention, and most of the officials, consider them bad housing.

After the law was passed there was no further evidence of public interest, except that the Civic League committee succeeded in blocking amendments to weaken the law, some of which have been introduced each year since. The people seem not to realize that there are serious conditions and that through their indifference other interests are succeeding in pulling the local authorities their way.

While the people do not see the conditions, they are at every point painfully aware of the results. The bad housing conditions of Boston are responsible for much of the immorality, drunkenness, neglect and crime which the churches, the settlements, the courts, and many private societies are trying to combat; for much of the sickness which the district nurses, dispensaries, and others are trying to cure; and through all these for the poverty which the charitable societies are so eagerly trying to alleviate.

Boston is most insistent in season and out of season in her efforts to salve over all these superficial sores but she has not yet consciously set herself to removing this one cause. As the problem has shown itself, other movements have been developed to help. The floating hospital does for a few what the homes should do. The outdoor school conducted by the Women's Municipal League is taking care of a few children and pointing the way for a few parents. One of the main arguments for playgrounds, even, has come to be that homes are not fit places for play and that without playgrounds children cannot grow up.

What are the actual facts in regard to the housing situation in Boston? No one knows. It is known, however, that dark rooms, overcrowding, filth, impossible water closets, and many other bad conditions may be found by any who look for them in most of the blocks in the North and West Ends, and in many places in Charlestown, East Boston, South Boston, Roxbury, Brighton and Dorchester.

An example of what may be found is noted in the recent report of the Boston-1915 Committee on Housing and the situation is interestingly compared with what is found in New York:

> Seven single North and West End blocks had in 1905 from 1,017 to 1,174 inhabitants—each a fair-sized town. As numerous blocks here, however, cover less than an acre, those with smaller population are often very crowded. Of twenty-two blocks whose density in 1905 I determined, four had less than 500 per acre,—four between 500 and 600,—nine between 600 and 720,—four between 786 and 880,—and one had 1,138 per acre. In all Manhattan, 122 blocks had 750 or more persons per acre—"intolerable congestion"; and all but seven of them were on the Lower East Side. Block No. 33, bounded by Prince, Thacher, North Margin streets, and Lafayette avenue, was—so far as known—the most densely populated block in Boston; it had 956 residents on .84 acre. They lived in houses averaging 3 2/3 stories high—viz., 310 persons per acre per story. New York's most crowded block had 1,672 per acre in houses averaging 5½ stories, or 304 per acre per story.

It is not possible here to go into all the causes, but it may be said that the people are primarily responsible. Indifference and ignorance are common to both slum dwellers and those who live elsewhere. Local authorities, to whom people naturally look for assistance, find more points of contact with owners and politicians than with the public (through the fault of the latter, let it be frankly said), and they have come to consider mainly what may be permitted under the law rather than what may be prevented.

The Board of Health, for example, in which is lodged great power for activities in the right direction, has been too steadily kept in tow by the mayor and by the great zero created by the absence of public opinion. For twenty-one years the board has had power to regulate the occupancy of houses or of parts of houses, in the interest of the public health. It has been using this power, setting 300 cubic feet as the space required for each occupant of a sleeping room, and has "stenciled" many rooms found

to be overcrowded. The stencils, says the board, are papered over, painted over and otherwise obliterated. When such a room is again visited by an inspector it is treated *de novo* and "again stenciled if it needs it", the board in the twenty-one years having developed no system of keeping a list of "stenciled" rooms.[1]

But it is known that if the board had the best system imaginable it has not enough inspectors to do the work needed. The present inspectors might do the work if the public, tenement dwellers, and others were doing their part, but they are not. Many people in the tenements persist in violating regulations in regard to overcrowding, ventilation, filth and garbage; many owners do the same so far as their part is concerned; and the public gives tacit consent. It will take many more inspectors to see that right conditions are developed and maintained, and they will have to remain in service till the people learn the value of the new methods.

A much needed adjunct now is a corps of instructive district sanitary inspectors. Many tenants are wofully ignorant or indifferent as to the results of conditions under which they live. The situation could be much helped, too, by a system similar to that instituted by Octavia Hill in London.

The present Board of Health seems willing to improve matters and it is believed that it will succeed if the people stand between it and the owners and politicians. The building commissioner and the superintendent of streets, in whose department the sanitary division falls, will do all that the people make it possible for them to do. The board of appeal sees too much the material side of the housing question and apparently has not awakened to the fact that, because people have to live in houses, there is a social or human side. It has nullified the spirit and in some cases the letter of the law.

These facts are now known by many people and the present state of public opinion makes the problem look more possible of a gradual solution than at any time in the past. The settlements, nurses, charity workers, and others are coming to see that their methods are letting the problem get ahead of them. They are beginning to see that it is a part of their work to help remove the causes of the difficulties which it will always be a part of their duty to alleviate. New organizations are taking up the newer aspects of the work and many others are showing a ready willingness to co-operate. Officials are feeling the same impulse and are either strengthening their present machinery or devising new machinery to do the work. There is hope, but this hope is based entirely on the assumption that Boston has at last awakened to her needs in housing and sanitation, and is ready to learn her job by working at it.

Academic Boston has been interesting to herself and to others in many parts of the world. Boston on her job promises to be more interesting. She will hardly reach efficiency in less time than she has devoted to her academic consideration of the subject; but, if she can put herself in fifty years among the fairest cities of the land (where they will be at that time), she may congratulate herself that she decided to take her proper place and get to work in this year A. D. 1910.

[1] As a matter of fact a recent investigation showed a number of rooms occupied by sleepers each of whom had 200 cubic feet or less. "Boston not only fails to require the minimum of other cities, but seems to have no minimum at all: no minimum for working men and their families, though for every tramp in the common lodging-houses the Board of Health requires at least 350 cubic feet of air-space and open windows."

RANKEN TRADE SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS.
Employers, trades unionists and educational experts commend this institution.

THE RANKEN TRADES SCHOOL AT ST. LOUIS.

A trade school which has the commendation of employers, trades unionists and educational experts is worth more than ordinary attention, for it is a phenomenon all too rare. "The Ranken Trades School is on the square," a plumber said recently. And so all of the laboring men regard it. They are as glad to have Owen Miller, president of the Missouri State Federation of Labor, on the school's advisory committee as the school is to have won labor's approbation. On the other hand, the co-operation of employers is shown by the fact that the Metal Trades Association sends forty boys to the school as regularly indentured apprentices. The employer meets the tuition fee and pays the boys their regular shop wages while they are in attendance.

How comes this friendship of both trades-unionist and capitalist? exclaim those who have always heard of the difficulties of most other trade-schools. The answer is so simple and so ideal that belief in it—and the actuality forces credence—props up one's wobbling faith that more freedom, honesty and thoughtfulness, higher principles, practically applied, will yet save the day in these "labor and capital" troubles. Single-hearted and clearheaded, with a daily study of what constitutes for today and tomorrow the best possible trade education, the Ranken School holds its independent, middle-of-the-road course.

When David Ranken, Jr., deeded over to the David Ranken, Jr., School of Mechanical Trades the whole of his large fortune, exceeding $3,000,000, he then and there endowed it with much of the freedom which characterizes it, for ideas can always be carried out if there is no concern as to where the money is to come from—a hampering, even crippling consideration which confronts nearly every institution and individual. Many of the trade-schools opposed by trades-unionists are not efficient; they profess to turn out a good plumber in three months. The Ranken School, however, trains boys long and carefully and raises rather than lowers any standard of trade workmanship. But these "three months

schools" have not freedom of action; they must be self-supporting on a low tuition rate. At the Ranken School the per capita cost in the day school during 1909-10 was $226.40, and the tuition receipts were but thirty dollars per boy. Lewis Gustafson, the superintendent, seems to have no idea that the per capita cost to the school will decrease. It is likely that the self-supporting or money-making trade school will pass, and that the growing general belief in the value of trade education will manifest itself by further endowments from philanthropists and in the establishment and maintenance of trade schools as part of public education. It is significant that the Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington should send Special Agent Durham to St. Louis to make a special study of the Ranken School for the reports on industrial training of boys in the United States.

All this independence of action gained through its large endowment—probably the largest ever made for this single purpose—is reflected in the conduct of the educational work. Each boy is a student in the laboratory, the workroom of the school, where he is directed in applying the theory learned in the lecture room. He learns not only from a book or an instructor's lecture that the cubic contents of a cone of certain dimensions are so much, but goes into the workroom and proves the answer by filling a hollow cone and measuring the contents. In all the trades taught—comprising at present carpentry, pattern-making, bricklaying, plumbing, painting, and steam engineering—honesty in workmanship is required; no temporary effects, but a lasting solidity and dignity of results are demanded. The large, plain building itself embodies wonderfully this idea of teaching, and so impresses you with the spirit of the place even before you pass the simple, dignified entrance.

In September, 1909, the school opened its doors, its policies, plans and construction having been determined only after careful study, wide observation and much consultation by Mr. Gustafson. In July, 1910, Mr. Ranken deeded over practically all his fortune of over $3,000,000, reserving for his own living expenses only an annuity not to exceed $5,000. On August 18, less than sixty days after this fulfillment of the great desire of his life, Mr. Ranken died. There is much about the David Ranken, Jr., School of Mechanical Trades, that reflects the personality of this Scotchman, its founder. Simple in his tastes, anxious to avoid public notice, he cherished quietly during the years the steadfast purpose "to give boys a chance to be useful citizens."

DAVID RANKEN, JR.

He endowed the school with his whole fortune, $3,000,000, that it might be free "to give boys a chance to be useful citizens."

How best to make useful citizens, how best to further the education of the best possible future workmen and to advance conditions in the trades, is being thought

LEWIS GUSTAFSON.

A big man in every sense, the superintendent is working out plans to further the ideals of trade education which inspired the founder.

out and worked out by Lewis Gustafson, superintendent of the school. He is earnest, far-sighted, and impartial; a big man who impresses one with a quiet, deliberate forcefulness, a man who does not waste energy. And one is not surprised to discover his appreciation of poetry and art as well as his ability to "wipe joints". This feeling for the imagination and poetry of life as well as for its practicalities and prose pervades the place in some inexpressible fashion—the art of the very bricklaying of the building subtly hints it. The Ranken Trades School does not narrow utilitarianism.

The recognition by the school of its own necessary limitations is another proof of its broadmindedness. Provision is made for a number of scholarships designed to provide means for the higher education elsewhere of pupils who show marked ability. The trustees are authorized to pay the expenses of such pupils at American or European universities and art schools, but the total expenditure for this purpose must not exceed ten per cent of the school's net income.

The general aim of the school is admirably stated in the first annual catalog as:

> The training of efficient mechanics who shall take a pride in the proper performance of their work and who shall have such knowledge and such skill as will enable them to meet intelligently whatever demands that work shall lay upon them. While it is not the aim primarily to train foremen and superintendents, it is the expectation that within a few years after graduation many of the students . . . will be enabled to rise to positions of responsibility or go into business for themselves . . . Modern industrial methods preclude the giving of such (systematic) instruction in commercial shops, and employer and workmen alike are coming to recognize that a properly conducted school can and does offer to men and boys a better preparation for industrial efficiency than can be gained by working at a trade commercially.

The registration this year is 290 men and boys. Of this number 98 were in the regular day classes—40 from the Metal Trades Association, and 157 in the night school. The night school, it is expected, will always have the largest enrollment. A nominal fee of thirty dollars a year, payable in three parts, is charged to each student in the day school. The regular course is open to men and boys of fifteen or over who have completed the work of the sixth grade in the public schools or its equivalent. Following out the purpose to be practical, the boys are kept in the institution eight hours a day and a half-day on Saturdays. There are eleven months of work and one month of vacation — the proportion which the school believes should prevail in the trades.

HOURS IN THE CONTINUOUS INDUSTRIES

THOMAS SCHLYTTER
Christiana, Norway

There are several factors in modern organization of industry which make it more and more important and even necessary, that society should regulate the hours of work. The two principal are:

The increasing tendency towards work on a large scale, each man being only a small cog in one of the small wheels of the enormous machine; and

The specialization of work, which is in itself in many ways a great advantage, but necessarily develops onesidedness unless sufficient leisure and opportunities be given the man for developing other qualities than those produced by his work.

Here I wish to annihilate, if possible, an argument that one still meets: If the working hours were shortened it would produce more drinking and disorderly life in the laboring classes. In reply to this it ought to be enough to point out the indisputable fact that in those countries and those industries where working hours are the shortest and wages the highest, there also are workingmen the most efficient and on the whole of the highest type from every point of view. Let us remember the celebrated and characteristic words of Professor Virschow in the German Parliament with reference to the Silecian cotton operatives: "Under present conditions of work they have opportunities for nothing except drink and sexual pleasure."

It is exactly the excessive hours of work; the constant physical fatigue and poor conditions of living generally that produce, almost by necessity, a certain craving for stimulants and the physical and moral deterioration which it is our business to cure.

THOMAS SCHLYTTER.

With the development of the International Association for Labor Legislation, a new group of diplomats has come into being,—leaders in the field of international labor relations—such as Mr. Schlytter. He is one of the organizers of the Norwegian branch of the International Association, and at the congress last summer in Switzerland presented a paper on the continuous industries. Mr. Schlytter approaches the problem both as a social student and as an employer. He is managing director of the largest match manufacturing concern in Norway. During the past two months he has been visiting various manufacturing centers in America —New York, Chicago, Philadelphia and Washington; and was one of the speakers at the annual meeting of the New York branch of the American Association for Labor Legislation.

Opposition against regulation of hours of work in industrial occupations is very often based on an absolute misunderstanding of what we who desire a legal maximum working day really want:

There has been no proposal to prohibit a man from working as much as he wants to for himself or when he himself has the control of the work he is doing. What is proposed is to prevent anybody from working others for such long hours as will be detrimental to their health, happiness and civic usefulness.

We wish that every man should have freedom enough to be something for his family, to work in his garden if he has any—and if working hours were reduced many more would be able to live where they could have their own small home;

and that he should have time for healthy recreation and intellectual pursuits and pleasures.

Regulation means more freedom, not, as some seem to think, less. Those who oppose regulation on the ground of the so-called "freedom of contract" and general *"laissez faire"* principles, are out of touch with their time. They are clinging to an outworn creed which does not suit the new conditions created by our modern industrial system. Adam Smith long ago pointed out—and many leading economists have since insisted upon the obvious fact—that the worker is at a disadvantage in bargaining with the employer for conditions of work. The labor unions at times are able to change this situation to some extent, but the present strong organization of capital in most countries now more than counterbalances this effect of the unions. Reduced to their elements, the working man in the last analysis has two alternatives: to accept the hours of work fixed for him or to starve. Everybody ought to be able to agree by this time that whenever regulation will produce desirable effects, no fossilized conception of outworn theories should prevent the necessary legislation from being enacted. Thus it will be possible to preserve whatever is of real value in the "freedom of contract" and do away with abuses which have grown from changed conditions.

The working men themselves understand that regulation means more actual freedom than *"laissez faire"* and they are therefore anxious to exchange their "freedom of contract" for state regulation.

I am well aware of the legal difficulty which social workers in this country have to face with regard to a regulation of the working day. There seems to me, however, to be no difference in principle between limiting the hours for young persons and women in industrial occupations and limiting them for men. The intention in both cases is protection of the health of the individual with a further view to the health of the race, and there is, therefore, only a difference of degree, not of principle.

This is especially true in cases where the abuses are very serious as in the "continuous industries."

Recent court decisions also indicate that protective labor legislation will be sustained when the interference is justified on grounds of health. This would undoubtedly cover regulation of the excessive working hours in the continuous industries.

At the Congress of the International Association for Labor Legislation at Lugano, Switzerland, last fall, a resolution was adopted, condemning severely, both from the hygienic and social point of view, the long hours prevailing in these industries, and it was decided to appoint an international committee to take the matter in hand.

This resolution was proposed by the Norwegian section where the question of working hours in continuous industries came up in connection with a new factory inspection act. The original proposal for this act contained a provision for three shifts of eight hours in industries working continuously night and day. This part of the act was not carried. It failed on the argument of international competition, but no one actually denied the desirability in itself of a change from the two-shift to the three-shift system. The employers in fact declared in favor of it if introduced by international convention, so that, whatever increase in the cost of production might follow, it would be evenly distributed. In some cases, at least a temporary rise in the cost of production would probably follow. But arguments of this kind are certainly not always conclusive—especially when seen in the light of past experiences. In any case, to overcome such objections by arranging international agreements is exactly the aim of our International Association.

The continuous industries may be classed as follows:

1. Industries which are continuous for technical reasons.
   b. Industries which may be called "absolutely continuous", *i. e.*, which run weekdays and Sundays.
2. Industries which are continuous not because of technical necessity, but in order to reduce cost of production.

The industries running on the continuous system are practically the same in all countries; and the principal among them are iron and steel, paper and wood, flour mills, cement, mines, smelters and glass.

As a matter of practical policy the only feasible way—and perhaps also the more desirable way—is to introduce a legal maximum working day by degrees; and it is natural to start where conditions are worst, which is in the continuous industries. There the serious effects of the present system are so obvious that nobody can deny the necessity of regulation. In these industries there has been no room for gradual shortening of the working day. The choice has been between two shifts of twelve hours or three shifts of eight hours, which explains the sorry fact that the twelve-hour day still prevails in all countries. The twelve-hour day is in itself altogether too long, but the fact that these men have to work alternately night and day, and often have as much as twenty-four hours' continuous work, when the shifts are changed, increases the strain enormously.

In this country conditions are probably at their worst in the iron and steel industries where the large majority of the force work twelve hours a day, and a very considerable part of it seven days in the week—including Sunday—and twenty-four hours without stop when changing from day to night shift. Only a very few of the force have the eight-hour shift. In England more than half of all the iron and steel is made on the three-shift system; the other half on the twelve-hour shift, and there are differences of opinion as to which method in the long run is the more economical.

I trust that the committee which the Iron and Steel Institute, at the instance of W. B. Dickson, first vice-president of the United States Steel Corporation, has appointed to inquire into the feasibility of doing away with Sunday work and introducing the six-day week generally, will secure results. But it is evident to me that the real solution lies in the three-shift system, of course without Sunday work except where necessary.

In the paper industry, several of the largest concerns in the United States run all their shift workers on the three-shift system, while in Europe in this industry the twelve-hour shift is universal. Such instances show the value of international comparison. What is possible in one country ought to be possible in other countries. And what is possible for some concerns should be possible for others.

Wages are a comparatively small item in the total cost of production in most of the industries in question, and any increase of efficiency would soon counterbalance the cost of the third shift.

The argument has been advanced against the three-shift plan that it would not be possible to find men enough to form a third shift. This difficulty could in any case only be temporary, and the industries we have to deal with here are on the whole exactly those which are most affected by periods of prosperity and depression, and where production may vary thirty per cent and even fifty per cent. If the introduction of the three-shift plan took place under a period of depression there could be no difficulty; and in case we were on the upward grade of a wave of prosperity it would perhaps not be altogether bad to check the movement to some extent—if check there would be, which I doubt.

But this increased demand for labor is important in another direction. It must be our aim, of course, to reduce working hours without reducing the actual wages received. This is perhaps the most baffling question in connection with a legal maximum working day. In the continuous industries, however, the temporary increase in the demand for labor to form the third shift would strongly, and I believe quite effectively, assist the men to retain their earnings unchanged.

Every consideration, then, points to the desirability as well as the feasibility of regulating hours of work in the continuous industries.

Working hours in these industries could be regulated in two ways:

A provision that all continuous industries should establish shifts of eight hours in order to get permission to run nights for any length of time would be

most effective. This would tend towards abolishing night work where it is not really necessary, and for industries where night work is necessary or very important it would establish humane conditions of work.

A law fixing an eight-hour maximum working day for industrial night work—on the lines of the eight-hour laws for work below ground in mines—would also go a long way towards making the three-shift system general.

Eight hours for night work, it seems to me everyone would agree, are quite enough and ought to be imposed for hygienic, if for no other, reasons. This would make it possible for the men to sleep and rest and still see the sun and the light of day and have some time with their families. Human beings are not intended to be mere machines to work, and eat, and sleep.

Reform in this direction is important not only for the sake of the happiness of the men involved, but so that it may be possible for everybody to reach a certain standard of intelligent citizenship for the sake of his country, the destiny of which everyone influences for good or for ill.

Some perhaps would think that the three shifts could be introduced without the intervention of the law. The principal thing, of course, is not how the reform is introduced, but that it is introduced. I do not believe, however, that there is any other way to make the system general than legal action; and I consider it in fact one of the most important features of modern labor legislation, that it tends to impose on all factories conditions of work which either have been established by employers who have developed the highest social conscience, or which they wish to establish, but on account of competition cannot realize until the law comes to their assistance.

The industries worked on the continuous system being practically the same in all countries, it is natural that the sections of the International Association for Labor Legislation should co-operate and assist each other, as much as possible, with regard to reform work in this field. Whatever is obtained in one country will materially help the other countries, as has been the case with necrosis and night work of women.

The working men in all countries are strongly in favor of the three shifts, and our International Association needs the support and assistance of the workers and their unions, who now often feel that we are not doing enough for them. In the international agreements which have been concluded (white phosphorus and night work for women) we have precedent showing that even the argument of international competition can be overcome. I believe the time is now here when we ought to try to do something that would lighten and brighten the life of a large number of our fellow men, which would be the case if the three-shift system were generally established.

Such a reform would, I am convinced, be a long step towards a general legal maximum working day; and I think that no social reform is of greater importance and would have a stronger tendency to raise the whole level of the laboring classes, than reduction of working hours accompanied by increased opportunities for healthy pleasures and useful self-development.

FIFTH AVENUE'S GLACIER OF LOFT BUILDINGS

THE INDUSTRIAL PROBLEM INVOLVED

When, following the strikes of the cloak makers in New York last year, a Board of Sanitary Control was created, representing the employer, the employe and the public, a beginning was made towards the regulation of perhaps the most anarchistic industry in New York—one in which sanitary standards range from modern factories to sweated homes, in which new establishments start into being by the hundreds, with little or no managerial experience, and in which the oversupply of labor enables the employers to take on and to turn off employes with each change in the seasons, without other concern

than that they reach the sidewalk in safety.

The possibilities of applying on a large scale modern principles of organization and scientific management to the industry as a whole have been opened up in proposals recently made by H. F. J. Porter, industrial engineer, to the Board of Control above mentioned, and subsequently at a hearing before the mayor's Congestion Commission in the City Hall. One phase of the situation was presented by him last week before a meeting of loft building owners and clothing manufacturers, called at the instance of the Fifth Avenue Association. This association is made up of a group of the largest holders of real estate on New York's old thoroughfare which has witnessed such revolutionary changes in the last ten years. From a quiet, residential street Fifth avenue is becoming, below Madison Square, a canyon of loft buildings given over to the garment trades, and this change is engulfing block after block with increasing speed, so that what has happened is apparently only the beginning of a definite movement, the end of which is not in sight. At the noon hour the employes of each loft building, in some instances several thousand strong, run out at the bottom like the contents of so many huge vats when the spigot is turned, clogging traffic and interfering with general business by the sheer force of numbers. They have no place but the streets to go to. A sidewalk and pavement in the vicinity resemble for the time nothing so much as the mill districts of Lynn and Pittsburgh or the stock yards of Chicago. To illustrate the hopelessness of bettering the situation piecemeal, it is related that at first residents and merchants appealed individually to the factory managers. Securing no relief they formed the Fifth Avenue Association. The situation was discussed and the factory managers were again appealed to by letter and asked to meet a committee of the association. A few attended who said that they would do whatever all of the manufacturers would join in doing; but it was impossible to get collective action from the rest. They were practically inaccessible. Nor would the loft building owners as a whole respond to approaches. No relief coming from these quarters, assistance was sought at the hands of city officials but it seemed impossible to determine which department had jurisdiction over the situation. It wasn't a fire, or a riot, or an epidemic, or a fall of snow. As time passed, conditions grew steadily worse until the streets became so blocked that the Police Department was appealed to as a matter of traffic regulation. At length, as a net result of all this going from pillar to post, some working people were arrested for blocking the highway. This did not accomplish anything in the direction sought. The injustice of such a move would have been more apparent were it not outmatched by its stupidity,—like brushing water away from a leaking main. But it is the most which the municipal government of New York has as yet attempted towards regulating what is a veritable industrial inundation in the center of the city.

This traffic matter, however, is but a superficial indication of what is going on underneath; not altogether different in fact from the garment strikes themselves, which would not down, but laid claim on a public which had been content to let matters run their course. In discussing the situation, Mr. Porter pictures the powerful industrial changes which have affected the city as a whole. He says:

> We have to realize in the first place that New York has changed from a residential and commercial seaport to a manufacturing city; and this change has taken place without the city awaking to the fact that a corresponding change should be made in its governing bodies, in order to cope with the new conditions. Consequently, the latter have run riot as any unguided and uncontrolled movement is bound to do, until we now have our congested and unsanitary tenement districts on each side of the city where live the hundreds of thousands of industrial workers, and half-way between, on Broadway and Fifth avenue, are the loft buildings containing the factories where these people work.
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> The manufacturers occupying these loft buildings are in the main those who turn out certain lines of product which have great seasonal fluctuation. They come here because they can secure advantages not presented in suburban localities. For instance, they can hire a well-lighted, steamheated fac-

tory loft, and secure all the gas, electric light and power they need by merely turning them on and paying for what they use. They can hire their labor from the group of unemployed standing on the street, at their door. They can discharge it at their whim, and when the dull season in their industry arrives they can dispense with it altogether, with about as little ceremony as they turn off the gas.

Thus as business fluctuates, they are able to vary their expenses and can shut down altogether by merely going out and locking the door, leaving the burglar and fire alarms, their insurance policies, and the caretaker of the building to safeguard their interests.

This would be an ideal way of running a factory if it did not affect unfavorably the interests of others. Sometimes, however, the wholesale discharge of labor at dull periods amounts to thousands of men and women, the theory being that this supply will be absorbed by the demand in other lines of trade. There are some industries whose seasonal fluctuations are so timed that they dovetail into the opposite variations of others, and it is true that a portion of this floating army of unemployed is so absorbed; but as the average term of employment in these seasonal trades is only from four to six months, half in the spring and half in the fall, and during this time scarcely a living wage is paid, there is a horde of half-worked helpless people which has to be reckoned with. Its effects upon poverty, vagrancy, misery, suffering, sickness, and mortality are to be found in the congested and unsanitary sections of the city, in overcrowded hospitals and overtaxed philanthropic institutions and societies. It encourages drinking, gambling, prostitution, and swells the workhouse, the almshouse, and the prison.

Now this method of doing business is uneconomic to the employer, the employe and the public, the latter having to pay the expense of the inefficiency.

With this sweeping arraignment of the disorganization in the garment trades, and its social accompaniments, Mr. Porter takes up the responsibility of the individual employer. Every employer, he points out, controls the greater portion of the waking hours of his employes. Every day he produces an effect upon them by the conditions of their environment and by his treatment of them that is either beneficial or harmful, physically, morally, and mentally. Many employers, especially in these garment shops, who are often fairly recent immigrants themselves, have had no preparation for their duties, but assume this control of their workers merely by payment of small fees to the state and city. Yet the employer's influence upon his employes, because of its continuity, is more potent than that of their doctor, their minister, or their teacher, each of whom has to serve a long apprenticeship before being allowed to practice. Where the state issues a charter to an individual or a corporation to do business, Mr. Porter holds that it should demand in return a recognition of the obligation that that business shall be run in such a way as to benefit, and not injure, the people it employs and the community in which it is located.

Some of the industries located in New York are very large. The cloakmakers, for instance, have some 2,000 factories, with about 80,000 working people, men and women, in them during the busy seasons. These, with their families, constitute an industrial community estimated at 175,000 people, which compares in size with such cities as Providence, Indianapolis, and Rochester. There are many other garment industries in New York of only slightly smaller dimensions.

With the main elements in the situation the public is to a degree familiar. Mr. Porter's distinctive contribution to its discussion has been in its presenting existing social and economic disadvantages as a group picture, and in the second place in offering as a solution not a fragmentary reform, but a daring co-operative program linked with scientific management and governmental control. Moreover, he holds that the self-interest of the various business factors involved will bring them to such collective planning; the industrial unrest among the great labor forces involved tends in the same direction. He would apply to these great, loose urban groups standards adopted by certain employers in dealing with isolated plants and self-contained industrial communities. He recommends:

The establishments in each industry should be organized as an industrial group, and their common interests should be centralized in an administration building, in order not only to attend to their own interests properly, but to be accessible to those whose interests they affect, and to the city and state governments. For example, the health and welfare of the public as a whole is in-

volved in the sanitary conditions of the factories and employes' homes to which the Cloak Makers Board of Sanitary Control is addressing its attention. This is a bigger problem than can be handled by the Cloak Makers Board of Sanitary Control alone, or by the Cloakmakers Industry alone, or by a number of similar industries acting jointly, or by several other equally involved groups of property interests acting jointly; but a great deal can be accomplished by getting each of these forces to work along certain defined lines, and having all of them work together in a carefully devised program embodying the principles of scientific industrial management, such as Louis D. Brandeis, who was instrumental in establishing the Board of Sanitary Control, has recently shown in the freight rate hearings to be essential to the efficient handling of an industry, through the resultant prevention of waste and the conservation of effort and materials. Scientific management means that conditions are always being studied and plans for their intelligent handling formulated before they get beyond control, as they have in this loft district. In an individual shop, scientific management means the establishment of a planning department. In its application to an industry as a whole, scientific management would mean that the manufacturers with their employes should organize in each industry, and develop a planning department, with respect to conditions affecting all in common. In equating the public factor with the industrial, scientific management would mean that the city and state government should in turn modernize their departmental organization so as to equip themselves to meet the situation, and through boards of industrial control supervise the methods of the congregate industries so as to conserve the interests of the community as they are affected by those industries.

Applying his program to a particular trade, Mr. Porter outlines his plan as follows, describing it as a method of "industrial peace by getting together":

Taking the cloak makers industry above mentioned, let the Board of Sanitary Control composed of representatives of the Employer the Employe and the public constitute the Cloak-makers Board of Trade.

A building of considerable size, say 30 feet front by 150 feet deep by 5 stories high, located in some position central to the industry, would be necessary for the housing and administrative operations of this board, which through its sub-committees would be in continuous session. There would be an employment bureau established here with an inspector to examine physically and investigate the credentials of every applicant for work, and only those who were fit would be accepted, those who were unfit being referred to the proper city departments or local civic organizations. These applicants for positions would receive slips printed in their various languages and in English, and lantern slide talks would be given to them while waiting for employment, instructing them how to live at home and what the standard conditions should be in the factory, and they would be told to report later regarding these conditions. Thus the unfit landlord and employer would be discovered automatically and dealt with. Landlords and employers would be furnished with cards for posting in the factories and houses stating the sanitary conditions called for by the Board of Trade, and requiring the employes to live up to them. Workers would not be sent to objectionable employers or vice versa, nor to factories or houses which were not up to standard. Loft and flat-renting bureaus would be established to bring into better relationship the locations of shops and employes. Employes would, where possible, be sent to shops nearest to their homes.

In each factory a committee, composed jointly of employes elected by their fellows and of representatives appointed by the employer, would be established to consider suggestions for improvements and to settle petty grievances. All questions which could not be settled locally would be referred to the committee on conciliation and arbitration of the Board of Trade. For each employe who would contribute one week's wages to a fund as an indemnity in case of leaving without giving one week's notice, each employer would contribute the same amount as indemnity in case of the discharge of the employe without a similar notice. This employment guarantee or insurance fund, if only half of the employes should contribute to it, would amount to $250,000, the interest on which would go towards sickness and accident relief and disability pensions to participants. It would be kept in a co-operative bank which would handle all the funds of the industry. An agreement would be made that no strike or lockout could occur without the reason being referred to the conciliation and arbitration committee, which would have thirty days to investigate it in public meetings and announce its decision publicly. Compulsory arbitration would not be advocated.

Standards of hours, wages and work, of lighting, ventilation, fire protection and sanitary conditions, etc., would be established. A uniform system of bookkeeping and cost accounting would be inaugurated in all factories, to establish a common basis of competition. The seasonal fluctuations would be balanced by developing other work in the dull season, so as to make employment steady. A central purchasing agency for factory supplies and raw materials would be established as well as a sales headquarters, and in every way trade economics would be effected.

Here could also be accommodated representatives of the various activities existing in the city interested in industrial betterment, which would be willing to help in the work.

To finance this project an operating company would have to be formed, composed of

employers and employes. This company would raise a fund from the employers, each of whom would contribute one cent a day per employe; and from employes each of whom would contribute one cent a day, all in payment for the benefits derived from the privileges supplied. This fund would amount to over $250,000 per year which would make the project self-supporting; as this fund would be kept in the co-operative bank all surplus accumulations would be returned to the stockholders.

It is largely through ignorance of simple matters that present conditions exist, and the cure is not to be accomplished by legislation, infrequent inspection, and punishment for lapses. This project is based on developing an educational center for promulgating knowledge of sanitary conditions and the principles of scientific and economic business management, with the belief that education will achieve the results desired. Every feature referred to has successfully been applied on a smaller scale, so that it is known to be individually economic and feasible; and as for the rest it is merely applying the principles of democracy to an industrial community and an industry.

There are many organizations now doing industrial and civic betterment work in a haphazard and individual manner and finding great difficulty in accomplishing anything of moment on account of the method of approaching the problem which they are compelled to adopt, and the inertia of the people they endeavor to reach. By combining and concentrating these forces in the plan as outlined, and by intelligently controlling, correlating, and directing them, their helpfulness can be made available to enhance the benefits which would be projected. The public is tired of paying for the results of ignorance and inefficiency and for the inconveniences attendant upon industrial strife. It would be glad to pay an equal amount for their cure and prevention.

It is a truism of practitioners of scientific management that their greatest difficulties lie in getting the average employers to act. The unconvinced or reactionary employer will not accept their methods; progressive employers are often swinging as heavy a load as they can, individually, without the full cooperation of their fellows. Where an industry rather than an individual establishment could be approached, the situation would be different. In regard to the effect upon the warring elements of Capital and Labor of bringing their representatives together in a building where they may discuss their differences openly in the presence of representatives of the public. Mr. Porter calls attention to the fact that Mr. Carnegie who has probably given as much thought to the subject of Peace as any living man has felt that a building at the Hague where the warring elements of the nations could get together and discuss their differences would be in the right direction and has backed up his convictions by not only providing that building but by giving ten millions of dollars to encourage the representatives of the nations to get together in that building. Mr. Porter's plan is perhaps the first program for the co-ordination of an industry as a whole advanced by an industrial engineer. The reader, much less the individual employer, loft owner, or trade unionist, might be far from following him in all of his suggestions,—there is the touch which an architect puts into his work in sketching a Proposed Civic Center; but that very characteristic of his proposal throws into greater contrast the present inchoate situation in the garment trades in New York as an argument for cooperative action in this new city industrial district.

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN B. ANDREWS
Secretary American Association for Labor Legislation

REPORTING OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

When the International Congress on Occupational Diseases met at Brussels last September, Dr. Legge, medical inspector of factories in England, read a paper on Results of Ten Years' Notification of Lead Poisoning. In 1900 more than 1,000 workers in that country were reported as suffering from this affliction. Last year the number was only 553, although the system of recording has steadily improved. In some branches of the dangerous trades in England this occupational poison is now only one-fourth as serious as ten years ago.

In Great Britain when a practicing physician observes symptoms of lead, phosphorus mercurial, or arsenical poisoning, or anthrax, he is compelled to report the case to the factory inspector. Scientific men in the public service are then able to study intelligently the conditions which undermine health, to sug-

gest simple inexpensive precautions to the manufacturers, and to instruct the work people how to prevent unnecessary suffering and death.

Every class in the community is directly interested in scientific efforts to conserve the health, vitality, energy, and industrial efficiency of wage-earners by improving unhealthful conditions of employment in occupations where deadly poisons are in use.

In order that necessary precautions may be taken, the state should be enabled to determine where and how men are exposed to these perils. English and German experience indicates that the most practical and economical method of securing this information is through a law requiring physicians to report every case of occupational diseases to the proper authority. From this data preventive and remedial measures could be intelligently formulated and applied. The American Association for Labor Legislation, in its campaign for the conservation of human resources, invites the co-operation of other organizations in securing uniform legislation on the subject. The chief industrial poisons are noted briefly in the following paragraphs:

LEAD POISONING

The Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases reports upon 640 individual cases of lead poisoning. There were at least thirty-three deaths from this cause in New York last year. In 138 trades the workmen are said to be menaced by this poison. The worst occupations are the making and mixing of paints, and certain processes in printing and in the manufacture of storage batteries. Almost every large establishment has cases. The attack brings on successive paroxysms of colic, with vomiting. The nervous system is invaded, convulsions become frequent, partial paralysis ensues. Progressive hardening of the blood vessels leads often to cerebral hemorrhage and death. In some smelting works twenty-five per cent to thirty per cent of the laborers have been reported as staying not over a month, but dropping out as they become "leaded." Women are especially susceptible.

PHOSPHORUS POISONING

The match industry is the principal one in which phosphorus poisoning occurs. The fumes attack the bones and teeth. The bones become brittle; the teeth drop out; the jaw bones decay. Operations for the removal of part or all of the jaw bones are sometimes necessary, leaving the victims disfigured for life.

The use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches has been prohibited by all of the leading industrial countries of Europe. The president has advised in his message a prohibitive tax upon poisonous phosphorus matches, and through the Esch bill in Congress there is hope of securing legislation. The Diamond Match Company, formerly the owners of the most available substitute for poisonous phosphorus, has been forced by the Association for Labor Legislation to transfer the legal title to three trustees with full powers to grant its use to all applicants.

MERCURY POISONING

In the manufacture of hats, thermometers, electric meters and explosives, the principal injury from mercury is sustained. It brings on morbid depression, excessive salivation in the mouth and throat, intestinal derangement, anemia, tremors or "shakes," and, in time, general nervous paralysis. Much mercury poisoning can be prevented by proper ventilation, cleanliness, and the simplest devices, such as respirators and rubber gloves.

ARSENIC POISONING

In the industries connected with the manufacture of dyes, wall paper, chemicals, glass, oil cloth and in many others, arsenic endangers the health of the workers. Vomiting, severe pain in the intestines, intense thirst, neuritis, and death under symptoms resembling those of cholera result from acute poisoning. The disease in chronic form causes a falling off of hair and nails, various skin eruptions, inflammation of the mucous membrane, bleeding gums, cerebral disturbances, epilepsy, etc.

ANTHRAX

Anthrax is an infectious disease due to the entrance of a minute bacillus that clings to the hides of animals. In the wool leather and horse hair industries the malady is prevalent. Malignant pustules occur upon the neck and face of the victim. When the tissues around a pustule become inflamed the part affected sometimes assumes enormous proportions. The eyelids are especially susceptible. The treatment of the "colonies" of anthrax is by excision or cauterization, or serum. The two former leave disfigurements. When a patient becomes infected with a malignant form the cure is rare.

COMPRESSED AIR ILLNESS

The increasing amount of caisson work in building bridges, tunnels, subways, and skyscrapers has made this disease formidable. Men working under thirty pounds pressure or more beyond the normal, if not "locked" back gradually, have a "frothing in the blood" which often renders them unconscious. Blood sometimes runs from eyes, ears, and nose, and the pains in joints and muscles are excruciating. Statistics regarding the "bends", as the trouble is commonly named, are incomplete, and information concerning extent and causes would be of material service.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

A NICE KIND OF PARK

What fortunate persons are those who live in Fort Worth, Tex! There the Park Board allows them to go nutting in the parks—at least they allowed them to do so this year—the only restriction being that they must not climb the trees or damage them.

NOTABLE PARK GIFT

A notable park gift is that of five hundred acres, presented to the city of Covington, Ky. by William P. Devou and Charles P. Devou, brothers, in honor of their father and mother, who were pioneer residents of that section. In announcing the gift to the City Council, the president of the park commission stated that "one of the greatest authorities on parks in the world" had selected the hills which are included in the tract as an ideal site for a park.

FROM THE MOUTHS OF BABES

A despatch from Panama, published in all the papers, seems to mean that we are to have at least two cases of comprehensive town planning on this side of the Atlantic. It reads: "The president of Panama, as an incident to a contract just made with the United States regarding payment for municipal improvements in Colon and Panama, has issued a decree making it unlawful to erect any building or structure in either city before the municipal authorities have completely laid out and mapped the section and paved the streets."

Are our great cities to learn lessons from little Panama?

ST. PAUL'S CITY CLUB

In the autumn a City Club was organized in St. Paul, Minn., which differs from most city clubs in these particulars: Its membership is made up of delegates from other societies, clubs, organizations, and even churches, and it has a special purpose: to secure for St. Paul a comprehensive city plan. Membership includes women, and the club does not take the place of other organizations, but is designed to concentrate their influence in behalf of the one object for which it was created. It will co-operate with the City Council, and after the public has been sufficiently educated to the need for a plan to demand it, and the plan itself has been obtained, the club will devote its energies to the execution of the plan.

A TREE SOCIETY

The organization has been announced of the American Association for the Planting and Preservation of City Trees. Its purpose is stated to be the establishment of "a movement for the planting and care of trees and shrubbery in city streets, and in the yards and about the homes of the citizens, by arousing locality interest and pride and inducing local action." The headquarters are in Brooklyn, N. Y., and apparently the association's present operations are to be confined to Greater New York. The list of officers suggests, however, a later branching out, for the vice-presidents include Professor Graves, chief forester of the United States Forest Service, Dr. Merrill, assistant director of the New York Botanical Garden, and Miss Rogers, director of the Nature Club, *Country Life in America.*

CITY CHILDREN'S PLAY

The Parks and Playgrounds Association of the City of New York has issued an illustrated report of its work during last summer. It conducted thirty-six play centers, four of which were on roofs. And speaking of one of the roofs, that of the Children's Aid School of West Thirty-eighth street, the report says that during July and August the space was filled to its utmost capacity. "Over three hundred children enjoyed the summer days, high above the street and safe from the dangers of traffic." A part of the roof was set aside for the exclusive use of the babies, and was known as the nursery. Here the hammocks were swung, and mothers and big sisters came with the babies to insure them a nap above the heat and noise of their crowded homes. The report records a total attendance at the centers, which included recreation piers, of 152,790. In addition excursions were conducted to Bronx Park, Van Cortlandt Park, and Central Park.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS ATHLETIC LEAGUE

The Public Schools Athletic League of the City of New York issues its Year Book for 1910 in very elaborate form. An idea of the scope of its work may be gained from the following figures taken from the address of the president, Gen. George W. Wingate. In addition, he says, to the girls branch, which takes special cognizance of the exercises of the school girls, there are included in the league twenty-five district associations covering 306 square miles, the area of Greater New York, and assuming the direct management of 515 schools. In the elementary schools are 125 associations with a total membership of 110,000. In the games which these associations held during the year, 80,000 boys competed. Seventeen similar associations were in the high schools. It is estimated that in the whole series of athletic events held during the season the total number of boys and girls who took part was 150,000; and this does not include the games of the district leagues or the championship games of the league itself.

A VILLAGE MAGAZINE

From Springfield, Ill., comes an extraordinary publication under the title of the *Village Magazine*, which purports to be at once the first and the last number. It is characterized by a multitude of drawings, many extremely crude, and by text which is eye-destroying; and yet a spirit of sincerity and high ideal pervades it, which is to be respected. There is suggestion in it of the sort of work a village might, to its own great good, produce, generally in better form, if the community were keyed as high as it ought to be. The magazine is not for sale, but it may be obtained by request and an enclosure of necessary postage. Wandering through it in a series of full page illustrations is a Village Improvement Parade. The banners which the marchers carry bear mottoes, of which these are samples:

"Fair streets are better than silver; green parks are better than gold."

"Bad public taste is mob law; good public taste is democracy."

"To begin we must have a sense of humor and learn to smile."

The man responsible for the publication is Nicholas V. Lindsay. Another time we may quote from one of the editorials.

THE TREES OF WASHINGTON

The long report of Major Judson, engineer commissioner of the District of Columbia, has appeared in printed form. It includes the always interesting report of the superintendent of trees and parkings, for in Washington city-tree planting has been done more thoroughly than in any other city of the United States. Indeed the report now submitted is the twenty-fifth annual. It states that during the fiscal year 4,030 young trees were planted in the street-parking—all of them between walk and curb. This is thirty more than in the preceding year, and is the largest total in fifteen years. Of the trees 1,713 were Norway maple; 637 elm; the balance of various kinds. From an aesthetic point of view the most important work was the setting out of 32 pin-oaks in the Plaza in front of the great Union Station, in the continuous turf space at the outer edge. In addition trees have been planted on several of the streets approaching the Plaza. The number of trees removed from the streets during the years was 2,151. Most of these had died and in their places new trees were planted. At the close of the fiscal year the number of trees in charge of the department was 97,954, representing, on the basis of 352 trees per mile, a total of 535.30 miles of tree-planted streets.

RECORD OF ACHIEVEMENT

The Municipal Affairs Committee of the Grand Rapids Board of Trade has issued in leaflet form the report which its retiring secretary, John Ihlder, makes of his two years work as secretary. Mr. Ihlder—as readers of THE SURVEY know—has been now appointed field secretary of the National Housing Association. His record of work at Grand Rapids is—as readers of this department also know—one of achievement. And to this fact, which would sufficiently commend his report, is to be added the circumstance that he presents his data in an unusually interesting manner. Far from a boast, the report begins with a very modest and honorable statement of how much the committee was accomplishing before he became connected with it. He says that when first he arrived in Grand Rapids, he was told that there was no public spirit in the city. He found the statement was an error, for he discovered individuals "who were so full of civic spirit that they could not hold it all. They spilled their surplus into other men. Finally, one of these men became chairman of the Municipal Affairs Committee. Naturally he gathered about him others who had been infected, and then, with an organization through which they might express themselves, they began to be a power." Mr. Ihlder's account of the first civic revival, organized to secure an appropriation for a city plan, is instructive. It began, he says, "on a Monday evening. On the Friday before, a member of the committee visited Mayor Ellis to get his support for the proposed appropriation. The mayor was shocked at the idea. The council, he said, had practical matters to consider, such as the placing of half a dozen street lights over which there was a division of opinion. The revival closed on Sunday evening, a little over a week after the interview with the mayor. The next day, Monday, the appropriation was granted without a dissenting vote. Several of the aldermen took advantage of the occasion to express their unalterable conviction that we should plan for the future of the city."

CHILDREN'S GARDENS

An illustrated report of the Fairview Garden School Association of Yonkers, N. Y., has come to hand. It contains an admirable history of the general school garden movement. But the most interesting portion is that which tells concretely of the Fairview Garden School, which opened about May 1, 1909, and was open after school hours, and all day Saturdays, and all vacation until October 1. 582 children had plots ten by sixteen feet, but a thousand children had applied, so that 418 were refused. It is interesting to observe that 382 of the garden children were boys and 200 girls; that about forty per cent. attended the parochial schools and sixty per cent the public schools; that the nationalities were varied; that Poles and Slavs were numerous; that Italians were few, but without exception fine gardeners. The average age of the children was eleven and a half years. It appears from the record that they worked in their plots every day for the first two weeks, and thereafter generally three times a week. There was no trouble about discipline in the garden, although, says the report, some of the boys represented a very "tough" element. The product raised was officially valued at $3,306. Each child owned what he

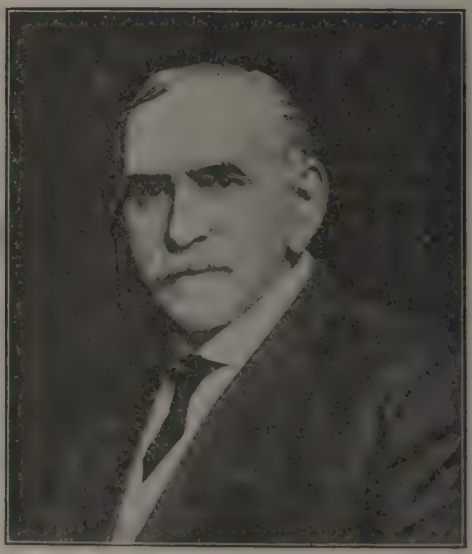
raised; and almost any morning during the summer one could see the children with vegetables in baskets, in little carts, in baby carriages, in wheelbarrows, and in flour bags, triumphantly bearing home the products of their toil. The report states that the health of the children was greatly improved, and that any tendency to juvenile theft was corrected through the experience of the value of property rights. "In dollars what does this save the city, the police courts, the protectories, the prisons, besides making a productive citizen out of one with criminal tendencies?" In a broad view the significance of this report is that it is typical of the record which this kind of work is making in many places.

RECENT MEETINGS OF SOCIAL WORKERS

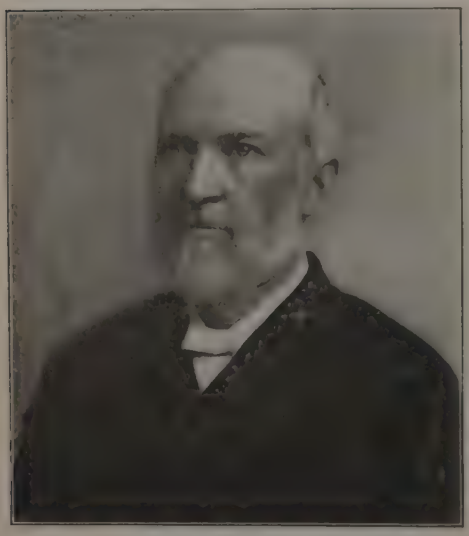
GOLDEN JUBILEE AT ST. LOUIS

Fifty years of continuous work by the St Louis Provident Association were appropriately commemorated in November with the dedication of a substantial, well-equipped headquarters building, and a golden jubilee program divided into two meetings, one in the afternoon at the new building, 2,221 Locust street, the other at night, at which reports and histories were read, and addresses made by Francis H. McLean, field secretary of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, and several leading ministers of St. Louis.

The evening meeting took place with the same congregation in the Grand Avenue Presbyterian Church, in whose building, then known as the Pine Street Presbyterian Church, the first annual meeting of the Provident Association was held fifty years ago. Six of the first contributors, each of whom is now well past three score years and ten, are still living,



W. H. McCLAIN,
Manager, St. Louis Provident Association.



SAMUEL CUPPLES.
President, St. Louis Provident Association.

and several of them were present at the jubilee celebration, along with many sons and grandsons of these and other charter members.

Samuel Cupples, president of the association, told of its work, reiterating the principles which it maintains and to which it has adhered during fifty years.

"As is well known to most of you," Mr. Cupples said, "it is often found necessary to give temporary assistance pending investigation, to avoid inflicting on applicants unnecessary hardship and privation, and in such cases the Provident Association promptly and gladly gives emergent aid. It does not, however, exist chiefly to give out doles to those in distress. The aim of enlightened philanthropy is not to relieve by means of doles the distress that follows such causes as illness, poverty, misfortune, improvidence or drunkenness, but rather to build up character, to stimulate self-reliance, to encourage industry, and to destroy the causes that tend to produce dependence."

A retrospect of the fifty years' history pre-

A MONUMENT TO FIFTY YEARS' WORK.

The new building of the St. Louis Provident Association dedicated at the golden jubilee celebration.

pared by the general manager, W. H. McClain, showed how many of the leading social movements of St. Louis have been originated and fostered by the Provident Association. Among these are the Pure Milk Commission, the Tenement House Commission, the Anti-Tuberculosis Commission, and the School of Social Economy. Just now another work—the Provident Association's care of the sick poor by trained nurses—has so developed that it will shortly be committed to the Visiting Nurse Association, which is to be organized on the nucleus of the corps of visiting nurses which the association has employed.

There has been rapid expansion in the last ten years in the training departments of the association. Its new building includes under one roof the laundry and sewing rooms, where unskilled women are taught; the women's lodgings for those without funds or stranded in the city, the day nursery, and the cheap baths. In the same building are preserved the results of fifty years' investigation, records of over 70,000 cases. Offices for operating the bureaus of application, registration, investigation and relief are here and in another part of the city are the woodyard and men's lodgings.

Francis H. McLean pointed out in his address that "everywhere there should be charity organization societies—real, not sham societies. The charity organization movement must become all-pervasive.

"It stands first of all for a study of the unit, the family. It stands for the family betterment as a preliminary to social betterment. So do other social movements. It stands, furthermore, for the amelioration of those who have suffered most in the struggle.

"The charity organization movement, modestly starting as an agency to check the duplication of relief and to systematize the giving of relief, by the very nature of its extensive work with dependent families has become the greatest interpreter of social conditions which this country now has.

"In St. Louis the Provident Association has itself undertaken the industrial and other agencies—which form a roll of honor for the Provident Association. It has followed

the course which I believe every strong and effective society should follow, of seeing that the most needed work is done, by separate organizations whenever possible, otherwise by itself."

Mr. McLean expressed the definite hope that the society would organize districts, now its greatest lack. In conclusion he forecast the future:

"Only as we carry out our original purpose the next fifty years, will we retain the important office of interpreter. And if we do, then I can foresee, at the end of those fifty years, a near approach to that time when there are no hopeless streets, no hopeless homes, when childhood will be childhood and with all the birthrights of childhood, when manhood and womanhood will still struggle on, but with burdens less killing and with higher ideals; when the wealth of this country will be measured, not in dollars of materialism, but in the strength and beauty of man and woman and child, not of the richer homes, but of the ordinary home upon the ordinary street."

Four leading ministers, the Revs. William Wirt King, J. W. Lee, D. C. Garrett and W. J. Williamson, bore testimony of the value to them personally and as heads of churches of the work which the association does—"This is the church organized and united, working together as if it were one church," as Dr. Lee put it.

Mrs. Philip N. Moore, president of the National Federation of Women's Clubs, who has long been a leading worker in the Provident Association's work for women, presided at the women's meeting in the afternoon. This was preceded by the dedication service at which, in receiving the keys of the building from the building committee, Mr. Cupples reminded the audience that the day was the anniversary of the death of Richard M. Scruggs, president of the association for nearly twenty years, and the donor of the building.

"THE AGENCIES OF DEMOCRACY"

The annual meeting of the Associated Charities of Washington, D. C., was made a memorial to its late president, Justice David J. Brewer. There were addresses on his work in the church and in philanthropy, the latter by Justice Charles E. Hughes. "To one at all familiar with the work of the Supreme Court, it seems incredible that he should have essayed the tasks outside of that work he performed so successfully," he said. The work of organized philanthropy was recommended to those "who look with misgiving upon the indications of the currents of thought."

"To those who come in contact with that work it seems at times as though the difficulties to be surmounted were so great and the objects to be attained were so remote, that all possible efforts must fail. But as these discouragements arise we find a more skilful planning, a more thorough organization, a more determined intent to accomplish what may be possible by way of remedy.

"Now I am not speaking of those who are contemplating a reconstruction of society, or of those who think that human nature is going to be changed, or that the faults and vices of men are going to be, within a period which we can contemplate, sensibly reduced. Rather do I refer to those who are deeply conscious of the extent of preventable misery and loss, those who want to see wholesome childhood; those who want to see protection against unnecessary injury, who desire to have barriers erected against the spread of disease, who wish decent housing, abundant playgrounds, and every means which may be found practicable by which we may have in our communities a healthful and vigorous life. . . .

"That requires thorough and complete organization. Some decry it. But the waste from indiscriminate giving is so great, the faults to be remedied are so many, the pressure upon time is so heavy, that we must have in philanthropic work the most careful organization and men devoting themselves exclusively to that work with proper compensation. These are the agencies of democracy. . . .

"Philanthropy in democracy must not consist in the mere doling out of largesses by those who are prosperous to those who are looked upon with a pitying eye, or for the purpose of securing the contentment of the giver in his self-indulgence. We must have that true democratic feeling, that sense of brotherly relation, that honest appraisement of our fellow men as men of like passions with ourselves—mayhap of fewer opportunities, mayhap of equal powers—but men like ourselves, whom we desire to help to make the best of themselves, or to relieve in their distress because they are our brothers and we believe in equality."

WAYWARD GIRLS

The development of a plan to do preventive work among girls and young women in danger of becoming morally depraved, and an effort to raise $25,000 for a new home, were among the signs of growth on the part of the New York Probation Association noted by District Attorney Charles E. Whitman, the president, at its second annual meeting. The plan for preventive work includes the division of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx into six districts, in each of which it is hoped to have a paid worker. The salary for one such visitor has already been provided. Over $6,000 of the $25,000 needed for the new quarters has been pledged. The principal aims of the association, as stated by Maude E. Miner, its founder and secretary, are to rehabilitate girls and young women who have recently fallen into evil ways; to study the extent and causes of the social evil, and to

undertake preventive measures. Many of the new recruits in the army of prostitution, she said, are mere children; a large proportion are mentally below par, and many are exploited by men who live upon the proceeds of prostitution. While the association regards it as important to combat the business of commercialized prostitution which is often controlled by men, and while it has aided in many cases in prosecuting men who live upon such ill-gotten gains, the association seeks primarily to save and restore young women brought to court on charges of soliciting and kindred offenses and found to be in need of friendship and assistance.

During the past year 387 girls and women were referred to the association by the courts, the district attorney's office, and other agencies. About one-third of this number were kept temporarily at Waverley House, the home maintained by the association near the Night Court for Women. Classes in sewing, cooking, and other branches are held for the benefit of those who stay at Waverley House pending their trial in court, or while awaiting employment, or transportation to their homes. The association secured 180 positions for girls and women during the year, and it endeavors to keep a friendly oversight over all for whom it finds employment. Relief is given when necessary, and in about one-fifth of all cases during the year medical care, including hospital and dispensary treatment, was provided. During the summer seventy-eight girls were enabled to spend two or three weeks or longer in the country, most of them at the farm conducted by the association at New Milford. The association was instrumental in securing the provision in the inferior courts act of 1910 providing for the establishment by the city of a suitable detention home for women arrested and brought to the Night Court.

Miss Miner criticised the practice of fining prostitutes, and deplored the fact that so many women convicted of soliciting and similar offenses are committed by the New York courts to the workhouse. During a recent six months period 1,620 women convicted of these offenses were fined, and 551 were sent to the workhouse, as against only three committed to the State Reformatory at Bedford. While the state institution at Bedford has excellent facilities for training and helping those committed to its care, the workhouse, through no fault of the Department of Corrections, but because of lack of appropriation, is so overcrowded that it is often necessary to put four or five women in the same cell, and little can be done to segregate young women from those who are hardened in vice.

CONVICTS AS FARMERS

The last semi-annual conference of the Colorado State Board of Charities and Corrections brought out a most interesting report on the work which prisoners from the State Penitentiary at Canon City have done outside the institution for the past four years. Some 1,500 men have been employed on ranches and garden tracts leased by the prison, in constructing a water system for Canon City and on public highways anywhere from one to 150 miles from the institution. Few escapes have been made in spite of absence of bars or manacles, and most of the few who got away were caught or came back of their own will. About 100 miles of splendid mountain road, half of it blasted through solid rock, and the value of the farm products raised give back to the state more than the $225,000 for maintenance which it appropriated two years ago. On the other side, the men improve in many ways and most of them who are paroled go direct from the work camps with no prison mannerisms to forget. No depredations or misconduct have been charged against the camps.

In fact the whole report as given by the warden, Thomas J. Tynan, backs up convincingly his plea for a well-irrigated ranch of 1,200 acres. The 184 acres on which the penitentiary stands are not available for either farming or pasturage. With such a ranch as he plans, the warden believes he could relieve the state of all maintenance charges.

The state's niggardly treatment of the reformatory at Buena Vista was brought out by Warden Felix O'Neill at the same conference. The altitude and gravelly soil give scant return for the farm work, the building —which is a cell block—is not built along modern lines, and it lacks such essential elements of a reformatory as shops, laundry and baths.

MISSOURI LIABILITY COMMISSION

With his usual promptness Gov. Herbert S. Hadley of Missouri had no sooner returned from the meeting of the House of Governors at Louisville than he appointed a commission on employers' liability in accordance with the resolutions adopted by that body. The commission has twenty-eight members, including representatives of both political parties, employes, corporations, railroads, lawyers and others. It is organized into two committees: one on factory inspection, child labor and women in industry, and the other on employers' liability and workmen's compensation. Both party platforms in Missouri endorsed the principle of workmen's compensation and there is said to be good prospect of securing legislation at this session.

KENTUCKY CHARITIES

Lafon Allen, in speaking at the recent Kentucky Conference of Charities and Correction at Louisville, showed how the Kentucky Child Labor Association, of which he is president, has cut off the "amateur nights" in theaters for children under age performing for prizes. A series of prosecutions have established four propositions at law, he said, which effectually stop such plays. The propositions are that it

is illegal to employ children under fourteen on the stage at any time; that it is illegal to employ children between fourteen and sixteen on the stage after seven o'clock at night; that "amateur nights" are a violation of the law; that a copy of the statute must be posted in each theater. Amateur nights have troubled child labor reformers in many states and the Kentucky decisions will be learned with the greatest interest.

The ravages of tuberculosis in the mountain districts were brought out by Eugene Kerner, who stated that one person out of every five or six dies of consumption. Trachoma and other eye diseases are very prevalent also, as was shown by Dr. J. A. Stuckey of Lexington. The people are poor, the doctors far apart, and there are no public institutions for treatment.

The conference brought together workers in many fields and summarized progress made, such as, for instance, the splendid success of the Babies' Milk Fund Association of Louisville, and the three laws secured at the last session of the legislature providing for the indeterminate sentence, parole, and the separation of first and confirmed offenders. Round table meetings of charity organization society workers and juvenile court workers were not the least of the interesting features. Dr. H. G. Enelow of Louisville, who has presided at the conference for the past two years, was succeeded by S. A. Malin of Lexington as president.

IOWA CHARITIES

That there is great need for increasing the number of state institutions was brought out convincingly at the last Iowa Conference of Charities and Correction at Des Moines—the twelfth annual meeting. At almost all of the twelve sessions the conference has been told the need for a separate institution on the colony plan for epileptics, but as Dr. Murdock Bannister, a member of the Board of Control of State Institutions, pointed out, it has scarcely advanced beyond the stage of discussion. Nevertheless, there is some prospect that the Legislature which met this month will act. Ida M. Wines and other workers among women delinquents pointed out that Iowa has no provision whatever for delinquent women. It is an agricultural state without large cities and without many of the conditions found in congested districts, but a reformatory similar to the one at Bedford, N. Y., was urged nevertheless and shown to be needed. Other institutions for which a plea was made were a home and hospital for crippled children, a psychopathic hospital, and a larger number of playgrounds. The small cities of Iowa have lagged behind others of their class in the playground movement. Forest C. Ensign of Iowa City was elected president; A. T. Burnell of Des Moines and George D. Eaton of Clinton, vice-presidents; H. L. Houghton of Sioux City, treasurer, and Dr. George Mogridge of Glenwood, secretary.

SOUTH CAROLINA CHARITIES

Interest at the last session—the second annual—of the South Carolina Conference of Charities and Correction centered in the need of a state board of charities, in a paper which was read by Miss E. McClintock of the College for Women at Columbia. The effort begun last year to secure the passage by the Legislature of a bill creating such a board will be vigorously followed up during the present session. A good start was given by the conference to the movement to establish a juvenile court. To this the speech of Walter B. Wilbur especially contributed. The allied subjects of child labor and compulsory education were presented by John Porter Hollis of Rock Hill and Prof. W. H. Hand of the University of South Carolina. The officers for the ensuing year are A. T. Jamison, Greenwood, president; Prof. D .D. Wallace, Spartanburg, vice-president; Walter B. Wilbur, Charleston, secretary and treasurer.

OHIO HUMANE SOCIETIES

The recently organized Federation of Ohio Humane Societies held its first meeting in Cleveland. Of the forty-one societies in the state twenty-three have joined the federation and eighteen were represented at the meeting. The federation will endeavor to set standards of work and efficiency to which all will be urged to conform. Having efficiency and progress as an ideal, the papers read before this first meeting were clear and valuable to the members. As an immediate result of the meeting twenty-three societies will use uniform records, and a field secretary will be employed to stimulate the work of existing societies, to secure co-operation, and to organize new societies in counties where none exists.

TEXAS CHARITIES

With the recent meeting at Houston, Texas joined the states which hold annual conferences of charities and correction. Besides general papers of interest and profit, a number were peculiarly timely and appropriate, as, for instance, when A. J. McKelway urged the conference to work for a good child labor law now while its industries are comparatively undeveloped and practically no children are employed, and for an accompanying compulsory education law. Two subjects having strong local application were the discussions of tuberculosis and of prisons.

Tuberculosis patients swarm to Texas from all parts of the country because of its climate, and as a result there is a big and trying problem. Tuberculosis is responsible for more deaths in Texas than any other one disease, and yet the state is doing practically nothing to educate the people in preventing its spread. It needs an active, energetic educational campaign.

The possibilities of the Texas penitentiary

system under the law passed by the last Legislature—a law which followed the disclosure of serious abuses—was the subject of a carefully worked out paper by Charles Shirley Potts of the University of Texas. Under this law all lease contracts for convicts must terminate by January 1, 1914, and the prison commissioners are empowered to buy land, erect buildings ,and otherwise provide employment for the men as fast as their leases expire. Outside Texas it will be learned with astonishment that the new law does not entirely abolish the strap, though its use is limited to the lowest class of prisoners and only as a last resort. The number of lashes is limited to twenty, the size of the strap is prescribed, and a record of each case of corporal punishment is kept. More promising features of the law are the reduction of time for good conduct, and payment of prisoners. A prisoner whose conduct is such as to gain him a reduction of time will be paid ten cents a day wages for his full time in prison. Dr. Potts pointed out that the law does not provide for an indeterminate sentence and hoped that it might be brought about at the first revision.

As a result of the conference, and particularly because of an address by Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation, the United Charities of Houston will extend its work and establish a child helping department.

The next conference will be held in Austin, January 22-24, 1912, with the following officers: President Charles Shirley Potts, Austin; vice-presidents, Henry Cohen, Galveston; John L. Green, Fort Worth; Ed. McCustin, Paris; Judge E. P. Eylar, El Paso; secretary, J. P. Kranz, Houston.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

AGAINST THE CURRENT. By Edward A. Steiner. Fleming H. Revell. New York 1910. Pp. 230. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

In his latest book Professor Steiner has given a vivid picture of his own childhood in a Carpathian mountain town, and a remarkable record of the influences that chiefly formed his mind. It is the picture of a sensitive, rebellious child, learning from his Magyar and Slavic playmates what it meant to be a Jew, (though he loved the Gentile children best—perhaps, his sister explained, because he was "brother by vaccination" to one of them) but learning also, from manifold experiences, what it means to be a member of the human family. A new teacher, a Hungarian Jew of liberal culture, gave him his first ideas of Liberty, Equality, Fraternity. Bohemian literature on the sheets of unsanitary "sugar paper" secured from a studious candy-maker, the reading being devoured after the sweet coating had been licked off, introduced him to the scientific view of the creation of the world; and discussions with the candy-maker made of him temporarily a confirmed sceptic.

Tragic experiences were shared by the child prematurely, in addition to the insistent tragedy of race hatred in which he lived. He saw his school teacher's anguish over the ravishing of his beautiful wife by a Magyar official and knew of his consequent suicide. A peasant girl whom he had helped to tend her geese went away to the city and came back in disgrace. He was taken to say goodby to the miller's daughter when she was dying of consumption, and to receive from his friend the candy-maker, on a death-bed of torture, the assurance that there was after all a God. He vaguely understood the broken hearts of the Jewish Adèle and her Gentile lover. When his oldest brother was fatally wounded in his first engagement for the Hungarian king, the little boy ran across fields and overtook the carriage in which his mother was starting on her sad journey, and with her in the far-off German city he received his first impression both of the horror of war and of the unity of mankind, seeing "Slav, Magyar, Jew and Gentile, one in death, so much alike that a Jewish mother scarcely knew her own child."

The Lutheran pastor who at one Passover supper, having faced a dozen mobs to save the Jews from violence, came into the house and sat in the hallowed place prepared for the Prophet Elijah, gave him a glimpse of "a Christian vision," and the incident no doubt had its influence in turning him later towards Christianity, as holding "in its spirit the solution of class and race problems." A broken Jewish soldier, coming home to die after serving in our Civil War, made Abraham Lincoln one of his first heroes. His face was turned steadfastly toward the new world by friendship with the children of a prosperous family who came to the town, seeking obscurity in the home country until the father's misdeeds in an American city should be forgotten. After running away for America, with an epileptic boy from the House of the Poor for company, and being arrested not far from home and lodged in jail as a vagrant, he was sent away to school, and childhood was over.

The student life in gymnasium and university, in Vienna, Pilsen, and Heidelberg, is touched only lightly, except for the pilgrimage to Tolstoi, which did much to strengthen the

conviction that national and racial barriers are but superficial and artificial.

It is a moving recital, and rings true, in spite of the wealth of unusual and dramatic incident. In thus writing the story of the development of his own mind and heart, with sincerity and frankness and vision, Professor Steiner is doing his greatest service to the cause which he avows as the passion of his soul, the promotion of the brotherhood of man. It is a new kind of "immigration literature." If other Americans whose early lives were passed in distant lands could give us similar records mutual understanding, and by consequence the "process of assimilation," could not but be hastened.

THE ECONOMIC POSITION OF WOMEN. Edited by Henry Raymond Mussey. The Academy of Political Science, Columbia University, New York. 1910. Pp. 193. Price $1.50 postpaid by THE SURVEY.

"In the field of production" should be added to the title of this volume to describe accurately its contents, for the position of women as consumers of wealth—which is still their primary economic function—is not considered. And this addition might be further qualified by "especially in the manufacturing industries," for it is the factory worker whose problems are discussed in the greatest detail, and whose case is chiefly in mind in the general papers. Saleswomen and school teachers are each the subject of a paper, but the great army of clerical workers is almost unnoticed. Public interest in wage-earning women has been first aroused for those who most need protection. Later it will extend to the rest, and there can be no doubt that the problem of increasing the efficiency of stenographers and clerks is one of the most serious in connection with women's work, the solving of which is perhaps as important for the general welfare as is the extension of protective legislation for the women in industry.

Within the natural limits as to scope, determined no doubt by the material available, the editor has handled his subject ably. The book begins with a historical sketch; next, some of the conspicuous problems are stated; a final section is devoted to the social action which the problems call for.

This collection of papers is remarkably free from the defects that are common to such compilations. There is an unusually consistent point of view, and the repetitions which occur are not objectionable, giving the impression of reinforcements and confirmations rather than of careless editing. The book gives an encouraging sense of a large number of persons thinking intelligently on these problems, investigating carefully, and experimenting sanely. It is interesting that most of the contributors are women: Helen L. Sumner, Mary Van Kleeck, Alice P. Barrows, Elizabeth B. Butler, Emily Greene Balch, Susan M. Kingsbury, Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch, Florence Kelley, Alice Henry, Helen Marot, Sarah Louise Arnold, Mary Schenck Woolman, M. Edith Campbell, Josephine Goldmark, and Carola Woerishoffer. The only men who have a part in the book, aside from the editor (whose admirable introduction is no doubt only a small part of his contribution) are John Martin and Ernst Freund.

WHAT EIGHT MILLION WOMEN WANT. By Rheta Childe Dorr. Small, Maynard and Company. Boston. 1910. Pp. 339. Price $2; by mail of THE SURVEY, $2.20.

The eight million women are the members of the affiliated societies of the International Council of Women, of whom the American representatives, the members of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, number 800,000. What the author aims to do is "to show the instinctive bent of the universal woman mind in all ages, reflected in the action of the freest group of women the world has ever seen." The theme is not consistently maintained, and the book is a collection of popular articles on certain social problems in which women are or ought to be interested, rather than a descriptive or analytical account of the activities of the American club woman and her mental processes. Nor is there any analysis of the discrepancy (implied in the title) between the "collective opinion of women" on these problems, and the collective opinion of men.

"Facts" are handled ingeniously, but sometimes carelessly, and not infrequently statements are made, as of facts, which one would be hard put to it to verify; though on the whole Mrs. Dorr has evidently been at some pains to inform herself and to use her material with discrimination, and the presentation is generally clear and interesting.

ROADTOWN. By Edgar Chambless. The Roadtown Press. New York. 1910. Pp. 172. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.39.

The underlying idea of Roadtown is "line distribution of population" so that the new city shall "fit the rail, pipe and wire civilization of today." Mr. Chambless proposes to lay the skyscraper down on its side and extend it out into the country instead of up into the air. In place of our many kinds of transportation facilities—street cars, subways, elevators, wagons, which most of us have occasion to know do not fit together any too well—he would provide in the basement of this indefinitely extended house a unified system of passenger and freight transportation.

His attractive picture of apartment house conveniences stretching out through the countryside, with unrestricted view for all, no narrow air shafts with noisy neighbors on the other side, household drudgery all but eliminated through pooling it at various places along the line—only to hint at the advantages he describes—receives plausibility from his insistence that the scheme involves great economies in construction, and the utilization of inventions which can be carried out best on

the "line" principle. Moreover, actual estimates of engineers are submitted, something not often found in schemes which most people please to call utopian. Still further, the author states that many inventors have donated to the plan the use of their inventions, among them the poured cement house by Thomas A. Edison and the Boyes monorail.

The earnest, persistent devotion of Mr. Chambless to his idea is noteworthy, and is enthusiastically praised by two "forewords," one by Julian Hawthorne, and the other by the Rev. John Haynes Holmes of the Church of the Messiah, New York.

JUST FOLKS. By Clara E. Laughlin. The Macmillan Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 377. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61.

The "folks" live near Hull House and are the friends of a probation officer of the Juvenile Court. She lodged with "Liza Allen, Fashionable Dressmaking" rather than at Hull House, chiefly because "she knew the attitude of the nineteenth ward toward what is regarded as the professional benevolence of the settlement." The *laissez-faire* theory of philanthropy announced in this and other allusions to Hull House is maintained throughout. When any one needs shoes or rent-money the little probation officer persuades her fiancé, a reporter, to get a story into his paper, or to "pass the hat around" in his office. The birth of a baby, only to die within a few days, in a family where none of the other children had any sort of chance, is presented as a wholly beautiful and poetic incident. The "charity organizations" never by any chance act either with ordinary intelligence or with common humanity.

Many of the characters are already familiar to magazine readers. Each one is a type, and is made so consistently "typical" as scarcely to be real. Liza Allen and Mrs. Casey are bottomless wells of philosophy and wit, and they speak chiefly in epigrams, which are frequently amusing, sometimes wise. The affairs of the various Caseys, Slinskys, Gooches, and all the rest, hold the interest, and the book may easily succeed in rousing sympathy for the very real problems it represents, and it may suggest to some people the fact that "the poor" are not a class apart, but are moved by the same passions and impulses as the rest of humanity, and have the same virtues and faults.

NEIGHBORHOOD ENTERTAINMENTS. By Renée B. Stern. Sturgis and Walton. New York. 1910. Pp. 288. Price, 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY, 84 cents.

This volume of The Young Farmer's Practical Library gives specific suggestions for increasing social pleasures in rural communities and so mitigating one of the unfortunate features of country life in America—the isolation and lack of facilities for recreation. In the first part of the book the possibilities of local improvement associations, clubs, societies, and social centers are discussed; in the second, home entertainments purely for pleasure, and festivals for Easter, Arbor Day, and other special occasions. The suggestions throughout are based on successful experiments, and are intended to be especially useful to the farmer and villager cut off from libraries, exhibitions, and daily contact with a variety of his fellows, but "who is striving to make the life of himself and his family broader and brighter, as well as to increase his bank account."

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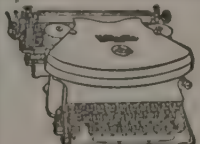

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The actual presence of these germs of disease in dust constitutes one of the greatest dangers of mankind, for these micro-organisms multiply a thousand fold in an exceedingly short space of time. Therefore it follows that if a person affected with any infectious disease should mingle with a throng of people in some public building, the effluvia from his infected body would shortly pollute the air with the germs of that particular disease.

In time these germs would multiply and mingle with the dust circulating throughout the building. When the room is vacated and quiet restored the dust and germs settle on the floors. If the floor surface is dry, any slight movement or air-current would be sufficient to whirl the dust into the air again. On the other hand proper treatment of the floor will hold all dust that settles on it and *destroy* all living germs.

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THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT OPENS

The most ambitious exhibit of social work and needs ever attempted, the Child Welfare Exhibit in New York, opened last week in the Seventy-first Regiment Armory, and will continue day and night until February 12. The exhibit has been in preparation for sixteen months, in addition to earlier planning and preliminary work, and has cost $70,000. It occupies at the armory one of the largest rooms under a single roof. The center is arranged as a court of honor with many seats, a speakers' platform and screen for moving pictures. The exhibits are arranged around the sides. The general scheme of display and the soft gray background are remarkably effective.

The sections, each of which was in charge of a special committee during the months of preparation, are on associations and clubs; churches, temples and Sunday schools; health; homes; laws and administration; libraries and museums; public and private philanthropy; streets, recreation and amusements; schools; settlements; work and wages.

The exhibit consists chiefly of facts, figures, and photographs, displayed on large gray frames after the customary manner of social exhibits. The more striking exhibit devices — such as the blinking electric light of the tuberculosis exhibit or the many compelling features of the congestion show or the budget exhibit—were excluded. There are some very attractive model rooms and other departures from the card displays. These have drawn the crowds. A careful estimate of the exhibit as a whole cannot be attempted at this time. The attendance is large and the programs are admirable.

The exercises on the opening night began with singing by one thousand school children, after which Borough President McAneny spoke in behalf of the city government whose officials, he said, were beginning to recognize that the municipal government should be the greatest of social workers. Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, chairman of the women's committee, urged the duty of mothers to look beyond the walls of their own nurseries and help neglected children outside; and Robert W. deForest, as member of the general committee of the exhibit, told of its scope and objects. He illustrated the method of preparing the exhibits by the work of the committee on law and administration, which had not only studied the New York system, but had compared it with the systems of other localities, and from this study had been enabled to offer a tentative program for improvement in New York.

The first five days of the regular afternoon and evening conferences were devoted to education. Superintendent Maxwell presided over the first conference, on the public school and the child, and the principal speakers were John Martin of the Board of Education and Prof. Frank M. McMurry of Teachers College. The paper by Principal James A. O'Donnell on Self-government and the Teaching of Civics, was practically illustrated by a group of school boys who enacted a meeting of the city Board of Estimate and Apportionment. The wider use of the school plant as a civic and social center was treated by Edward W. Stitt of the Department of Education, and graphically presented by charts in the education exhibit which showed the folly and extravagance of working the school plant only five hours a day on five days in the week.

The session on special school problems included the account given by Elizabeth Farrell, inspector of ungraded schools, of the work done for that number, anywhere from one to ten per cent of our school children, who are subnormal either through physical defect or mental handicap. She described the method of interesting and bringing out the intelligence of those of the 1,998 children in the ungraded classes of New York who were capable of development,

Minor in St. Louis Post-Dispatch.

A NEW YEAR'S RESOLUTION: "I WILL NEVER SMOKE AGAIN."

and urged that those who are found to be incapable, and who after school life is over now swell the number of our delinquents, should be permanently cared for by the city.

Quite as interesting as Miss Farrell's work for the handicapped was the open air school described by John Doty of Public School 21, where twenty delicate children are studying, eating, playing, and taking their noonday rest in the fresh air all winter long, and in all cases making the satisfactory gains in both weight and intelligence which are common to all open-air schools.

At the session devoted to vocational education, Mary Schenk Woolman outlined the work of the Manhattan Trade School in enhancing the economic value of young girls whose home conditions make a long course in industrial training impossible. Herman Schneider told something of the success of the Cincinnati public schools in providing half-time technical study in the schools for working boys, and in sending visiting teachers to give courses in factories.

The conferences on Sunday and Monday were devoted to different phases of religious education.

Throughout the week afternoon and evening drills and dances have been given in the large hall of the armory by girls and boys from five of the public schools and the Young Men's Christian Association. The band from the DeWitt Clinton High School and the chorus from the Washington Irving Hight School furnished music at the conferences.

JEWISH ATTITUDE ON IMMIGRATION REPORT

At the recent conference of the Union of American Hebrew Congregations, which drew to New York the leading Jews of the country in large numbers, the Jewish position in regard to the recommendations[1] of the Federal Immigration Commission was presented at length by Max J. Kohler of New York. Although he approved the demand for better boards of inquiry and for better distribution of immigrants by limiting the number admitted at any given port of entry, Mr. Kohler disapproved highly of the restrictionist policy evidenced in many of the other recommendations, which he characterized as the first step toward a return to the "Know-Nothing" policy of the sixties.

He challenged the conclusion of the report that there is an oversupply of labor in this country, pointing out that the commission's investigations were made in a year of panic and that at the present time the agricultural states are showing little or no increase in population, Iowa even showing a decrease. Farm and other forms of unskilled labor, he held, are actually needed in the United States and it is these forms of labor that the present day immigrant from southern and eastern Europe can supply.

The proposed effort to equalize race values by establishing percentages of each race to be admitted he felt to be impracticable, liable to give free play to race

[1]See the Survey for January 7.

prejudice, and unnecessary, because whatever the race admitted the problem of the alien in America, he said, is a problem of but one generation, on account of that marvelous assimilative power of American institutions commented on by James Bryce. The scientific investigations of the commission itself show how potent America is to make Americans, as even in physical characteristics the children of foreigners are found to be Americans and not aliens.

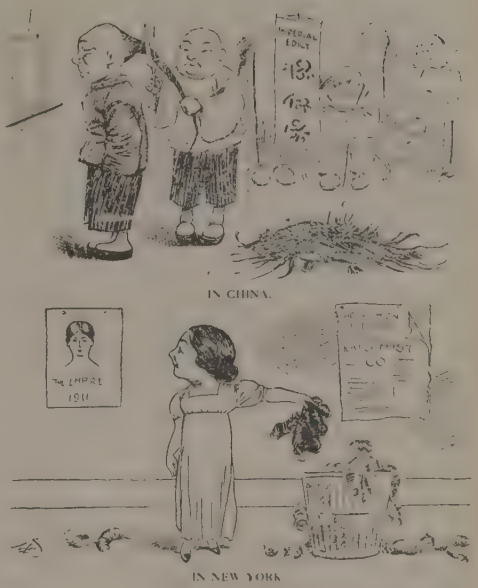
The proposition of a money requirement he deemed unnecessary and unfair if the alien offered a healthy body able to work. Literacy, too, as a requirement, he dismissed as unnecessary on the same ground, and also because it is a problem of but one generation, as the children of the illiterate foreigner show a larger percentage of literacy than do those of the native born.

Finally, he held that the recommendation to exclude men without families would both keep out of America the most fluid element in our labor supply and would also work great injustice on those men who come over alone in order to prepare homes for their families in the new world.

A further defect in the recommendations of the commission and a defect of the utmost importance, he held, was the neglect to provide that those emigrating from their native country on account of religious or political persecution should be relieved of any but the minimum requirements for admission.

The true solution of the immigration problem Mr. Kohler believes to lie not in a policy of restriction, but in a wide extension of the movement for better distribution of population carried on by the Jewish Industrial Removal Society—which he held has placed some 55,000 persons where their labor is needed, as well as by the Federal Information Bureau of the Bureau of Immigration.

Our present law as it stands met with Mr. Kohler's approval, but he found much to criticise in its administration. The present administration has by free interpretation of the law constituted itself a law in itself, he said, and already practically adopted some of the present recommendations of the commission,



New York Press.

CHANGING STYLES.

In China an imperial edict and in New York a decree of fashion are reducing hair. The two do not usually go together, for, as an investigator at the Child Welfare Exhibit found, the hair of Chinese coolies is transformed in damp East Side cellars into the most bewitching puffs and curls.

such as the money requirement for entrance, and the tendency to exclude men without families. The medical test has also become more exacting than the law, as he understands it, requires and he charges that the boards of inquiry adopt unfair methods in passing on doubtful cases—both in treatment of witnesses and in not keeping written records as the law requires—and pass such careless judgments that fifty per cent of their exclusions are reversed on appeal. Within the last two years the percentage of exclusions of Jews alone has risen from .84 per cent to 1.86 per cent.

Secretary Nagle, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, in his reply to Mr. Kohler's criticism of the present administration, said that he believed that in the vast majority of cases the free interpretation of the law worked in favor of the alien. This he knew to be the fact in appeal cases, and he believed that as far as it could be done by a small number of men called upon to do too large an amount of work this was the case at

Davenport in New York Globe.
TO THE FARMS OR THE SLUMS?

the ports also. He believed that the great need of the Immigration Bureau was a quantitative and a qualitative improvement in its employes, and especially in the boards of inquiry.

TEACH PRISONERS THROUGH CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS

The system of instruction instituted by Anna Ticknor and her friends many years ago in Boston was probably the first attempt at thoroughly good teaching by mail. The various teachers were scattered throughout New England and the pupils were distributed all over the United States. The Chautauqua and other systems have followed, but as yet there has been no systematic use of such methods for reaching prisoners. A few of our best penal and reformatory institutions have allowed specially selected inmates to take advantage through correspondence schools of instruction in higher branches, such as mechanical drawing, mathematics and designing. The best prisons and reformatories have instruction in the common branches within the walls.

The English prison board is ahead of us in the correspondence school as a definite plan. The Home Office is to have courses given to convicts sentenced to long terms and to boys in the Borstal institutions, by means of the International Correspondence Schools. This decision is the result of an experiment with twelve inmates of one of the Borstal institutions whose records were admirable. Two of them are making great progress in navigation, algebra, geometry and trigonometry, to prepare to be navigators; another is taking up mechanical drawing. They are to be allowed to study languages by the modern method which uses the phonograph. There are also to be illustrated lectures to inmates of prisons on the industries of the country, as a spur to these young men to fit themselves for honest work on their release. The experiments will be watched with great interest by prison officials and if successful will surely find imitators in other lands.

COURSE FOR TEACHERS OF BACKWARD CHILDREN

The stand taken some years ago by the Training School for Backward and Feeble-minded Children at Vineland, N. J., that a public institution must do more than merely house and feed those in its care, has borne new fruit in a winter course of professional training for teachers in special classes of the public schools which will open February 7. The Vineland institution has become practically a laboratory for the study and solution of the social and scientific problems which fall within its scope. It has for eight years conducted a successful summer course for teachers, and from this has grown so great a demand that the winter course will be opened, covering a much longer term—until April 30—and both more extensive and intensive in its work.

The course is based on the realization by the superintendent, E. R. Johnstone, that the problem of backward and defective children in public schools grows more serious every year. They must be segregated in special classes, not only for their own sake, but even more for the sake of the normal children who are their associates. The results of special classes wherever established have exceeded all expectations. The missing link in the

thorough working out of a system for backward and defective children is the specially trained teacher, and it is this expert training which the institution plans to furnish.

The students will have opportunity to observe backward and mentally defective children in every phase of their home, school, and social life, and will receive definite instruction in method, theory, and practice.

The announcement shows a rounded program of lectures by Superintendent Johnstone, Dr. Goddard, the director of research, and Mrs. Nash, the principal of the school department. There will be opportunity to teach these children in the schoolroom and in vocational training classes. Individual children will be assigned for study and classification and students will carry on special investigations in the laboratory, where practical tests of mental capacity and the uses of various pieces of apparatus have been skillfully demonstrated. Membership will be limited to teachers already doing work in special or ungraded classes and those who contemplate taking up such work.

Details of the course, tuition charges, and other information can be secured of Mr. Johnstone.

THE CHOLERA IN CONSTANTINOPLE

Although the American College for Girls at Constantinople began the year most auspiciously with about 250 pupils in attendance and the construction of its new buildings well advanced, the success of its work is now seriously menaced by cholera. Emily Ray Gregory, professor of physiology and hygiene in the college, writes under date of November 25: "The cholera has come, and has now reached such proportions that the city day schools have been closed, and all schools national and foreign having boarding and day students have been requested by the Sanitary Commission to close their doors to day students for a week."

Such a situation is particularly difficult to deal with in Constantinople because of the ignorance and superstition of great masses of the population. A

Bradley in Chicago News.

BETTER FIRE APPLIANCES ARE NEEDED.

rumor which is said to be rife among the ignorant, that cholera victims are poisoned if discovered by the physicians, leads to the concealment of cases. The great need is for instruction in cleanliness and other simple means for the prevention of conditions that lead to cholera and similar diseases. The city government recognizes the fundamental importance of such instruction, both in hindering the spread of the disease at present and in preventing a recurrence of the epidemic, and has asked the co-operation of physicians, teachers, and the press in educating the public.

Professor Gregory, although her department has no endowment for the purpose, has entered bravely upon the campaign. With only a small sum which was given her recently by a visiting physician who saw the pressing need of such instruction, she has instituted two courses of lectures in Turkish, one at Stamboul and the other at Constantinople, and is making the prevention of cholera her principal theme. Without funds her efforts must of necessity be cruelly hampered, but the courage with which she has entered upon the fight, in face of the certainty that it must soon be discontinued if financial assistance is not forthcoming, may go far toward securing for the college an endowment for instruction

Minor in St. Louis Post-Dispatch.

DISGORGING.

in preventive hygiene, for which there is nowhere more urgent need. Borden Parker Bowne, 380 Longwood avenue, Boston, is president of the American College for Girls Corporation in this country.

NATIONAL CAMPAIGN FOR POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS

The campaign for a postal savings bank system was one of the three tasks which, at the beginning of last year, THE SURVEY urged as a national program for social workers to set themselves for 1910. Owing to the interest shown by President Taft the first step has been taken. A few banks have been opened. But the success which has followed from years of effort may be only partial unless a watch is kept to see that the system receives a fair trial. During the first week of January, newspapers printed meager telegraph reports from some of the offices giving the news of the first few days. Since then little has appeared about Uncle Sam as a banker. After two requests for fuller details, which the department at Washington ought at least to have, an answer to the second came from the secretary of the Board of Trustees of the Postal Savings System, saying: "In reply I regret to state that it will be impossible to furnish you with this information."

The news reports available seem to show that very fair results have been secured where the fact that the banks had been opened received sufficient advertising. In Nebraska City, Neb., it is reported that many patrons were turned away because of a lack of certificates of deposit of the larger denominations which, if true, shows that a slip was made in the preparations. At Deadwood, S. D., and Dover, Del., the public at large did not know that the bank had been opened. At Dover the reports state there were not even any signs in the office about postal savings. Satisfactory business seems to have been done at Port Arthur, Tex., where many foreigners made deposits; Brunswick, Ga.; Rutherford, N. J.; Ashtabula, O., and Olympic, Wash. At Pekin, Ill., there was quite a rush and 300 accounts were opened. Poor results were secured at Houghton, Mich.; Middlesboro, Ky., and in New England, where perhaps it was to be expected since the savings bank is such a well established institution in that section of the country. At Bristol, R. I., school children made many deposits, which was probably due to the interest taken by the local school authorities. Deposits by mail from all over Alabama were received at Bessemer, but these were returned. The local deposits were large owing partly to the interest of the president of the Bessemer Foundry and Machine Company who was himself the first depositor. In one instance a local bank had to raise its rate of interest to prevent a loss of deposits.

From the general tenor of the reports it seems that, though the postmasters of the offices selected in thirty-six of the eastern states were called to Washington for instructions, the department did not

take active measures to advertise the new feature of the service. The success or failure during the first week seems in several cases to have been due to the interest, or want of interest, of people in the cities selected who are in a position to influence others.

The interest of social workers, which led them to establish such organizations as the Provident Loan Society and the Penny Provident Fund, should make them see that the facilities offered by the postal savings banks are used. The many settlement, school, and church savings funds for children should serve as feeders and advertising agencies for the government savings depositaries. Stamp stations for the penny provident funds should be encouraged in the cities in which postal savings banks have been established. It should be fairly easy to ask the poor, the ignorant, and the foreigner to trust the government. Collections made at schools and churches can be deposited with the post office. This is done very successfully in Great Britain. The results of the first few days in Bristol, R. I., and Bessemer, Ala., show what can be done by active encouragement. If social workers, ministers, and employers suggest the use of the government banks their deposits will augment, so that the government will have no excuse for failing to extend the system as rapidly as possible.

Pittsburgh Gazette—Times.

PROMISING BUDS.

BOILER INSPECTION BILL PASSES FEDERAL SENATE

After years of persistent effort the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, of Linemen and Enginemen, of Railway Trainmen, and of Boilermakers have succeeded in getting a bill for the inspection of locomotive boilers through the United States Senate. With the exception of inadequate inspection laws in a few states, the United States has hitherto almost entirely neglected the question of the prevention of boiler explosions, with the result that this class of industrial accident is more than three times as common in America as in continental Europe and England. At the last session of Congress a bill providing tri-monthly inspection of locomotive boilers, under the supervision of a general inspector having at least five years' practical experience as boilermaker or engineer, and setting a penalty of $1,000 for each violation of the law, was defeated by the continued opposition of railway companies, master machinists and boss boilermakers.

The present bill is the result of a compromise between the opposing forces. It provides for fifty inspectors who shall make such a number of inspections of each boiler as "are consistent with their other duties"; requires only that the general inspector and his two assistants "shall be selected with respect to their practical knowledge" of boiler making, and imposes a smaller penalty for violation. It is, however, an advance over the law for inspection of marine boilers—the only other federal legislation on the sub-

ject. It will be presented to the House of Representatives as H. B. 25,924, and it is hoped that its expected passage there will be followed by an effort to obtain uniform and adequate state inspection of stationary boilers.

FIRST AID IN PEACE AS WELL AS IN WAR

The American Red Cross has put on the road a special Pullman car contrived as a hospital-on-wheels for use at disasters and as a moving lecture room on first aid work. Besides cooking, eating and sleeping quarters for the staff it has a room twenty-six feet long which can be used as either emergency hospital or lecture hall.

For use at the scenes of accidents the car has an equipment of scientific apparatus, such as the Draeger helmet which is put over the head of a man entering a mine filled with poisonous gases and smoke, and the pulmotor for restoring respiration to asphyxiated persons.

The chief purpose of the car, however, is educational—to teach the essential principles and methods of first aid work to workmen in dangerous trades. Here it can be made the means of saving many lives. The Red Cross points out that in certain industries deaths from disease are insignificant in comparison with deaths from accident. In the registration area (comprising 55 per cent of the country's population) accidents in 1909 caused over 67 per cent of all deaths among steam railway employes between the ages of 25 and 34; over 61 per cent among miners and quarrymen and over 28 per cent among iron and steel workers. The accident death rate for the workers in all mechanical and manufacturing pursuits is 21.9 per cent.

These are the people the Red Cross is trying to reach with its first aid car.

Dr. M. W. Glasgow is in charge. Dr. M. J. Shields, another Red Cross first aid surgeon, has been detailed to the seven rescue cars of the United States Bureau of Mines. The first aid departments is under the direction of Dr. M. J. Shields of the army medical service.

ILLINOIS REPORT UPON INDUSTRIAL DISEASES

Effort to study and combat occupational diseases in the United States has lagged behind that of European countries. The report of the Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases which has been submitted to the Legislature recommends legislative action. It should stimulate other states and the federal government aggressively to push forward investigations and secure laws needed to bring this country up to the standards set by others in protecting workers from injurious conditions of labor.

Although the scope of the Illinois inquiry included a wide range, special emphasis was placed upon lead as the most

RED CROSS FIRST AID CAR.

Available for emergency work at disasters, but designed chiefly as a traveling school to teach first aid methods to workmen in dangerous trades.

important industrial poison. The commission declares that in most cases the effects of this and other health destroying factors in daily work are easily preventable.

The membership of the commission comprises leaders in business and industrial interests of the state, public health officials, and other representative citizens. The report should lead to the passage of the bills proposed. A summary of the findings and the suggested legislation will appear in an early issue of THE SURVEY.

EDITORIAL GRIST

SOCIAL ASPECTS OF SUBWAY PLANS

JOHN MARTIN

Plans for the extension of rapid transit by subways and elevated lines in New York may be considered from various standpoints. Tenement dwellers, taxpayers, investors and real estate developers have differing and, sometimes, antagonistic interests in the matter. Social workers are special attorneys for the tenement dwellers. Primarily they are concerned to secure such developments as will make life easier and wholesomer for the thousands of families that are packed into diminutive flats, panting for air, stinted of sunshine, painfully scraping together the rent. Taxpayers are well organized and skilful in voicing their interests; real estate developers, before whom golden millions dangle from new lines in outer suburbs, are sleepless in urging their claims; and financiers, who scent promotion profits and increased values for their property in the present subway, are keenly alive to their own welfare. But tenement dwellers have few to guard their interests and to examine proposals with an eye single to the effects on their comfort and their rents.

Even city officials are apt to consider that their primary duty is to protect "the city" by securing the highest net money return for franchises, which may go to the relief of taxes. They forget, sometimes, that "the city" is the body of taxpayers in their corporate capacity—a body only 20,000 strong in New York city—and that the other 4,000,000 odd are not directly benefited by profits from municipal franchises which lower the tax rate a point or two, since, as was recently shown in THE SURVEY, economists are practically agreed that the tax rate has very little, if any, effect on rents.[2]

While therefore city officers are in duty bound to safeguard the interests of taxpayers as against franchise corporations, still more are they under moral obligation to represent, with unwinking vigilance, the inarticulate rentpayers, whose housing and health are the most important factors effected by rapid transit improvements.

What factors most affect the tenement dwellers in the matter? (1) A five-cent fare with universal transfers, and (2) the opening of large new areas to settlement. Consider these in turn.

A humble nickel is the highest fare that a wage-earner can pay for each of his double daily journeys. He cannot reside in any district to which, either on account of a fare graduated according to distance or on account of transfer to different lines, the total charge is over five cents. A double fare on account of transfer means to him at least thirty dollars a year extra—or two weeks' wages. As the joint committee of the Chamber of Commerce and the Merchants' Association says:

> To the multitude of individuals who will use the subway system a single fare, with transfers, as against a double fare, means a saving to them every year of many millions of dollars. It also means the fairly even spread of population all over the city. A double fare, with so-called independent and competing lines, means the concentration of population within the limited areas that can be served by one system or the other. No feature of the subway problem approaches in the gravity of its consequences the importance of making the city's subway system a means of distributing population rather than a means of re-concentrating it.

So much has been accomplished by the Committee on Congestion of Population. To-day commercial bodies lay stress upon the importance of scattering the city's population.

[1]Who Pays the Taxes in Growing Cities? By John Martin. THE SURVEY. October 15, 1910.

There are two schemes of transit development under active discussion in New York—the triborough and the interborough routes. If the triborough line be built, independent of and designed to compete with the existing subway, as its advocates proclaim, then the underground transit of the city will be in two distinct parts and a ride on both parts will cost two nickels. If the interborough plan be executed, the underground system will be unbroken and a nickel will carry a passenger from any point on it to any other point.

Further, the interborough plan, in the words of the joint committee, "makes it certain that a single fare will prevail over all future developments of the system."

It is argued that, should the triborough line be constructed, the city would be able to compel the Interborough Company, by business necessity, to exchange transfers with the operator of the triborough system. That is a prophecy. No precedent justifying such an optimistic prediction is quoted. More likely, as Mayor Gaynor has pointed out, the operator for the triborough line, who must be secured by open bidding, will be the Interborough Company acting under another name; and even if an independent operator were secured a combination, by agreement with the Interborough Company, would be more probable than an active competition between them. And the double fare, a mine of wealth, would surely be retained. Competition as a means of regulating municipal franchises is outworn and discredited. Public service commissions are the modern devices for effecting such regulation. Monopoly is inevitable and indeed, under regulation, desirable. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush. To the wage-earner the certainty of a single fare over the whole system is worth much more than the hope that the pressure of competition will compel an exchange of transfers between separate lines.

(2) The next great concern of the tenement dweller in the problem is that wide, unoccupied areas in the Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens and Richmond, the breezy expanses which stifling rentpayers are panting to gain, shall swiftly be brought into use, so that acres of new houses may offer space to the 150,000 persons added each year to the city's population, in order that greater pressure on existing accommodations may not force rents still higher. As was shown in the article above referred to, the competition of accessible new houses in the outer zone is the strongest economic force that restrains the elevation of rents all over the city.

The interborough plan would render available much more new land than the triborough plan, and especially as that plan was amputated in Brooklyn in the proposals of Mr. McAdoo. Further, the contracts for the triborough route thus far advertised by the Public Service Commission do not include a single yard of track into any undeveloped territory, and there is grave danger that, should the triborough route be decided on, the bifurcating limbs into Brooklyn on the south and the Bronx on the north, which alone would run into virgin districts, would not be built for many years on account of their cost. In order to show that the city's credit within the next five years would be sufficient to construct these extensions, the comptroller and the president of the Board of Aldermen predicate the use of one-half of the dock bonds that may be released from the calculation of the city debt. But the urgent necessity for improvement of the city's dock system will hardly permit such a division. Certainly it is risky to count on it.

When experts declared that the far-stretching limbs of the triborough route could not be built and the whole system operated on a five-cent fare, the project of paying for them by assessment on the land values they created was devised. That device would so reduce the fixed charges as to make a nickel fare unassailable. But, unfortunately, the legal provisions for such a scheme, drafted by the Public Service Commission, have proven defective and the commission has postponed consideration of the necessary amendments of the law. Therefore the building of the outlying links under the triborough plan would probably be long

deferred. By the construction of the abbreviated route the rents of tenement dwellers would practically be unaffected.

Further, as the hostile report of Messrs. Prendergast and Mitchel states, the interborough scheme "has really accepted the triborough's route and added a short extension to its own system northward to White Plains road. In Brooklyn it has again adopted the triborough routes, except Broadway, adding an extension of its present system outward along the Eastern Parkway to Buffalo avenue." These additions, which citizens formerly despaired of compelling the interborough to adopt, render its plans superior to its rival's with respect to the new lands to be brought into occupation.

Though tenement dwellers are not directly concerned with the financial costs of the competing systems, they are affected by one feature—the third-tracking of the Second, Third, and Ninth elevated lines and the adoption of elevated construction in Brooklyn and the Bronx.

An amazing feature of all the plans is the cool assumption that mile upon mile of new elevated track may be built, without the restriction, even, that, except for fifteen per cent of the route, a type of construction shall be adopted which will permit noiseless operation. In a decade or two the new streets traversed by the proposed elevated structures will be densely peopled. Then citizens will wonder why the city permitted, in 1911, a type of structure which sacrificed people to dollars. Cleveland is installing a type of subway which costs no more than an elevated structure. And the offer of the designer to put that type at the disposal of New York has been ignored by the Public Service Commission. Surely the elimination, not the multiplication, of elevated lines is the correct policy for the twentieth century.

The third-tracking of the elevated lines, which the Interborough Company asks to make a condition of its scheme, has been successfully opposed by social workers for several years. This plan, with its corollary of double-decking the elevated lines in some streets and building additional lines in other streets in the congested quarters on the lower East Side, would further sacrifice regions already hideous, and add noise, dirt, and darkness to rooms already hardly habitable. To assent to such proposals would be ruthlessly to sacrifice the welfare of Manhattan residents to the interests of the Bronx; and while easy access to the Bronx would be a boon to Manhattan, the price of that boon would be too high.

The provisions as to the length and financial terms of the elevated franchise, as accepted by the Public Service Commission, which Professor Bemis has skilfully exposed, are evidently so vulnerable that the Board of Estimate will easily find arguments for rejecting them. All the reports on the subject also prove that the Interborough Company's offer, irrespective of the elevated franchises, which are improperly coupled with it, should in justice to the taxpayers be altered in many details. Tenant dwellers are interested in the proposal to induce the Interborough Company to carry out its plan entirely on its own credit, because every dollar put into subways leaves the less to be expended on schools, parks, playgrounds, health, and recreation. Should no city money be required for the interborough plan, the wide margin to the city's credit after July 1 next would make it easy to satisfy the needs of the social service departments for more buildings and permanent improvements.

It remains, therefore, for the Board of Estimate to secure both important amendments of the contract and separate consideration of the proposals for third-tracking and extension of the elevated lines. If satisfactory adjustment of these points is made, an era of extended fast transit and restrained tenement rents will dawn.

THE COMING AMERICAN

MARION SHERWOOD KELLOGG

Three interpretations of America, two by Americans of very different outlook, and one by an Englishman for many years a resident of the United States, have a special interest in the light of the discussion of the possibility of an

American racial type provoked by Prof. Franz Boas's report to the Immigration Commission. Professor Boas held "the American-born children of the long-headed Sicilians, and those of the round-headed east European Hebrews, have nearly the same intermediate head form." The books, of course, have less to do with physical characteristics than with the type of mind and institutions of the new continent.

A. Maurice Low, in The American People, a Study in National Psychology,[1] writing as an English journalist long resident in the United States, maintains not only that we are a new race, but that of the races of the world only the American has a record from its inception, as it holds the peculiar position of having developed within modern times. As essential to an understanding of this development, Mr. Low traces historical forces and psychological growth side by side.

Taking the Puritan as the ruling factor, he regards him not as a mere transplanted Englishman. Coming from the settled life of a quiet English village into the wilderness of infinite spaces, infinite possibilities, infinite freedom, forced to fight even for existence, the Puritan in less than a generation differed greatly from the men of England, acquiring certain stern and definite traits, but big with humanity and with such an ideal of life as one might expect where the Bible was the real constitution of the state. Puritanism was as much a politico-social as a religious movement—"it was the sowing of the seed of democracy that has overrun the earth." Two main contributions of the Puritan to democracy, this author holds, are the establishment of Sunday as a day of rest and the founding of a system of popular education. Here the Puritan was three centuries ahead of his time, as these great economic and social needs were not generally recognized till generations later. Indeed, one may doubt whether they are fully recognized today, when child labor committees must struggle to safeguard the years of school-going in our manufacturing states, and when seven-day labor prevails in important industries.

To the new land came also other Englishmen—but to a very different environment and mode of life. The men who settled Virginia and South Carolina developed an economic system as unlike England's as those of the Puritan common-wealths of the North. With its foundation in slavery and the consequent demeaning of physical labor, the cultivation of tobacco and rice was made the basis of a feudal system that was structurally undemocratic.

But from the first, independence was in the air and the main business of colonial governors seemed to be to foster that spirit by attempts to suppress it:

> The American has always been a rebel. He is a living protest. His existence is a protest against usurped authority. To a rebel fighting is second nature. The American has always fought, against nature, against man, against government when that government sought to oppress him.

Religious persecution drove the Puritan to Massachusetts; political persecution drove the Cavalier to Virginia. And the love of freedom engendered by this persecution made Virginia and Massachusetts one when the time came for them to enter into their inheritance—liberty and national life. Mr. Low considers the American

> a blend of the Puritan and the Cavalier, to accept an inexact terminology so rich in contrast; a mixture of Massachusetts and Virginia; a product of the corn that ripened slowly under northern skies and the tobacco that sprung into life in the South. . . . It was tobacco that made Virginia so different from Massachusetts; it was Virginia that made the American so different from what he would have been had another Massachusetts taken root in the South.

But England was not to have the molding of the American race entirely to herself. In various sections of the country Dutch, French, Spanish, Swede held temporary supremacy, and each contributed of his life and character to a greater or less degree. The Englishman has assimilated, has dominated them all. English speech, traditions, and customs have prevailed, modified, Mr. Low believes, more by conditions of life in America

[1] The American People. A Study in National Psychology. By A. Maurice Low. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston and New York, 1909. Pp. 446. Price $2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.40.

than by infusion of foreign blood. One by one further newcomers have been absorbed—Scotch, Irish, Germans, Scandinavians.

The influence of a new untrammelled continent upon the English islanders, the conflict and balance between the types that developed in the North and in the South, the contact with mingled peoples which accentuated the changes due to environment—these are the main themes discussed by Mr. Low. To them he adds the characterization that the

> history of the United States is a study of a people always in flux. In the early days there was never a time when they were not "emigrants." They "emigrated" from Massachusetts to the other New England colonies, and then spread to New York; from Virginia they went to the Carolinas and further south; from New England they stretched to the middle West; from the South they bridged the Mississippi."

Today,

> "the man from Maine and the woman from Louisiana, the Californian or the Dakotan, are as one in language, in thought, in purpose, and the same ambitions animate both; both owe allegiance to the same political institutions; neither knows any country which means more to the one than it does to the other.

Through the leaven of democracy a new race has arisen that is scarcely more English than German, no more French than Scandinavian, but partakes of the characteristics of them all. What will be the result of the large Slavic, Latin, and Jewish emigration of today remains to be seen. Whatever its present economic and social reactions, we have no reason to fear—as Mr. Low reads our history—its effect on the development of American individuality.

After following Mr. Low's discussion, one turns with interest to a book by an American on The Spirit of America.[1] Passing over the question of racial type, Dr. Van Dyke attempts before an audience of Frenchmen a sketch of the American as he really is in contrast to the idea of him generally held abroad.

As the ruling traits of American character he discusses five elements: "the instinct of self-reliance, the love of fair play, the energetic will, the desire of order, the ambition of self-development." These characteristics he traces through the history of the country and its people—from the heritage they brought from older lands to the heritage they have made for themselves in the new. To these governing principles certain others should be added, less tangible, but no less important to a comprehension of the American,—"a strong religious feeling, a sincere love of nature, a vivid sense of humor, and a deep sentiment of humanity." Dr. Van Dyke lays much emphasis on the democracy and idealism of Americans, and sums them up as "a people of idealists engaged in a great practical task."

The book is made up of seven lectures given on the Hyde Foundation, an exchange professorship, at the University of Paris. The subject was chosen with the avowed object of promoting friendship and understanding between the two great republics, the purpose of the foundation. The impression received is of optimism and enthusiasm—of that intense belief in America that is one of the strongest characteristics of the nation.

As a foil to foreign misconceptions, due to the circulation of a tourist type of American abroad, coupled with the impressions of continental visitors who fail to note our less obtrusive faculties, the book deserves a place in the literature of international amenities. But as an interpretation to Americans of self-truths about which they themselves have misconceptions, it has less to offer. Its purpose is, of course, a more polite one than either the keen analysis of racial forces by our English critic, or the sharp criticisms and constructive suggestions imbedded in the 454 pages which Herbert Croly addresses to his fellow countrymen in The Promise of American Life.[1] For it is the fatalistic belief of Americans in America which, in its common form, arouses the ire of this third writer.

Mr. Croly's claim is that the nation is pervaded and bound together by an ideal National Promise—"the vision of a better future; the belief that somehow and sometime something better will happen to

[1] The Spirit of America. By Henry Van Dyke. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1910. Pp. 276. Price $1.50 net; by mail of The Survey $1.60.

[1] The Promise of American Life. By Herbert Croly. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1909. Pp. 468. Price $2 net; by mail of The Survey $2.13.

good Americans than has happened to men in any other country." Against this passive and happy idea the book is a protest. For several generations Americans were "able to slide downhill into the valley of fulfillment." Economic abundance and political democracy gave equality of opportunity, which was exploited by the exceptional individuals it developed until today this fundamental principle of democracy is threatened by groups of men industrially powerful. Whether they are corporations or unions, Mr. Croly holds such influences equally undemocratic.

After an analysis of the development of American political and economic life, the author discusses the present situation and states his case for the ultimate triumph of democracy. He considers that what we need is the "transformation of the old sense of a glorious national destiny into the sense of a serious national purpose." To this end, and to meet changed conditions, he holds the country must carry through a program of wholesale political reconstruction and develop a national economy. He finds these needs recognized to some extent by political reformers, and includes in the book interesting chapters on Roosevelt, Bryan, Jerome, and Hearst, and their policies. Indeed, one characteristic of the book is that the author draws upon the views of these practical leaders, rather than upon the writings of academic students or the advocates of special social or economic dogma, who view American conditions with a background of European tradition and experience. Recognizing that until public opinion has been educated no radical changes can be made, Mr. Croly advocates the "association of certain very moderate practical proposals with the issue of a deliberate, persistent and far more radical challenge to popular political prejudices and errors." The book is a long one and not easy to read; but suggestive throughout. Its program of reform is too inclusive to set down in short space. A far-sighted, constructive foreign policy with respect to the American continents and the Far East, the development of federal power and responsibility, are the points on which he lays stress nationally. When it comes to state government, the commonwealths can afford to experiment as long as they have the national government to check or retrieve any serious errors they may make. Mr. Croly would centralize the departments of state government, so as to secure a more competent state organization to deal with such questions as keeping order, administering justice, managing asylums and prisons, and the organization of labor. To municipalities Mr. Croly would apply a doctrine of home rule by an efficient and responsible organization, considering that they have "unique chance of appropriating for the local community those sources of economic value which are created by the community, and . . . an equally unique opportunity of spending the money so obtained for the amelioration of the sanitary, if not of the fundamental economic and social condition, of the poorer people." In discussing public service corporations in cities, Mr. Croly recognizes the efficiency possible to regulated monopolies and advocates franchises restricted to a limited number of years.

Declaring "the complete emancipation of the individual" to be the desired end of these political and economic changes, Mr. Croly devotes the last chapters of his book to its discussion. Here he holds that the social education which would come through an attempt to realize the national purpose would in itself result in a corresponding growth and emancipation of the rank and file of Americans.

COHOES

The little factory city of Cohoes, N. Y., with its population of 25,709, bids fair to become well known. It has been selected as the first city in the state of New York for a postal savings bank, conditions in that city being considered by the postal authorities especially favorable. Can it be that the postal authorities have been studying tuberculosis death rates? During the past four years Cohoes on three occasions stood at the head of the list of cities in the state having the highest death rate from tuberculosis, and in the fourth year it was excelled only by its nearest neighbor, Troy. Evidently, more than one kind of saving is in order in Cohoes.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT
Contributing Editor

THE JEWS: A STUDY OF RACE AND ENVIRONMENT. By Maurice Fishberg. The Walter Scott Publishing Company. Ltd. London. 1910. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. New York. Pp. 578. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.64.

Dr. Fishberg's main thesis seems to be that the Jews are not a race, not an ethnic division, but a religious or perhaps a social organization. He makes it fairly clear that they tend strongly to become like the people among whom they live, since at present we find many very distinct types among the adherents to the Jewish religion. By this result, of course, the importance of the question as to the non-assimilability of these immigrants is very greatly reduced. If we accept the evidence at its face value and as being complete, the whole problem becomes a social one. Social workers and students in New York city will find some of the suggestions on occupation and education stimulating, to say the least. The distribution of occupations and the economic status of the Jews in Christian countries, in so far as they are determined by Sundays and other holidays, the use of specially prepared foods, etc., are striking examples of the weight the religious factor may have in social phenomena.

Considering the work from the technical side of mere book making, one must feel that while the author has clearly conceived his problem and has laid out an admirable scheme of main headings, the chapters are often ever flowing streams of data and observations without definite arguments and interpretations. Should a forceful teacher and writer take the matter as it now stands and recast it, a book of great power would doubtless result.

The author is an investigator of no mean ability and is at his best when dealing with the physical anthropology and pathology of the Jews. In this field he can speak with authority, but his presentation of the social and religious aspects of the problem seems to lack something in mastery and decision. This should not be considered as unpardonable by any means, and the book should certainly be read by all social workers and students. It constitutes a pertinent suggestion, furthermore, as to what may be accomplished by the application of anthropological methods to a social problem.

THE PROBLEM OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. By David Snedden, Ph.D. Houghton Mifflin Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 82. Price 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY, 40 cents.

One of our foremost educators, the commissioner of education for Massachusetts, reviews in this little book the movement for the extension of organized vocational education beyond that which already has been developed for the learned professions, the army and navy, defective children, and Negroes, and sums up the present tentative conclusions of those who are most active in this movement.

In breadth of view, beginning with the brief outline of "the entire educative process." in logical ordering of material, and in charm of expression, the essay is a delight. For these qualities, and because it points out fundamental difficulties and clears the way for constructive advance, we shall expect to see it recognized as a classic in the literature of education.

"A considerable amount of actual participation in productive work" is considered by Dr. Snedden the *sine qua non* in producing vocational efficiency, and this "involves a pedagogy and administration fundamentally different from that found in most existing schools. It is at this point that the traditional forms of education practically break down; and it is in this respect that the problem of vocational education . . . presents its greatest difficulties."

How early specialization should begin, and to what extent the new demands of vocational training will reconstruct elementary schools, are not fully discussed, probably because there is still so little basis for definite answers to these questions. It is noticeable, however, that Dr. Snedden, viewing this new educational problem from the point of view of the educator, seems to assume that whatever adaptations are to be made in meeting it will be made in the educational machinery. He does not consider the possibility of a reconstruction of industrial conditions in certain respects, a modification, for example, of the "individualism of the American employer" which is one obstacle to achieving co-operation between school and employer.

It is a surprise to find, in Dr. Snedden's brief discussion of the problem of women in industry, the usual assumption that it is entirely a problem of young girls who, after a few years of wage-earning, will "devote themselves henceforth to home-making." As half (50.3 per cent exactly) of all the women wage-earners in 1900 were over twenty-five years of age, and almost as large a proportion of those engaged in manufactures, it is evident that this assumption is scarcely warranted.

THE WORKER AND THE STATE. By Arthur D. Dean, S. B. The Century Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 350. Price $1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.32.

Another book which attempts a comprehensive treatment of the subject of vocational training has been written by the chief of the division of trade-schools in the New York State Education Department. His book traces the development of the new movement; considers the various methods which have been advocated or tried in the desire "to adjust our schools to the needs of our children and our industries"; and urges the working out

of a national system of industrial, agricultural, and technical schools in connection with the public school system, to the end that eventually it will be possible "for any one to receive instruction in any subject at any time."

In this book, too, the discussion of the proper training for women is perhaps the least satisfactory portion. Mr. Dean also disregards the 50.3 per cent who are over twenty-five years of age. Moreover, after showing to what extent productive toil is being eliminated from the home, he enumerates, as primary essentials in education for home-making, all the accomplishments needed by the competent housekeeper before this transition had progressed, which seems to be a failure to correlate the facts he himself has in mind with his theories.

While a reading of this book does not give the pleasure which adds to the value of Dr. Snedden's (and which is a desirable quality in however practical a book) it nevertheless deserves careful attention, as being the results of much observation and experience by a man who is working at the problem.

A Forward Step. By William Thum. The Twentieth Century Company. Boston. 1910. Pp. 235. Price $1.50; by mail of The Survey $1.60.

"Equal opportunity to obtain a general secondary and higher education," is the object of this book. Mr. Thum proposes, in chapters which originally appeared in the *Arena*, special high schools affiliated with municipal works and with selected manufacturing industries, where young men and young women could secure a regular high school course and at the same time earn enough to support themselves, by "five hours of efficient labor and three hours of satisfactory school attendance" daily for six years.

Whether they can or not can be determined only by experiment. Applications of this idea of co-operation between school and industry for trade education have been made in America, in Cincinnati and Fitchburg and perhaps a few other places, but the experiments have been too limited in scope to offer conclusive evidence as to their value for general adoption. More extended trial of the plan, under the most favorable conditions possible, could not fail to be valuable from many different angles.

The Labour Exchange in Relation to Boy and Girl Labour. By Frederic Keeling. P. S. King and Son. London. 1910. Pp. 76. Price 12 cents; by mail of The Survey, 15 cents. (Four weeks to import.)

Mr. Keeling's pamphlet is a description of actual experiments in employment work for children in England, Scotland, and Germany, and should be of great interest to those who are developing plans for vocational guidance in American cities. The principles advocated by Mr. Keeling are that employment work for boys and girls should not be carried on by a distinct organization and that it should not be controlled by the education authorities, but that the Labour Exchange, whose object is to organize the whole of the labor market, should have a clearly differentiated juvenile department, located in the same building with the department for adults, and maintaining the closest possible co-operation with education authorities, who should be represented on advisory committees for directing the work.

Registration of City School Children. By John Dearling Haney, Ph.D., Teachers College, Columbia University. New York, 1910. Pp. 155. Price, cloth, $1.50; paper, $1.15; by mail of The Survey, $1.60; $1.25.

In his own words, Mr. Haney, who is principal of a school in New York city, has "endeavored to trace the principles underlying the city school census, to discover the salient features of present systems of school censuses, to apply general laws to them, and to account for their failure or success." He emphasizes the possibility of "(a) an effective school census in contradistinction to a general census; (b) a current or continuous census as distinguished from a discrete census; and (c) an effective extension of the census of children beyond the purposes of mere 'compulsory education'."

The Primary Education of Crippled Children. By Douglas C. McMurtrie. Association for the Aid of Crippled Children. New York. 1910. Pp. 22. Price 50 cents; by mail of The Survey, 53 cents.

This is a well-argued plea for making the conditions of primary education for crippled children "just as normal as possible," by sending them to public day schools, "so modified as to be adapted to their special requirements"; leaving "as much of the responsibility as possible with the family—where it belongs"; and looking to private philanthropy for the special care and supervision which cannot be provided by school or family.

Wider Use of the School Plant. By Clarence Arthur Perry. Introduction by Luther Halsey Gulick, M.D. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Charities Publication Committee. New York, 1910. Pp. 423. By mail of The Survey, $1.25.

Readers of The Survey hardly need further data than are given above, beyond the assurance that the title is accurately descriptive of the contents of the book. The chapter headings, and other interesting information, may be found on the last cover page of The Survey for December 31.

The Healthful Art of Dancing. By Luther H. Gulick. Doubleday, Page and Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 273. Price $1.40; by mail of The Survey, $1.52.

"A constructive treatment of one of the resources for the expression of the joy of life, a resource that is related to health, vigor and beauty," is Dr. Gulick's statement of the object

of his latest book, and the sentence adequately describes what he has done. He describes and interprets the movement for the introduction of folk dancing into everyday American life in the schools, on the playgrounds, and in the home. The text is well supplemented by many illustrations of dances actually enjoyed by peasants in many lands, by school children in England and America, and even by elderly business men in Providence, R. I.

COMMUNICATIONS

"COST OF THE CRANBERRY SAUCE"

To THE EDITOR: On page 607 of THE SURVEY for January 7, Mr. Lovejoy is made to say, "When filled these boxes weigh approximately fifteen pounds. Girls and boys not nearly five years old are seen sometimes carrying two or three boxes at a time," etc. Does not Mr. Lovejoy mean to say that empty boxes are seen being returned, two or three at a time, by children too frail to pick? Children not nearly five years old could scarcely carry burdens of forty-five pounds. Certainly such children would not be too frail to pick berries.

On page 610, A. J. McKelway appears to say: "The convention was dominated by five or six men of great ability, some of whom will be the peers of *any* members of the United States Senate when the new state sends its first representatives to that body."

Has the editor been on a vacation that statements as careless or as extreme as the above two cited should appear in one issue of the reliable SURVEY?

ROBERT C. SANGER.

New York.

To THE EDITOR:—I am glad Mr. Sanger called your attention to my statement, though I am sorry he had occasion to do so. It was based on one made by two of our agents, and my error was in using the words "not nearly" (five years old) instead of the words "not older than." You know I prepared this article under pressure and placed it in the hands of one investigator to check up. He did not note the error, nor did I, but I must assume the responsibility.

As to the ability of a five-year-old child to carry two or three of these boxes, I am assured by both of these men, whose veracity I have never had occasion to doubt, that they have seen children of this age doing it, though they tell me three boxes were unusual, while two were common. I particularly questioned how a child who could carry such a burden could at the same time be considered too frail to pick continuously. They answered that the carrying is frequently done by these younger children to relieve the monotony and rest them from the stooped and cramped condition in which the picking is done!

The daughter of one of the bog owners has written a letter in which she protests against the statements in the article. Without having seen our other publications or known how generally we have devoted our attention to the city and industrial phases of child labor, it is easy to understand how she and her father would be shocked by our apparently unreasonable attitude toward their rural work. The only question seems to be whether we shall eliminate from our program any attempt to correct abuses in agriculture, or whether as we find these we shall consider them.

The writer of this letter (although from a very different point of view) acknowledges, (1) the *padrone* system; (2) that on one or two mornings the child pickers may begin at 7 A.M. and as a matter of fact did work some evenings until 5:30; (3) that on other bogs work on Sunday is "unfortunately the custom"; (4) that the use of the word "peck" applies to a measure which is not a peck; (5) that young children do carry boxes of berries to the bushelman and that "these measures" are too heavy for them, and characterizes this work in one instance as "horrible"; (6) that there is overcrowding to the extent that a father and mother and two or three small children are assigned to one room, apparently about the size of a trans-Atlantic stateroom; (7) that checks for the work are used at the company's store, which in the case of her plantation may be conducted above reproach, but which is none the less the same system that in the mining and other industrial regions has proved a curse to the workers.

Her attitude appears to be identical with that of some of the best cotton manufacturers in the South, some of the best coal operators in Pennsylvania, and some of the best glass manufacturers who are shocked and offended by criticisms upon their industry, yet who would not tolerate in their own plant conditions we have found to exist in other plants.

OWEN R. LOVEJOY,
Secretary National Child Labor Committee.
New York.

TRANSIT: A SOCIAL SERVICE

To THE EDITOR:—

Despite the frequent admonition that transit, not verbiage, is needed in the present transit embroglio in New York city, the importance of the lines contemplated for a comprehensive transit system for the metropolis of the New World and the fiscal and social principles involved necessitate further discussion.

The most important point to be emphasized is that transit lines and the cost of transit, are economic wastes in the cost of production. The total estimated physical value of all transit lines in Greater New York, including the subway now owned by the city, is about $400,000,000. The annual expenditures for carfare on these lines is approximately $80,000,000, or one-fifth of the physical valuation of the lines and nearly one-half of the ordinary city budget. No one except a stockholder or director in one of the transit companies probably would claim that

this annual cost of transit is economic or necessary. It is a very serious item in the cost of production, mounting up to about one-fourth of the total wages and salaries paid in 1905 to the 464,716 wage-earners in shops and 63,586 office force and officials in the 20,839 factories of Greater New York. Even this enormous expenditure, however, with the low wages, long hours of work, concentration of factories and high land values, which with the other conditions inevitably means high rents, in New York has not afforded proper distribution of population.

It is financially impossible for any city, if the experience and testimony of engineers may be accepted, to provide transit to carry the factory and the office toilers to a central point, such as lower Manhattan, from six-story or even five-story tenements in the Bronx, and from five or even four-story tenements in Brooklyn and Queens, within a radius of fifteen miles, to offices and factories sixteen to twenty-five stories high. Yet this is the ulterior objective of the real estate developers and speculators who are so vigorously urging the construction of subways in every direction. The decentralization of New York city, and especially the distribution of factories, is imperative; and transit lines should be projected upon the basis of such action by the city and not upon the present calculation of new congested centers, that is a gradual spreading of areas with a density of 500 to 1,000 per acre. The routes proposed by the Interborough and Triborough systems alike are uneconomic and must fail to accomplish the object of distributing population with a normal density, throughout Greater New York. Both the proposed routes tend to create a long city instead of a round city, although the interborough is the worse offender in providing three distinct lines up through the Bronx as against the two proposed by the Interborough (Triborough).

The Bronx is pre-eminently the speculative borough outside of Manhattan, and the proposed routes would almost inevitably mean the continuance of five-and six-story tenements as the predominaing type in the Bronx. It is most uneconomic, moreover, to attempt to haul people the long distance from the Bronx to Manhattan to work, since there is an initial waste of from five to eight miles of subways throughout one of the most expensive territories in the world to tunnel the Island of Manhattan.

A second point which needs most careful consideration is the argument that the Interborough should be given the right to construct and operate extensions since this would give one fare for the entire city. No greater fallacy exists. There are at present five most important operating systems in New York city. The Interborough Rapid Transit Company, which controls and operates the subway and elevated lines in Manhattan, also through the New York City Interborough Railway Company operates a system of street railways, part of which is constructed in the Bronx and one on Manhattan, and most of the surface lines in Queens. The gross revenues of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company and the companies controlled by it for the year ending June 30, 1910, amounted to $30,785,599 or 38.76 per cent (nearly two-fifths) of the entire city railway revenues of the Greater City. The next important operating company is the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, which controls seven operating companies and a number of leased companies. This system includes the entire elevated and surface system of Brooklyn with several extensions into Queens, with two entrances into Manhattan over the Williamsburg and Brooklyn bridges, and substantially the entire street railways of Brooklyn. The gross revenue for the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company was $21,348,498 or 26.88 per cent (over 1-4) of the entire street railway revenues of the Greater City. The Metropolitan Street Railway is the next important system with lines owned or leased which cover most of Manhattan as far North as 155th street. The gross revenues of this company in this year were $13,217,177 or 16.64 per cent of the total street railway revenues of the city. The fourth important operating system or street surface railway, the Third Avenue System, consists of the Third Avenue Railway proper and a number of subsidiary railways in Manhattan and the Bronx and some running into Westchester county. The total revenues of this system for this year amounted to $8,061,704 or 10.15 per cent of the entire street railways revenues of the city. The fifth group is the Hudson and Manhattan Railway Company, the Second Avenue, a number of lines in Brooklyn, the Coney Island and Brooklyn Railway Company, and surface lines in Richmond, the total revenues of these various companies being (1910) $6,007,992 or 7.57 per cent of the entire revenues of the railways of the city.

There are, all told, thirty-three companies operating street railways in the city, sixteen steam roads, one freight road, two short electric roads operating as summer lines, and twenty-two of the companies are accounted for in the four systems first mentioned. These facts indicate that the claim that universal transfers can be secured by allowing the Interborough to have its extensions is absolutely fallacious.

The real transit situation confronting New York city is as follows: The provision of transit has been regarded for many years as purely an opportunity for mulcting the public for private gain. Out of 1,200 miles of tracks now being operated approximately 1,150 miles are under perpetual franchises. There are also about 200 miles of tracks on 400 different streets under perpetual franchises. Many of these were secured by bribery and other illegal methods.

It is generally recognized that the provision of transit in New York city or any other city is a social function, and that a socialized service cannot be obtained from any company no matter how many Public Service Commissions are appointed, if the injustice of the past, the bribery of the Legislature, the cupidity of holding companies, the legal genius of corporation

lawyers shall be made a perpetual charge upon the users of transit lines. New York city today faces a crisis much more serious than that of merely investing $100,000,000 or $200,000,000 in transit lines. It is frankly called upon to determine whether immoral franchises are permanently binding and have legal sanction, and as to the compensation which should be given to the owners of all lines as well as the Interborough, the operating company of the "city-owned subways." The most important thing to be accomplished is the immediate forfeiture of the franchises of these companies, wherever possible, and the condemnation of franchises with a very small return where forfeiture or condemnation without compensation is not legal.

Valuable as it would be to have universal transfers, this, as indicated, will not be achieved by allowing the Interborough to hold up the city for another fifty-four to sixty years or for any shorter period; it will be achieved only by the city's gradually securing practical control through ownership of every line of transit in the city. The amount of compensation that must be paid by the city for franchises will depend upon the present values of these franchises, and prospective value. These values should be computed for only a limited period, since 999 year leases are morally indefensible and legally questionable. The best way to reduce the value of the franchises, however, is for the city to construct transit lines, so as to reduce the franchise values as far as possible of every operating company in the city. This cannot be designated confiscation but merely the reasonable exercise of business sense on the part of the city to rescue the citizens from the results of illegal grants made to street railways in the past, and to ensure to the citizens the opportunity to avail themselves of the wealth of space in New York city and of territory which may be hereafter incorporated within the city limits. In the present transit situation New York city is grappling with a dead hand of past injustice. Since the existing companies have shown that they will not be reasonable and refrain from exercising the rights illegally and immorally given them under franchises, the city must use the club of a competing line and force through economic suasion the moral action, which the law might deny.

New York. BENJAMIN C. MARSH.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

CHANGES.

The proposed Alabama Conference of Charities and Correction will not be held this year.

See new dates of National Conference on City Planning.

INTERNATIONAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

International Congress on Tuberculosis. September 24-30. Rome, Italy. Secretary-general, Professor Ascoli, Via Lucina, Rome, Italy.

International Association for Labor Legislation, September, 1912. Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basle, Switzerland.

International Prison Congress (Quinquennial). London, 1915. Secretary, F. Simon van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

NATIONAL (NEW).

Council of Jewish Women (Executive Committee), January 30. Louisville, Ky. Sixth Triennial Meeting of the Council. December, Philadelphia, Pa. Executive secretary, Sadie American, 448 Central Park West, New York City.

National Consumers League, February 7. Pittsburgh, Pa. General Secretary, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 105 East 22nd street, New York city.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, Council Meeting, April. Memphis, Tenn. Convention of the Federation, June 1912. San Francisco, Cal. Corresponding secretary, Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.

National Peace Congress, May 3-5. Baltimore, Md. Secretary, Theodore Marburg, 12 Mt. Vernon Place West, Baltimore, Md.

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, June 21-22. Denver, Col. Executive secretary, Dr. Livingston Farrand, 105 East 22nd street, New York city.

Conference of Neighborhood Workers, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer Albert Kennedy, South End House, 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

NATIONAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Second Thursday in February and April. New York, N. Y. Corresponding officer, James Pedersen, M.D., 20 West Forty-second street, New York city.

Federated Boys' Clubs, Annual Meeting February 15. Fall River, Mass. Executive secretary, Arthur B. Leach, Room 308, 35 Congress street, Boston, Mass. Annual Conference, June, Brookline, Mass.

Religious Education Association, February 14-16. Providence, R. I. Secretary, Henry F. Cope, 193 Michigan avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Child Labor Committee, March. Birmingham, Ala. Corresponding officer, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, March or April. New York city. Corresponding officer, Waldemar Groszmann, Plainfield, N. J.

Convention of the Young Women's Christian Association of America, April 19-27. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, Lois J. Viele, 125 East Twenty-seventh street, New York city.

American Federation of Arts, May. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Leila Mechlin, 1741 New York avenue, Washington, D. C.

National Conference on City Planning, May 15-17. Philadelphia, Pa. Secretary, Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, June 7-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Alexander Johnson, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

National Probation Officers' Association, June 5-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Roger N. Baldwin, 903 Security Building, St. Louis, Mo.

National Women's Trade Union League, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer, Mrs. D. W. Kneffler, 5,273 McPherson avenue, St. Louis, Mo.

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, J. T. Exnicios, 914 G street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children. June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.

National Conference of Poor Law Officials, June 7. Boston, Mass. President, Dr. Robert W. Hill, State Board of Charities, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

American Academy of Medicine, June 24-26, Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, Charles McIntire, M.D., 52 North Fourth street, Easton, Pa. Subject: Medical Sociology.

American Medical Association, June 27. Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, George H. Simmons, M.D., 535 Dearborn avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Education Association of the United States, July. San Francisco, Cal. Secretary, Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

National Fraternal Congress, August 21. Mack-

inac Island, Mich. Secretary, C. A. Gower, Lansing, Mich.

American Society of Municipal Improvements, September 26-29. Grand Rapids, Mich. Secretary, A. Prescott Folwell, 239 West 39th street, New York city.

American Hospital Association, September 19-22. New York city. Secretary, J. N. E. Brown, M.D., Toronto General Hospital, Can.

American Prison Association, September. Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Joseph P. Byers, 13 Central avenue, Newark, N. J.

American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, October 10-13. Milwaukee, Wis. Secretary, Cornelius H. Patten, 14 Beacon street, Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Catholic Charities, September, 1912. Washington, D. C. Secretary, William J. Kerby, D.D., Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

STATE AND LOCAL (NEW).

New Hampshire Conference of Charities and Correction, February 1. Concord, N. H. Secretary, Mary P. Remick, Concord, N. H.

Massachusetts Civic Conference, March 1-2. Boston, Mass. Secretary, E. T. Hartman, 3 Joy street, Boston, Mass.

Kansas Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Topeka, Kas. Secretary, J. L. Everhardy, Leavenworth, Kas.

New York State County Superintendents of the Poor, June 20-23. Thousand Island Park, N. Y. Secretary, C. E. Weisz, 30 Bay 20th street, Bath Beach, N. Y.

Maryland Conference of Charities and Correction, November, Baltimore, Md. General secretary, H. Wirt Steele, 15 East Pleasant Place, Baltimore, Md.

Minnesota Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Duluth, Minn. Secretary, Eugene T. Lies, Associated Charities, Court House, Minneapolis, Minn.

Conference of Probation Officers, November 14-16. Watertown, N. Y. Secretary, Arthur W. Towne, State Probation Commission. Albany, N. Y.

South Carolina Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Columbia, S. C. President, A. T. Jamison, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood, S. C.

Kentucky Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Lexington or Covington. Corresponding secretary, Linda Neville, 618 Main street, Lexington, Ky.

STATE AND LOCAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

New York Child Welfare Exhibit, January 18-February 12. New York city. Secretary, Roy Smith Wallace. Room 5,105 Metropolitan Building, New York city.

Connecticut Conference of Charities and Correction. April. New Haven, Conn. Secretary, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Conn.

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, April 2-4. Princeton, N. J. Secretary, J. Byron Deacon, 1701 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, Pa.

Arizona Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Bisbee, Ariz. Secretary, John W. Flinn, Prescott, Ariz.

Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction, May 8-12. Hamilton, Ont. Secretary, F. M. Nicholson, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, Ont.

New York City Conference of Charities and Correction, May 9-11. New York city. Secretary, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth avenue, New York city.

New England Conference on Street Cleaning, June. Springfield, Mass. Corresponding officer, Carol Aronovici, 55 Eddy street, Providence, R. I.

Northern Baptist Convention, June 13. Philadelphia, Pa. President, Emory W. Hunt, Denison University, Granville, O.

Sagamore Sociological Conference, June 27-29. Sagamore Beach, Mass. President, George W. Coleman, 348 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

Stony Brook Assembly, August. Stony Brook, L. I. Director, J. W. Jenks, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities, October 10-12. Indiana, Pa. Secretary, L. C. Colborn, Somerset, Pa.

Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Toledo, Ohio. Secretary, H. H. Shirer, 805 Harrison Building, 21 S. High street, Columbus, Ohio.

Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Kansas City, Mo. Secretary, W. T. Cross, State Board of Charities and Correction, Columbia, Mo.

New York Conference of Charities and Correction, November 14-16. Watertown, N. Y. Secretary, John A. Kingsbury, 105 East 22nd street, New York city.

Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction, November 14-16. Pittsburgh, Pa. Secretary, Fred S. Hall, 1533 Real Estate Trust Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

JOTTINGS

School Hygiene Congress.—The fifth congress of the American School Hygiene Association at the New York Academy of Medicine, February 2-4, has a programme of much interest to the public as well as to members. Besides the more technical aspects of the association's own work, there are papers by hygiene, open air kindergartens, contagious

Monday Club Dance.—The New York Monday Club has accepted an invitation of the University Settlement for an entertainment and dance at the Settlement the evening of January 30. This is in accordance with new plans recently formulated for adding purely social features to the club's activities which have hitherto been largely confined to literary programmes. The club is seeking to increase its membership among the social workers of Greater New York and hopes to promote mutual acquaintance and good fellowship along with its studies of conditions and methods.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE SELECTION OF IMMIGRANTS

On the main subject the Immigration Commission has spoken clearly and its recommendation should become law. There must be effective restriction and selection for the purpose of maintaining American standards of living. In reply to the demand for a more rigorous selection of immigrants we hear two mutually contradictory assertions. One is that there are not enough immigrants to do any harm—after allowance is made for those who return. The other is that we have no standards anyway,—at least that there is no one who has a right to speak for them, as we are all immigrants of a first, or a later, generation. Both assertions are untenable. There are, in fact, American standards, transplanted in part by those who founded our republic, developed in part on our own soil, influenced by the reaction of other standards in other nations, and yet distinctively American:—standards moral, political, and economic; standards unique and precious, worth fighting for; worth, if need be, dying for; worth preserving at all hazards for ourselves and our children, and yet not selfishly for our sake and theirs only, but also as a sacred duty towards mankind and these standards are gravely imperilled by the annual addition of an unsifted million of newcomers whose standards are different from ours.

We do have a right to assert vigorously the value of our national heritage, and, though it may seem old-fashioned to say it, we do have a sacred duty to transmit it unimpaired—which is not to say unchanged—to our posterity. To some extent this heritage is one of race. Its creators gave it to us with their blood. It has been enriched by many crossings of races, but biologists tell us that mingling within limits is beneficial, beyond those limits productive only of a mongrel and degenerate breed. Let no one read into this expression of national responsibility for American standards a shred of bigotry or prejudice against any of the peoples of the earth. Modern social ideals are neither provincial nor sectarian. It is precisely because of a passionate attachment to the true interests of humanity that social workers may look with profound distrust upon the demand for cheap immigrant labor. Genuine humane sentiment is not inconsistent with the maintenance of community and natioal standards.

Employers of the exploiting type make no mistake, from their own point of view, when they demand cheap immigrant labor. They can figure it out with great precision. They know that as a rule this labor is less skillful, less intelligent, less efficient, less inherently desirable, than the native labor or the earlier immigrant labor from more closely related peoples. But there are great compensations. It is the very best labor in one particular. It can be exploited. That is the whole disagreeable truth in a nutshell. Lower wages, longer hours, crowded living quarters, fewer claimants in case of death or injury from accidents, less trade union "nonsense," fewer trade disputes, less sympathy from the disinterested public for the laborer's side when there is a dispute, less public concern generally as to what is happening in the mill

when the laborers are foreigners—such are some of the considerations which throw the balance in favor of immigrant labor. The wages demanded are enough lower to give an ample margin for more effective supervision. The general tendency of improved machinery is to decrease relatively the demand for skilled labor, thus permitting the profitable employment of fresh supplies of entirely unskilled, but physically strong, immigrants. Out on the railways of the Northwest the first object for which immigrants will strike is for the privilege of working twelve hours instead of ten, and the next is for the privilege of working on Sunday. In this instance employers, paying by the hour and not having expensive mills in operation, resist the demand, for the labor of the eleventh and twelfth hours is relatively unproductive. The men are already exhausted. To laborers of a higher standard the leisure for physical recuperation would be worth more than the small addition to their wages. To these men the money is more important. Here we have a simple, but perfect, illustration of that conflict of standards to which the nation as a whole cannot afford to be indifferent.

It is then in the ultimate and in the very immediate interests of the oppressed and struggling everywhere that America should maintain her standards. She may give generously from her surplus. She may enlighten by her example. She may throw her influence and if necessary exert her might against oppression. But one thing she may not do: extinguish the light with which she is to enlighten the world. To lower our own standards is the only treason. To reduce the position of our workingmen to that of the communities from which our immigration is coming is to destroy, perhaps forever, the very power to serve.

There should be no opposition or rivalry between the policy of selection and the policy of distribution and assimilation by every practicable device. Both are essential. No restriction which is at all likely to be adopted will sensibly diminish the need for such aid both by philanthropy and by government. Good hard thinking as to how best to assimilate those whom we already have and those who are certain to come even under a policy of much more strict selection is of the utmost importance. Except for the Educational Alliance, the Industrial Removal Society, and the Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants, there has been almost no instructive experiment and scarcely any clear thinking on this subject. Let these experiments by all means be greatly extended, but let us be modest about calling any of them as yet a "true solution of the immigration question." Under the conditions of actual life we shall have to deal in partial solutions, among which, as we have intimated, the recommendation of the Immigrant Commission as to restriction deserves prompt and favorable consideration.

The illiteracy test is crude and unsatisfactory but it is practicable and humane. As a rule ambitious illiterates desiring to migrate can overcome this disqualification, and the fact of their having done so will augur well for their future success in the land of their adoption.

JANE ADDAMS'S MESSAGE TO CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

The final conference of the second week of the Child Welfare Exhibit in New York was held in the large hall of the armory where 500 singers in the People's Choral Union, led by Frank Damrosch, gave a program beginning with the Star Spangled Banner and ending with the Hallelujah Chorus. The singers were seated so as to form a background for Jane Addams, the only speaker.

Miss Addams began her brief talk on the Spirit of Youth in the City Streets with a parable from Tolstoi about nine laborers who cheerfully undertook the support of a tenth man, a flute player, because his simple playing gladdened their hearts and lightened their toil. But the flute player, recognizing his commercial value, went off to the city, learned to be a great technician and played no more to laborers to lighten their toil but to those who, for the most part, never labored at all.

This, Miss Addams felt, is what has happened to art and recreation in the world; it should be the city's task to bring them back once more to the people who need them. It should be the task of society, too, to order the lives of its members so that, to draw from Tolstoi again, each one should have a healthy share and no more of muscular labor, of labor requiring manual skill, of labor of the mind, and of co-operative labor carried on with and for the benefit of the whole community. In this way each would be able to develop all his faculties and his capacity for usefulness and happiness in life.

Miss Addams's address brought to an end three days' sessions on recreation, which covered club work by Howard Bradstreet, the Scout Movement by Dan Beard, Camp Life by George M. Heathcote, and a very interesting series of slides illustrating the municipal camping possibilities of Harriman Park shown by E. Stagg Whitin.

How the city of New York intends to fulfill this duty was the theme of Charles B. Stover, commissioner of parks, who announced that in spite of the inadequate financial equipment of his department he confidently expected to open ten "field houses" as recreation centers in the parks of New York next summer, and to open as parks all green plots covering the aqueduct system throughout the city. He announced the holding on January 25 in Carl Schurz Park of the first municipal dance in New York, and told of the extension of park and recreation pier band concerts last summer. It was regretted by many that the exhibit has nothing on the Chicago field houses which are the most highly developed thing of the kind in the world.

Arthur Farwell, supervisor of municipal music, described the folk dancing instituted on the piers last summer, which culminated at the end of the season in the first municipal dance festival for children. Mr. Farwell urged the extension of dance festivals and pageants as one of the best means of providing pleasure and of stimulating moral and aesthetic development in large masses of young people.

John Collier's ideals for the moving picture were no less high. Since the formation of the Board of Censorship of Moving Pictures, of which Mr. Collier is secretary, the manufacturers have shown a positive eagerness to improve the grade of their pictures. The great problem now is not the shows, but the dark and unventilated rooms in which they are presented, which Mr. Collier felt should be the subject of a municipal investigation. The real possibilities of the moving picture will never be fully brought out in their commercial use, he held, but rather in their adoption throughout the public school system as the most vivid and convincing, as well as the cheapest, way of teaching both science and morals.

Housing was discussed by three experts—the regulation of tenements by law by Lawrence Veiller; the model tene-

Thomas in Detroit News.

HOW ABOUT THE PRISONER'S FAMILY?

The commission appointed by Governor Warner of Michigan has recommended that the men in the State Prison at Jackson be employed in industry and road building and wages be paid their families. This is the plan at the Detroit House of Correction where the prison-made goods are sold in the open market under what is known as the state account system. At Jackson, under the contract system, neither prisoners nor their families receive pay for their work.

ment as a good financial and moral investment by E. R. L. Gould, and the possibility of relieving congestion by the London plan of "garden cities" in the suburbs by Grosvenor Atterbury.

Benjamin C. Marsh criticised our tenement law on the ground that it makes congestion possible and requires too little sun and air, and urged that the law be amended so that in outlying boroughs no tenement can be built higher than four stories. Other steps he suggested toward creating decent homes for young families in the suburbs were better transit facilities, recreational opportunities, the building of suburban factories, and above all the taxing of land values to prevent the holding of land for a speculative rise.

The education of both parents and children was the subject of the last session on home life. Anna Garlin Spencer showed how the patriarchal family had been replaced in modern life by the individualistic family, father and mother standing alone with no supporting background of relatives and family traditions. Such a background can nowadays be furnished by society alone, and the state is attempting to do this by standardizing the family both by the practical education of parents through the public school system and by such efforts to protect the health of the offspring as are embodied in the law which now exists in two states for the physical examination of men before marriage.

COST OF FOOD ON FARM AND TABLE

The main theme of the seventy-ninth annual meeting of the New York Agricultural Society at Albany January 17-19, The Development of Our Agricultural Resources and the Relation Between this Problem and the Cost of Living, indicates the vitality and purpose of an organization more than three-quarters of a century old. For a long time it has been dormant, but during his two years' presidency of the society Commissioner Raymond A. Pearson of the State Department of Agriculture has stimulated its work and influence to a marked degree. He was re-elected president and his record in office is being urged on Governor Dix as ample reason for his reappointment as commissioner.

The fact that the meeting was held in co-operation with the State Department of Agriculture undoubtedly helped in securing the large attendance, which included many members of the Legislature, but the program was one to challenge interest. Governor Dix made the opening speech.

President Pearson in his annual address called attention to the fact that the present is a turning point in agriculture, since existing wastes are being realized. The annual waste of plant food is estimated as $20,000,000 in the state and $10,000,000 in New York city alone. The farmer in the state, however, is beginning to secure better prices for his produce, he asserted—a statement that no city consumer will dispute. In December ninety-seven sections of the state reported an upward tendency in farm values, twelve reported stationary values and one reported decreasing values. Mr. Pearson enumerated twenty-one "agricultural virtues." Among them are conservation of fertility, thorough cultivation, production of clean milk, keeping of farm business accounts, providing home comforts, and employment of labor throughout the year.

George K. Holmes of the United States Department of Agriculture declared that "for every dollar that the consumer pays

to a retailer in the general average for his potatoes, fruits, poultry and dairy products, the farmer receives fifty-five cents, the railroads seven cents and the middlemen forty cents." He averred that it is "a safe inference that the poorer people pay nearly twice the gross profit that the more well-to-do people pay." To eliminate the series of middlemen who intervene between producer and consumer, Mr. Holmes advocated co-operative marketing by farmers and co-operative buying by consumers.

As a means of helping farmers to get a greater return for their products while reducing the cost to the consumer, the committee on marketing, transportation, and grievances suggested legislation requiring the state commissioner of agriculture to disseminate information about agricultural labor and markets; and giving the commissioner supervision of commission dealers whom they would require to keep public records of all sales with the dates, prices, names, and addresses of shippers and purchasers. They also urged "that a system be organized by which producers and consumers may be brought into closer business relations."

FARM SCHOLARSHIPS FOR JEWISH CHILDREN

Twenty Jewish boys and girls are spending this winter in agricultural colleges at the expense of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society of New York, as a result of a competition among the children of Jewish farmers throughout the country. The scholarships are part of the educational work of the society, which is an offshoot of the Baron de Hirsch Fund.

The plan was first tried two years ago and has grown steadily in popularity. Seven scholarships were awarded the first year, thirteen last year and twenty this. Connecticut led with nine scholarships, New Jersey had six, New York two, and Massachusetts, North Dakota, and Wyoming one each. Seven of the twenty are girls, two of them the wives of young Jewish farmers. The award is by a competition, including a brief essay in English upon some agricultural topic selected by the competitor, who must satisfy the authorities of the college to which he is accredited of his fitness to pursue the course with profit.

May in Detroit Journal.

DUST AND DEATH.

A campaign of publicity has awakened Detroit to a realization of the close connection between dirty streets and pneumonia and other dust-borne germ diseases.

The earlier scholarships have already borne fruit. Upon returning home from college, the students went to work with zeal and energy to put life and spirit into the farm. Barns were whitewashed, cows placed on proper rations, and more milk produced on less feed. Milk is weighed and a record kept of each cow's yield not only as to quantity, but as to quality. Those who took courses in general agriculture got to work on crop rotations, fertilizers, pastures, and the general improvement of the farm. Poultry was a favorite course with girls as well as boys. Most of the girls, however, took courses in household economics and upon their return set to work to improve the appearance of their homes, planted flowers in the front yard, and delighted home palates with their cooking, baking, and preserves.

SAVINGS BANK INSURANCE TRIED OUT FOR TWO YEARS

State savings bank insurance in Massachusetts was two years old on November 1. By its second annual report which was given out recently, the premium income showed gains in both banks writing insurance, the increase in the Whitman Savings Bank being 113 per cent and that in the People's Savings Bank of Brockton 150 per cent. Expenses, on the other hand, remained prac-

Morgan in Philadelphia Inquirer.

GOING UP.

The Philadelphia Young Men's Christian Association is making a whirlwind campaign to raise a building fund of one million dollars in two weeks. Over half a million was secured the first seven days. An elaborate committee organization is in charge of C. S. Ward, the Y. M. C. A. "national booster," who will go next to Atlanta and Charleston, and later to Minneapolis, Cincinnati and Rochester.

tically stationary, taking less than twenty per cent of premium receipts from policies written in the twelve months. The number of death claims jumped from one, in the initial year, to nine—the amount, from $500 to $3,622; but the mortality rate remains low, as is usually the case in new insurance companies. After paying expenses of conducting the business, meeting death claims, and setting aside the required amounts for reserve funds, both banks declared three classes of dividends. On monthly premium policies, which during the current fiscal year will reach their first anniversary, the dividend is one monthly premium; on those reaching their second anniversary, one and one-half times the monthly premium; and on those reaching their third anniversary, one and two-thirds times the monthly premium. This showing is made upon rates considerably below those of the industrial companies.

Insurance in force on the last day of the fiscal year amounted to $1,367,363, or about a thirty-seven per cent increase. The number of policies was 3,318, and the amounts average $412.10 as against the previous average of $393.79. This higher figure, together with the fact that fifty-eight per cent of the policies are of the twenty-year endowment class where premiums are higher, would seem to indicate either that the league's educational campaign has been very successful, or that the class of people benefiting by the plan is more provident and prosperous than are the average holders of industrial policies in the big companies. The number of policies which were terminated during the year ran up to fifty-eight per cent of the total number issued in the twelve months; the number forfeited by lapse reached thirty per cent of the year's issue,—an increase of five per cent over the first year. The lapse rate, however, is still less than half the average lapse rates of the industrial companies.

CORONER AND JURY DISAGREE ON NEWARK FIRE

The presentment of the grand jury of Essex county, N. J., on the factory fire at High and Orange streets, Newark,[2] offers a striking contrast to the coroner's verdict. The coroner found that the loss of twenty-five lives was not due to "a criminal act, either of omission or commission on the part of any individual or individuals, whether as private citizens or public officers," but was an unavoidable accident.

The grand jury's presentment, on the other hand, censures the superintendent of the Anchor Light Company who tried to put out the fire before notifying the fire department, and the captain of the engine company across the street for investigating conditions within the building before turning in a general alarm. The jury also seriously questions whether the fireman who did not mount to the fourth floor with the engineer of the building to help some of the inmates get out on the fire-escapes, should be retained in the fire department, criticises the force of the hook and ladder truck for failing to raise a ladder at the north end of the building, and the factory inspectors who never reported the locked door at the foot of the stairway to the fourth floor.

Having made these specific criticisms of individuals the presentment proceeds to recommend lines of improvement in the laws regulating fire protection. These recommendations include requiring the Bureau of Combustibles to report to the

[2]See THE SURVEY for January 7.

factory and building departments dangerous conditions in buildings; a material change in the present state law for the erection of fire-escapes "in view of the fact that in case of fires on lower floors the fire-escapes at present required become absolutely useless to the upper stories"; the fire-proofing of stair wells by means of brick walls and fire doors, the installation of fire-alarm systems and of bi-weekly drills of all employes in factory buildings.

Plaschke in Louisville Post.

HELP!

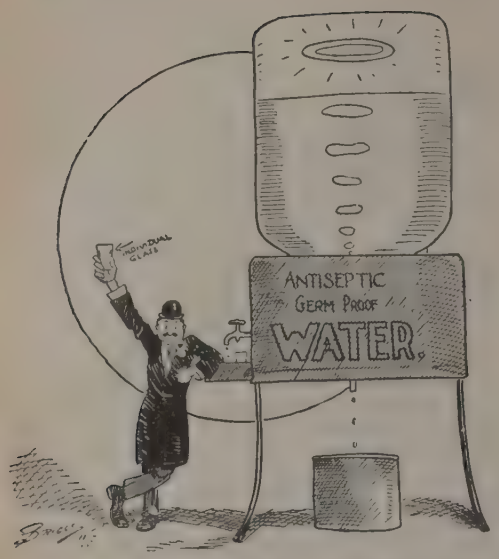
The campaign for a new Y. M. C. A. building in Louisville has been going on vigorously for some time. The social value of such a center for boys has been emphasized as sound reason for seeking contributions from all the people of Louisville.

DEATH OF DR. MÜNSTERBERG

Emil Münsterberg, president of the Department of Public Charities in Berlin, Germany, who died January 25, was widely recognized as the foremost authority in the world on charitable administration. He was well known in this country. In 1906 he made a tour of our principal eastern cities and later gave us his Impressions of American Charity in a series of thoughtful articles in *Charities and The Commons,* then the name of THE SURVEY. In 1908 he made a brief visit to New York to deliver the principal address at the twenty-fifth anniversary meetings of the Charity Organization Society. Through these visits and the articles in *Charities and The Commons* and the *American Journal of Sociology,* he became the chief interpreter to the present generation of American charity workers of the Elberfeld system of relief. This system, based on the principle that public assistance should be given in the home in all but an irreducible minimum of cases, and administered not by a few paid officials but by many "neighbors" or volunteers working under the supervision of trained experts, is the model for charity organization work in America, though it has developed here along lines somewhat different from those followed in Germany. His visit to America resulted in a plan for a united charities building in Berlin, patterned after the one in New York, which probably would have been erected next fall.

Dr. Münsterberg was born at Dantzig in 1855. While still a young man he became an expert on charity administration. In 1887 he published an article on the English charity system, followed at intervals by others on Russia, Switzerland, Italy, Belgium, and the United States. In 1887, too, he published a book on Germany charity, *Die Deutsche Armengesetzgebung und das Material zu ihrer Reform.* In 1892 he was commissioned to reorganize the relief work at Hamburg and almost at the beginning of this large task he and his band of "honor" assistants were called upon to administer relief during an epidemic of cholera.

In 1896 he was made secretary of the National Conference of the German Society of Relief and Charity (*Deutscher Verein fur Armenpflege und Wohlthatigkeit*). The reports of this body, issued at irregular intervals, contain many of his writings. Collected in annual volumes they form a frequent and notably complete survey of charitable administration in many countries. He was both founder and editor, and at the twenty-fifth anniversary of the New York society presented its library with a souvenir set especially bound for the occasion. In 1897 he wrote *Die Armenpflege,* the standard German work on this subject, which has run into several editions. He was the compiler of the *Bibliographie*



Briggs in Chicago Tribune.

THE SAME TO YOU AND MANY OF THEM!
The very best sort of a New Year's toast—pure water drunk from an individual glass.

des Armenwesens and a frequent contributor to German periodicals.

His presidency of the Berlin Department of Public Charities dates from 1905.

Dr. Münsterberg was a man of large vision and experience as well as a trained and efficient executive. The many charity workers who met him during his visits to America have treasured a memory not only of a delightful companion, a scholar and expert in charity, but of one who had in notable degree the German trait of thoroughness and found time, with all his affairs, to do all things well. The attention to minute detail which he gave to every kind of public and private charity in America was all but disconcerting to those he interviewed, and led perhaps to the feeling that his report would be a collection of innumerable petty facts. The articles in *Charities and The Commons* were to some, therefore, a surprise in the breadth of Dr. Münsterberg's grasp of our organization and methods, and of the peculiar problems due, on the one hand, to enormous immigration and city crowding, and on the other, to the jaunty progress of a rich and democratic nation.

Dr. Müunsterberg's daughter Elsa was for some time a resident of Greenwich House, New York. Prof. Hugo Münsterberg of Harvard is a brother.

FRANCIS GALTON: EXPLORER OF MEN

With the death of Sir Francis Galton on January 18 in London there disappears one of the few remaining members of that extraordinary group of Englishmen of which Charles Darwin was the recognized chief. Galton, a cousin of Darwin, was born in Birmingham in 1822, was graduated from Trinity College, Cambridge, in 1844, and two years later began his active exploring work in Africa, from which his first reputation was gained. For many years that field occupied his time and attention and it was not until 1869, when his Hereditary Genius appeared, that he began his extraordinarily varied series of studies in the application of statistical methods to biology, psychology and sociology. In 1874 he published English Men of Science, and in 1883, Inquiries Into Human Faculty. In 1889 his Natural Inheritance appeared, and in 1892 the study of Finger Prints.

During all this period, and up to the time of his death, he was an active student of individual psychology and during his later years gave particular attention to the problem of eugenics.

It is quite impossible at this time to estimate with confidence Galton's permanent value and service. His most striking characteristic was the fertility, amounting to genius, with which he blazed the way in applying new methods to old problems. It is more than possible that his permanent reputation will rest not upon new truths or generalizations established by his hand, but upon the extraordinary amount of research by others that has been stimulated through the suggestions first offered by Galton and along lines first hinted at by him.

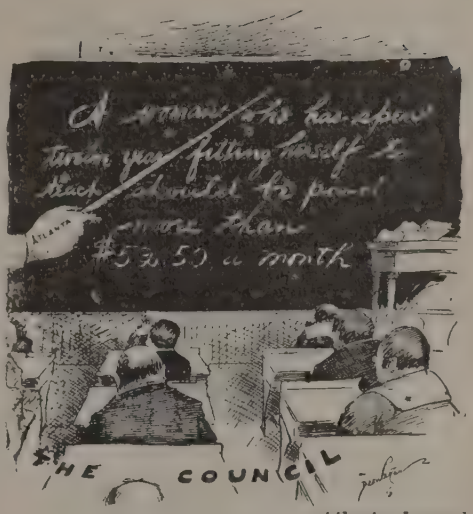
While the results of the application of statistics to mental factors and the study of individual psychology based thereon have thus far not borne out the hopes of its sponsor, there can be little doubt that the consequent widespread interest in the

transmission of mental traits as well as of physical characteristics will yield results of permanent value.

The suggestiveness of the work of Pearson and his school, which owed its initial stimulus to Galton more than to any other man, is recognized on every hand, even though much difference of opinion may obtain as to its ultimate significance. If he had done no more than initiate the interest in eugenics along with all its possible sociological bearings Galton's fame would be secure.

Always impatient of scientific convention and constantly reaching out for new fields of inquiry, he was in the latter half of his life as typically an explorer in biological science as he had been in earlier years in the geographical field.

It is given to few men to think new thoughts. With the appearance of each new product of Galton's mind there was left the impression not only of freshness of treatment, but of absolute originality of idea, method and suggestion.



Atlanta Journal.

A LESSON FOR THE CITY FATHERS.

Many interests in Atlanta have united in a concerted effort to secure from the City Council an increase in teachers' salaries. The rate of pay is held to be inadequate with the present cost of living. In some cases it is actually lower than it was years ago.

ANNUAL MEETING OF CONSUMERS' LEAGUE

Perhaps the most significant feature of the twelfth annual meeting of the National Consumers' League at Pittsburgh February 7 and 8 will be the address on The Living Wage by the Rev. John A. Ryan of St. Paul. Father Ryan is an active member of the league's committee on minimum wage boards and has expressed the hope that a bill for the creation of such boards may be introduced in the Minnesota Legislature before February 7.

John Graham Brooks, president of the league, will preside at all the sessions, and will deliver the presidential address the evening of February 7. The vice-president, Mrs. Frederick Nathan, will speak on The Need of Protective Legislation for Women and Girls. The local committee has secured the co-operation of twenty-five women's organizations in and around Pittsburgh, and a public session for women, in co-operation with these organizations, will be held on the afternoon of February 8 in the Chamber of Commerce. This will be addressed by Mrs. Nathan on the question, Would the Ballot be of Value to Working Women? Headquarters will be at the Fort Pitt Hotel and the public meeting the evening of February 8 in the Chamber of Commerce.

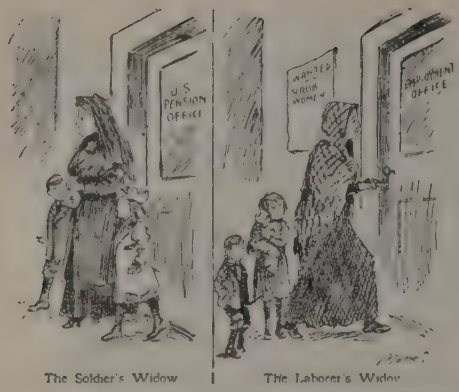
EDITORIAL GRIST

HOMEWORK: A VICIOUS CIRCLE

FLORENCE KELLEY

There are two points upon which the public needs to act in relation to tenement work, as set forth in the valuable article by Miss Watson elsewhere in this issue. We never can know the extent of such work, and for want of knowledge we cannot safeguard either the children of the tenements or the buyers of the goods; we cannot keep the homework system and escape its inevitable consequences and accompaniments.

The time is ripe for the sweeping prohibition of the abominable system. In the interest of the children and of the public health, it should be abolished by law without further waste of time. It



Morris in Spokane Spokesman-Review.

THE TWO WIDOWS.

The expose of the pension system now running in the *World's Work*, and the talk of pensions for government employes and their dependents, has brought into sharp focus the contrasting fate of the families of men who served in the army and of men who served in civil positions. Even the members of the Life Saving Corps, engaged in an extra-hazardous occupation, are not provided for.

spreads disease broadcast. It robs children of their childhood and their school life. It promotes congestion of population by keeping young homeworkers within walking distance of the factory. It encourages manufacturers to stay in congested districts in order to be near the cheap homeworkers:—a vicious circle injurious to everyone involved in it.

Every effort to restrict or regulate homework has ended in failure in this country and in Europe. The only rational thing left to do is to abolish it outright exactly as cows, goats, chickens, geese and pigs have been banished from the tenements.

THE UNITED TOWNS OF BOSTON

ROBERT A. WOODS
South End House

Guizot tells us that the proper subordination of general and local governmental powers is the last and highest development in the evolution of popular government, and John Fiske says that the federal union is the one political contribution of America to the world.

A broad and substantial movement—cumulative effect of many earlier strivings—is coming forward in Boston for the thoroughgoing application of this distinctive method of American democracy to the administration of the city.

Municipal expansion both in America and in Europe has thus far taken, with occasional superficial modifications, the form of annexation. The Boston suburbs, possessed of ancient traditions and excellent local administration, have never even been touched by "Greater Boston" agitations in the past. Now, however, a "Real Boston" is beginning to emerge from the confusion of interests involved in the efforts of forty different cities and towns to meet the outstanding common problems of a great urban community. The proposed form of metropolitan administration, instead of being fastened down upon the towns, is to grow up out of them. It is even suggested that local autonomy should be restored to the various districts within the city limits, which in most cases still retain a strong and definite sense of their local identity. To complete the project of a federal, rather than in any sense a consolidated, administration, there is a dream, which a gradual evolution might well bring true, of a sort of downtown District of Columbia. In this way the taxing power over the business section of the city would no longer be vested in the tenement-house and immigrant population of the city, as an endless source of demoralization among them. It would be in the hands of a metropolitan council broadly representative of the entire population of the whole urban community.

The two elements which have been responsible for most of the municipal reform movements in American cities, business men and social workers, take the active leadership in this project. Among both there is a keen sense of the need of all existing local pride and responsibility, and much more. The merchants live chiefly in the suburbs. To the social workers, the neighborhood is more and more their *metier*. On the other hand, the large coherent point of view and momentum is furnished by the recent union of various business organizations in a single Chamber of Commerce with 4,500 members, and the promising steps toward the federation of all the many local improvement agencies.

The reality of the enterprise was made clear by the disclosure that as soon as the committees of the newly formed Chamber of Commerce came at their work of advancing the broad economic interests of Boston,—including city planning, housing, transit, industrial education, and public health,—they nearly everyone immediately encountered the impossibility of accomplishing total results through two score administrative fragments. Equally based on facts is the conclusion of the settlement worker, who sees the more enterprising young people of his local community, as fast as they are educated to citizenship, moving out beyond the city boundary; while the less progressive go the easy way of machine politics, cheap contracting or saloon keeping, which is made vastly more tempting through the inordinate power which an ill-balanced electorate thrusts upon the settlement neighborhood.

The proposed federation will undoubtedly have to gain strength by successive steps. The proposal is that at first it shall have only advisory powers. Next it will undoubtedly have certain new phases of metropolitan administration assigned to it. After that, it will tend to absorb the functions of the existing state-appointed metropolitan authorities. The united towns of Boston cannot, in any case, seem so vague as the United States of America was a hundred and thirty years ago. And the obstacles which have confronted the greater Boston in the way of sturdy local self-sufficiency may in the end prove to be stepping stones toward the truly organic type of democratic municipality.

EDUCATION AND STATE RIGHTS

LEONARD P. AYRES
Russell Sage Foundation

"Every foe of economy, every friend of federal interference in the business of the several states," says the New York *Sun* of January 12, rejoices in the triumph of the Federal Bureau of Education and the defeat of the enemies of the movement to extend its force of workers.

Kessler in St. Louis Times.

HIS POSITION ON THE CHARTER.

The proposed new charter for St. Louis has been approved and condemned on almost as many grounds as the proposed subway extensions in New York. The resulting confusion of the voter is well shown by the cartoonist.

The occasion thus editorially referred to was the debate in the House of Representatives on January 7 over the proposal to appropriate funds to create a field force for the bureau. The principal sponsor for the measure was Congressman Herbert Parsons of New York. The most conspicuous and active opponents were Congressman Tawney of Minnesota, who attacked it on the ground that it would result in interference in the business of the states, and Congressman Mann of Illinois, who argued that it would be an "opening wedge" leading to the creation of a great and immensely expensive department.

The matter under debate was the plan of the United States commissioner of education to establish in his bureau a field force of consulting specialists in ten branches of educational work. For this purpose he has asked Congress to appropriate $75,000—$30,000 for salaries of ten specialists, $20,000 for traveling and contingent expenses and $25,000 for additional clerical and editorial force in the central office.

The idea behind this movement is that there is no way in which the real interests of the public can be better promoted than by increasing the amount and im-

proving the kind of education which the people get; that this improved education can be promoted more effectively by the federal government than by any other body; and that the way in which the government can help is by securing and disseminating accurate, pertinent information telling just what is being done in different lines of educational endeavor in different localities and with what measure of success.

The commissioner's plan, which is now before Congress, for this gathering and dissemination of information provides for the employment of specialists in the ten following subjects:

school administration, industrial education, education for housekeeping, statistics and accounting, rural education, school hygiene, school architecture, commercial education, secondary education, wider use of school plants.

These specialists will study, investigate and collect information in these several fields. This material will be collected, organized, and printed in pamphlet and book form, but the work of writing and preparing matter for publication will not constitute the chief function of the new force. Its principal duties will be to consult with local educational authorities who are constantly seeking information, counsel, and assistance in these fields and who at present have no source from which they can get this sort of help.

In short the new force will constitute a national clearing-house of educational information. It will gather facts from all possible sources and render available to each locality the experience of all.

There are not the slightest grounds for Mr. Tawney's statements that the new force will interfere with existing state and municipal offices of education. No such interference is contemplated nor would it be possible under the organic act creating the Bureau of Education. The object of the new field force, like that of the existing bureau, is service not power.

In the discussion before Congress it was argued that it is needless to employ agents for personally gathering and making available information, as the work can be done at less expense through pamphlets and other publications. The trouble with this argument is that it is not sustained by the lessons of experience. The policy of placing able men actually in the field in order to get definite results has been adopted by practically all agencies that have been successful in securing enlightened public action.

The brilliant success of the Southern Education Board in bringing education in the southern states to a higher level of efficiency has been secured through the services of the able men it put in the field. The trustees of the Peabody Fund have adopted the same methods. In the field of social service the Playground Association of America, the National Child Labor Committee, the Hookworm Commission and the Russell Sage Foundation may be mentioned as agencies that depend for results on the services of able men doing field work.

In very different fields the life insurance companies and political organizations have learned just the same lesson, which is that the interest and co-operation of communities can be secured only through personal contact. Documents alone, no matter how ably written, are inadequate. Personal leadership is essential.

These are the reasons why the commissioner of education asks for a field force of consulting specialists whose services will be available for the study and analysis of local problems, and who will be able to help schoolmen in the same effective way that the Department of Agriculture aids agriculturists.

These specialists will be men familiar with educational theory and practice and having special knowledge and recognized standing in their several fields. It will be their duty to master the past and current literature in their specific lines and each man will acquaint himself with what has been and is being accomplished everywhere in his particular line of work and with what measure of success.

The action of the present Congress will decide whether or not that body believes that we should have in Washington a national bureau available as a central clearing house of information and in which the experiments and experiences of the different states and cities shall be

recorded and made available through specialists who can give really expert advice, information, and opinion when called on to do so.

If gathering and making publicly available the results of experience in education is a violation of the rights of the states, as Mr. Tawney argues, then the federal government is guilty of the most unwarranted sort of interference in compiling and publishing the census, in maintaining its Departments of Agriculture and Commerce and Labor, and in supporting such bureaus as those of mines and weather.

It is idle to argue that the government may study the farm but must not regard the welfare of the farmer's child. It is unreasonable to suppose that it may aid in perfecting the machine but must make no provision for the welfare of the operator. The argument is no longer tenable that fish, and clams, and insects may properly be studied at an annual cost of millions of dollars, but that to make generally available the existing information about the welfare of children is an unwarranted and dangerous blow against popular self-government.

GOVERNOR DIX AND STATE INSTITUTIONS

With all that Governor Dix says in his message to the New York state Legislature in behalf of economy in public expenditures THE SURVEY, it is needless to say, is in hearty accord. The governor's words are not perfunctory. They have the ring of conviction and of purpose. Neither is this commendation by THE SURVEY perfunctory. If Governor Dix can succeed in actually preventing extravagance, corruption, and waste in the expenditure of state funds, he will have performed a social service of the very highest order. The waste or the misuse of the resources belonging to the commonwealth is a hindrance to the proper performance by the state of its social duties. Governor Dix no doubt realizes perfectly well that this will be a matter of extreme difficulty; that many of these expenditures are made pursuant to statutes which can be abrogated only by consent of the Legislature; that, as in the case of the unnecessary and expensive publication of the session laws in local newspapers and in the employment in connection with the Legislature itself of a large number of supernumeraries, the putting into effect of business principles in these branches of the public business is a matter of almost hopeless difficulty. Every good citizen, regardless of party affiliation, should uphold and strengthen the governor in such efforts.

By reason, however, of the difficulty of correcting these real evils, and of the failure of many promising efforts in this direction, it is more than likely that the impetus toward economy and retrenchment will be turned toward the state's large expenditures for charitable and correctional work. The state does expend large sums of money in the maintenance of its charitable institutions, its hospitals for the insane and its prisons. The business administration of them should be in complete accord with sound business principles. It is not easy to say what these principles are, nor how they should be applied. What may at first sight be thought sound business methods may not be readily applicable to a group of institutions diverse in character, scattered over a state, and established each to accomplish a specific purpose. THE SURVEY, however, not only would not oppose, but is in hearty sympathy with the belief that the moneys expended for these institutions and for all the social work of the state should be paid out with scrupulous economy, and with complete regard for sound principles of business management. Here again, however, the force of tradition, of inertia, of routine, and of statutory requirement is very great; and to detect abuses and extravagances will be no easy task, and to correct them will be still more difficult.

All these facts are likely to suggest to the legislators and to the governor the curtailment of the newer enterprises to which the state is committed, or the refusal to consider additional work which has been and is being urged upon the state. It is much easier to refrain from

additional expenditures, however meritorious, than to discontinue long-standing extravagance, however destitute of merit.

The state cannot go backward. It must go forward. The obligations resting upon it are clearly defined and must be met. The number of the insane, the feeble-minded, and the wayward increases from year to year as fast as the general population—possibly faster. All these classes must be provided for. To stop new construction means further overcrowding. The greater part of the constructive work in which the state is now engaged has been carefully thought out, has been planned on conservative and economical lines, and should not be interfered with.

In particular, the two enterprises which the state has undertaken and carried on in parallel lines, the development of Letchworth Village at West Haverstraw, and of the New York State Training School for Boys at Yorktown Heights, should be provided for. The state has no institution for the care of the feeble-minded nearer New York city than Rome, Syracuse, and Newark. Epileptics must be sent the expensive journey to Sonyea, Livingston county. The absence of adequate accommodations at these institutions leaves many scores of mentally defective in homes, where they are an undue burden and interfere with the economic efficiency of the household; in poorhouses, where their presence is forbidden by law; and in orphan asylums, where they are a detriment to the other inmates, who cannot themselves receive suitable training. Meantime, those who remain in the community at large contribute far more than their due proportion to the ranks of the criminal, the prostitute and the vagrant.

For the New York State Training School for Boys the argument is equally cogent. The state is sending its juvenile delinquents to an institution built nearly sixty years ago, and which, in construction and equipment, violates every principle of modern reformatory work. The state is in the position of a manufacturer who continued to use a factory which had long become obsolete and seriously damaged the raw material put through it. The House of Refuge on Randall's Island should be abandoned, as has been the policy of the state for the last eight years, at the earliest possible moment; and the New York State Training School for Boys should be developed on the cottage plan.

Besides the development of Letchworth Village and the Training School for Boys, the state is already committed, through the selection and purchase of sites, to the development of an additional state hospital for the insane at Lake Mohansic, Westchester county, and a state farm for women. The State Conference of Charities and Correction and many charitable and civic bodies have very strongly urged for several years the establishing also of a reformatory for misdemeanants and a farm colony for vagrants. A clear case has been made out for each of these institutions, and, in our judgment, the state will not be able to delay their establishment much longer.

Of the six propositions submitted to the voters of Oregon by the state Legislature last fall only one received the approval of a majority of the voters, that one being the proposition to establish an additional hospital for the insane. We have not the slightest doubt that a large majority of the people of New York will strongly uphold the legislation of the governor pursuing a vigorous and constructive policy in dealing with charitable and correctional interests.

THE PITTSBURGH STREET PLAN

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON[1]

"City planning", said the Pittsburgh Civic Commission in 1909, "should be the forecasting and provision for securing such physical facilities, equipment

[1]As a colleague in the field work of the Pittsburgh Survey, Mr. Robinson made a quick diagnosis of the civic improvement needs of Pittsburgh in the summer of 1908. His work as civic adviser to Los Angeles, Denver, Columbus and other cities gave national background to his findings. He outlined certain main elements in the situation and recommended an intensive and comprehensive investigation by a commission, calling in outside experts in city planning and engineering. He is, therefore, in an especially favorable position to review the first report of the Civic Improvement Commission on what might be called the ground plan of the city.

and development of a city as are necessary to promote and accommodate the business, communication, transportation, health, comfort, and pleasure of its citizens. City planning, as undertaken by the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, means the city useful, convenient, economical, and healthful, as well as the city beautiful."

The commission secured the services of three authorities on city planning to prepare the report on Outline and Procedure from which these words are taken, and then retained the services of Frederick Law Olmsted, one of the three, "to make a study of a comprehensive main thoroughfare system for the center of the city and to the principal residence and manufacturing districts and the surrounding boroughs"; also to present a report "upon the locations of the main public buildings and grounds of the downtown section." This report by Mr. Olmsted is now being issued in printed form by the commission. It is interesting, both on account of the city for which it is made and because of the man who made it, but especially is it interesting because it is perhaps the most extended, thorough, and concrete report yet submitted in the United States on the question of street readjustments.

Persons who have even passed through Pittsburgh on the train know the roughness of the topography, and can realize to some extent the difficulty of the problem of creating there a convenient street system that will accommodate "business, communication, and transportation." Those who know Pittsburgh itself know how much more complicated the problem is made by the development which the city has already had, and particularly by the natural crowding of the business center into a narrow gore at the junction of two great rivers, its landward or eastern side bounded by hills through which egress can be had through a single gap and only along the edge of the rivers, of the valleys of which the railroads have already made use. To the north and south the inward and outward travel is borne by bridges, which obviously can be increased in size and number as the need arises. The main problem, therefore, is that raised by the necessity of providing sufficient communication between the business center and the populous region lying east of it. To this problem and its ramifications Mr. Olmsted's report is largely devoted. The result is a comprehensive street layout, of which the main interest to persons who do not live in Pittsburgh is its concrete illustration of what a city plan report can, in a practical way, do for a city.

As a great deal of the report is printed in the following pages, with an introduction by Mr. Olmsted himself, attention need here be called to only a few of the main suggestions, choosing especially those of wide, and in some cases of general, application, or those not included in the long quotations from the report.

Most interesting from the former point of view is the chapter devoted to street widths. In the course of this Mr. Olmsted points out, what a great many persons are prone to forget, that the width of vehicles is not necessarily fixed. In fact, as he shows, the tendency, especially now that the motor truck has made its appearance, is toward an increase in the size of the vehicle unit, and therefore in proportioning the width of our main thoroughfares according to the number of streams of vehicles we wish to accommodate, it is advisable to be somewhat generous. He shows also that in Pittsburgh with its many hills, no great boulevards of the type usually found in flatter cities could be carried for any considerable length without enormous expense. Such thoroughfares, he suggests, must make provision for handling anticipated future street traffic, not by a general and continuous widening, but by occasional pieces here and there.

There are, he remarks, two special forms of street development used in hilly cities all over the world, of which Pittsburgh needs to take account in its suburban development. These are: first, the street designed to give access to frontage on one side only, usually the up-hill side, the street running on the side of a hill and perhaps supported by a retaining wall; and, second, the two-level street, in which a longitudinal bank

or retaining wall is introduced into the middle of the thoroughfare, so as to adapt it to the topography and bring it nearer to the natural surface of the property which abuts it on either side. One whole chapter is given up to a discussion of the need of accurate and comprehensive surveys. These are necessary for the proper development of any city, as a basis for the layout of the streets, sewers, and all public works, and as a means of avoiding extravagant mistakes, misfits, and reconstructions. But in Pittsburgh the need is especially urgent. As Mr. Olmsted says, perhaps no city of equal size in the world is compelled to adapt its growth to such a difficult complication of high ridges, deep valleys, and precipitous slopes.

Study of the street plan necessarily involves consideration of various local points which make more definite and spectacular appeal to public interest. Such are the civic center where the public buildings are to be placed; the waterfront, the market, and the development of "The Point."

Three purposes are to be served, says Mr. Olmsted, in the proper development of the Pittsburgh water front. These are the improvement of commercial opportunities, the relief of traffic, and the provision for recreative and aesthetic enjoyment.

For his suggestion that a market be developed on Liberty avenue between Third and Fourth streets, it is not as easy to feel enthusiasm. No doubt the new site is better than that now occupied, but Mr. Olmsted does not make clear his reasons for considering it necessary to establish a market at all in this general locality. His own statements regarding the market situation seem, indeed, to the writer a sufficient reason for disapproval of an attempt to establish a large central market in the congested business heart of Pittsburgh.

A final section of the report is given up to notes on parks and recreation facilities. Here, as in the sections devoted to street planning, the general, rather than the particular, is of most interest to readers who do not live in Pittsburgh. It is to be noted, however, that that city belongs to the class in which the topography is so dominating a feature that it must affect the size and distribution of the local parks to an unusual extent. The city and its contiguous boroughs are subdivided into hilltop and valley communities, close together it may be, but nevertheless isolated one from the other by almost precipitous hillsides from one hundred to three hundred feet in height. These communities are sometimes very small and frequently very irregular in shape. For these reasons the large neighborhood recreation center, which is the efficient and economic unit for Chicago, is not well adapted to large sections of the Pittsburgh district. In the latter the isolated communities require local parks. Mr. Olmsted finds opportunities for meeting these, and various other, park needs of the district at low cost, in the park and parkway development of the various runs. He suggests also that considerable use may be made of the steep hillsides, not indeed as playing fields, but as sites for interesting footpaths and for seats and terraces that shall command wide views.

With reference to an improved entrance to Schenley Park, two plans are submitted. Each of them has much to commend it and would effect a very great improvement in present conditions and in the setting of the Carnegie Institute. The presentation, however, of these schemes suffers the inevitable lack of force and persuasiveness which results when alternative projects are submitted, the reader becoming confused by the advantages and claims of each. But this is a matter affecting the presentation, rather than the execution, of the plans, and it is the execution alone which is ultimately important. This may be even better because alternative projects are submitted.

In fact it must be said in closing that Mr. Olmsted has made a very thorough, conscientious, comprehensive, and interesting study of the needs of the Pittsburgh district on the special lines on which he was asked to report. He had an unusually difficult subject, but that very fact may well have proved a challenge to his spirit.

PITTSBURGH

CIVIC FORCES AND CITY PLAN

FREDERIC LAW OLMSTED ALLEN T. BURNS
CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON
(Editorial Review)

Sketch for Municipal Building located on slope, east side of proposed Civic Center. Open area in front to be created by decking over Panhandle tracks and freight yards.

THE intensive study of certain primary elements in city planning, presented by the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, in their report which comes from the presses this month, has more than local significance. The following pages are of direct practical interest in any city,

Where there is water frontage on a river;

Where there are hills to be seamed with streets;

Where congested, old thoroughfares are to be broadened to make way for increased traffic and wider gauged trucks;

Where an intelligent, structural layout should be provided for future city growth.

GENERAL PLAN
OF THE
WN TOWN DISTRICT
SCALE
100 0 200 400 600 800
ON CITY PLANNING
ALLEGHENY
RIVER
COURT HOUSE
JAIL
COURT HOUSE ANNEX
FREIGHT YARD
FREIGHT YARD
FREIGHT YARD
PASSENGER TERMINAL

THE PITTSBURGH CITY PLAN

THOROUGHFARES, CIVIC CENTER AND WATER FRONT

FREDERICK LAW OLMSTED

The report on Pittsburgh — Main Thoroughfares and the Down Town District, if it has any distinctive character as compared with most other recent reports on city planning, must depend, I think, for such distinction upon the fact that it concentrates attention mainly upon a single one of the basic problems of city planning, and upon the probability that the somewhat more intensive study which this permits may help to carry the mind of the reader to a juster conception of what real city planning will mean when it once gets fairly established.

A full conception of city planning, as we shall come to know it, has yet to be formed. It is a matter of such appalling magnitude and complexity that as yet we have hardly got beyond the stage of scratching the surface here and there and learning to recognize the momentous truth of its unity: the truth that no matter where anybody may sink a shaft or what particular vein he may start to follow, each and all are dealing with one enormous aggregate of values and obstacles; the growing conviction that we must learn to develop these resources on a reasonably consistent and harmonious plan which shall take account, in every shaft and heading, of all the main elements of value and all the by-products that are economically attainable.

To continue this mining simile a little further, there is need, in the first place, of driving exploration shafts and tunnels, of boring deeply, of taking innumerable samples and making innumerable analyses, as a basis for planning a more far-sighted and economical development. This is the scientific department of the problem. There is need, in the second place, of continuing the present workings without intermission or delay, even though we know that the present heterogeneous plans are wasteful, and even though we be now struggling to harmonize and improve them; for on the prosecution of the present workings the income of the property depends. This is the operating department of the problem. Finally there is need for arousing the public to an understanding of the aims, the current results, and the future prospects in both departments, in order to get financial support for pushing the work: the department of publicity and promotion.

At the present stage of things a report on city planning must be regarded mainly as a prospectus, a means of getting the public ear and educating the public mind to the opportunities for decrease of operating cost and improvement of output, which would be offered by a comprehensive and scientific guidance and control of operations throughout the whole field.

A prospectus must appeal to the imagination; it should also afford some ground for reason to follow where imagination leads. Some of the recent prospectuses in this field have relied largely upon pictures, others upon glowing descriptions, still others upon pregnant-looking diagrams and plans; some have emphasized the size of the field and the opportunities for consolidation, others have laid stress upon the gains to be made by applying greater skill and science; some have dealt chiefly with recognized staple articles of the present stage of development, like transportation; while the majority, perhaps, have thrown the main stress upon by-products, such as civic beauty.

Unfortunately the latter have not always made it clear that civic beauty really is to be regarded as a by-product of civic utility. In emphasizing its great value and importance they have too often left the impression upon the man-in-the-street that, in spite of their formal disclaimer of such a purpose, they practically involved a proposal to obtain beauty at the expense of utility.

In a well ordered municipal life civic

beauty should be as clearly the by-product of utility as with individuals happiness should be a by-product of healthy living. The world holds that the man who makes the immediate pursuit of personal happiness a main object in life has entered upon a dangerous course; that if in so doing he seriously neglects the primitive basic conditions of healthy living he is bound to defeat his object; and that an efficient, healthy, useful life is apt to attain happiness as a by-product. It is not as generally acknowledged that civic beauty in its most healthy and normal development is the nearly inevitable by-product of the most absolute civic utility, of efficiency and fitness; and that in so far as it is anything else than an expression of perfect utility, it is something superadded thereto and in no sense to be substituted for it or to compete with it.

The particular prospectus now under consideration has been drawn on the assumption that the citizens to whom it is addressed have sufficient intelligence and business ability to understand and to be influenced to action, not so much by pictures and generalities as by a somewhat detailed exhibition of the kind of investigations and conclusions that are involved in dealing with one of the most essential branches of city planning, even though but a limited portion of the field could be so traversed.

It is the transportation system that makes the modern city possible, and upon its design more than upon any other controllable factor of the city's physical make-up the cost of living depends, since it greatly affects those chief items of the domestic budget:—rent and supplies. Leaving aside land-rent, which in the city may be but an index of the difficulties and cost of transportation to more distant competitive land, a very large percentage of the cost to the consumer for building materials, for food supplies, for fuel, and even for clothing and other less bulky necessities, is represented by the cost of transportation and of the transfers incidental to a complicated system of transportation and distribution. The cost of the long rail haul and the long water haul have already been reduced to such a degree that it is, as a matter of fact, the terminal charges and the cost of hauling and transfers within the city itself that seem to offer the greatest possibilities of further economy.

Neither the railroad managements nor the people seem yet to be educated quite up to the point of undertaking a fair and frank co-operative study of the plant, equipment, methods, and costs of railroad terminal facilities in a city, and of the opportunities for increased economy and efficiency through better planning and a better relation with local means of transportation by rail and by wagon; although a number of recent reports, notably that of the Metropolitan Improvements Commission of Boston, show a drift of opinion in that direction. The local railways, for the most part confined to locations in, under, or over streets, are, as a matter of city planning, inextricably related to the street plan, and provision for them cannot be disregarded in any system of main thoroughfares; but the special problems of the traction system in Pittsburgh have been intensively studied during 1910 by Bion J. Arnold, under commission from the municipal government, and the results of that study are included in a report separate from the one now under consideration.

It is therefore the main thoroughfares between different parts of the city, and especially between the center and the outskirts, that are the principal subject of my Pittsburgh report. The chief aim of the report is to assist in selecting the means by which to remove existing or clearly predictable causes for excessive cost and inconvenience of street transportation, due either to heavy grades, to bad location, to inadequacy and congestion, or to other causes of delay, so far as it appears reasonably practicable, from the engineering and financial point of view, to secure such relief.

The difficult and vitally important city planning questions involved in the lay-out of new local streets in relation to the peculiar topography of Pittsburgh, such questions as cost of construction, of maintenance and of teaming, such as influence upon size and shape of lots and upon design and cost of buildings, and such as the general amenity of different

types of subdivision, are scarcely touched upon in the report and only in an incidental way. Similarly, the important matter of parks and playgrounds is dealt with only as an incident, and largely because of its reflex influence on the main thoroughfare question.

In the heart of the city, on which the thoroughfares converge, economic conditions seem to make any extensive replanning wholly impracticable. A few marked improvements in the system of main circulation seem still practicable and are discussed at length, while three other closely related matters are also discussed in some detail. One of these is a site for a much needed city hall and civic center. The second is a proposed development of the public water front in such a manner as to provide a wide belt thoroughfare, to give better wharf facilities for water transportation, and to make more available the great aesthetic and recreative value of the water front. The third is a proposed relocation and reorganization of the downtown retail public market, shifting it from a cramped site where it obstructs important channels of street traffic to a neighboring larger site with railroad connections.

It will be seen that the point of view throughout has been primarily economic. Too close insistence on this point of view may sometimes involve a limitation to a narrow outlook, or imply timidity, or shackle the imagination, but to use it as a consistent test of worth does not of necessity have any one of those evil effects, and certainly makes for sanity.

To give a mere list of the scores of specific recommendations which constitute the body of the report, or a summary explanation of the most important of them condensed within the limits of this article, would hardly concern the general reader.[1] The following excerpts are drawn from the discussions of general questions, explanatory of specific proposals, with the idea that in their broader aspects they will be of interest in other cities where similar factors must be dealt with.

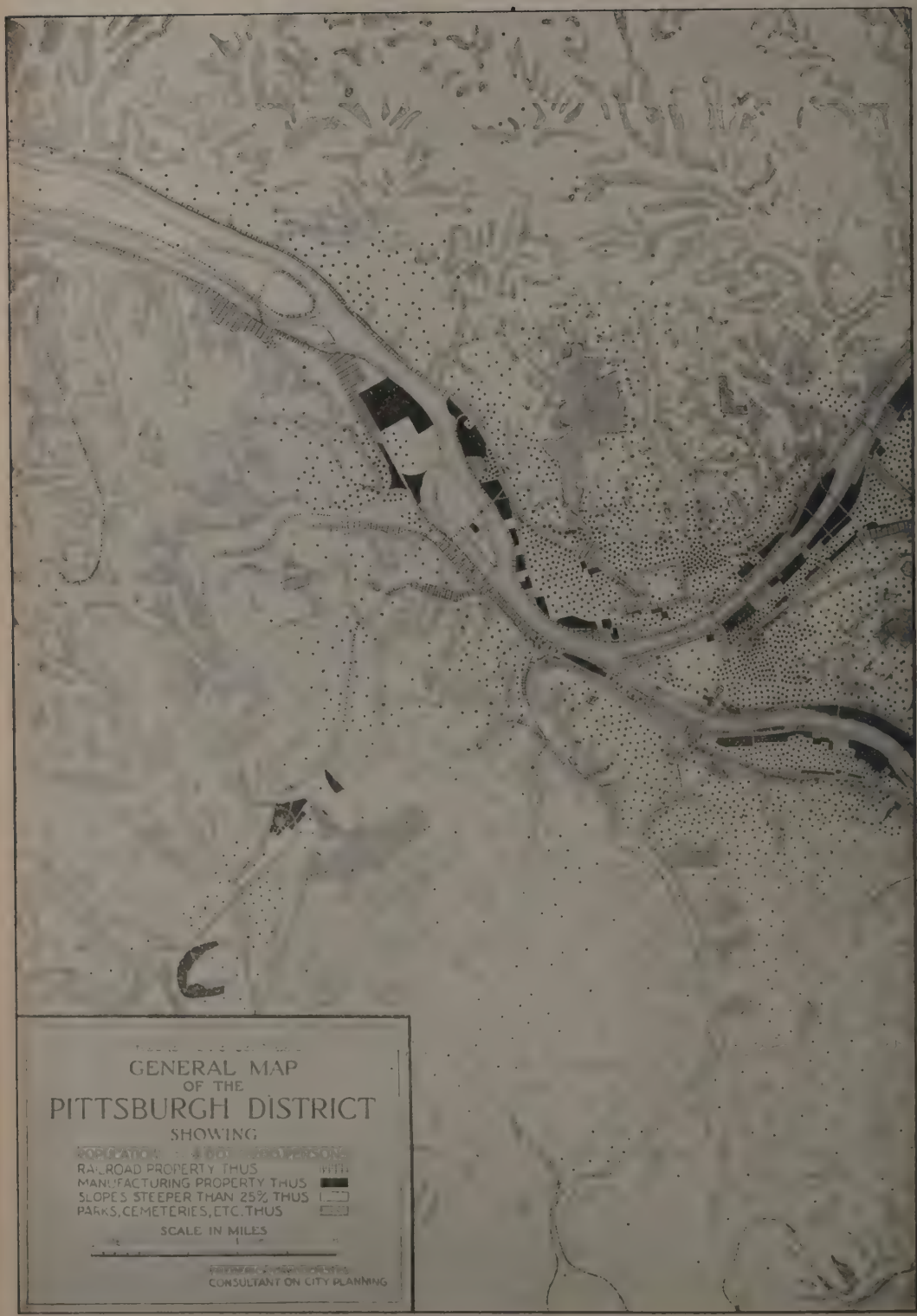
[1] Part I contains recommendations as to improvements in the down town district. Part II contains general and specific matter relating to main thoroughfare improvements in Pittsburgh and the surrounding districts. Part III contains detailed recommendations for securing comprehensive topographical surveys and maps of the Pittsburgh district. Part IV contains a brief discussion of the subject of local and rural parks with special relation to Pittsburgh conditions, illustrated by a few specific recommendations. Part V contains three detailed reports on special subjects: one on The Hump Cut, one on The Market, and the other, first submitted in the spring of 1910 by Colonel T. W. Symons and Mr. Olmsted, on The City and the Allegheny River Bridges.

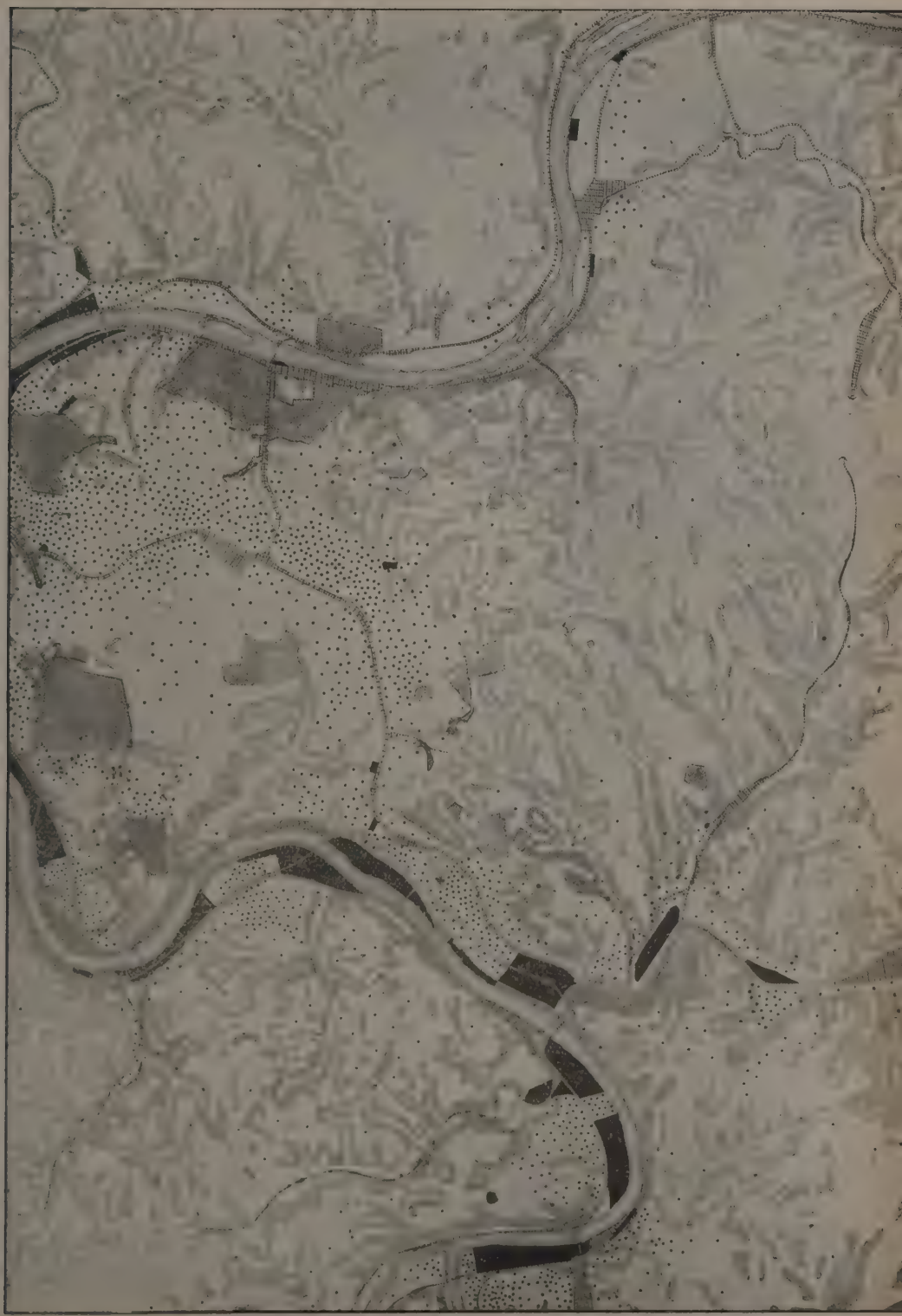
THE MAIN ARTERIES

The heart of Pittsburgh is the Point district, bounded by the two rivers and by the steep hills to the eastward, within which, as elsewhere, the basic problem is that of the means of transportation, specifically the problem of the street plan. There is a daily circulation of inward and outward travel to be borne by a limited number of main arteries, of which those leading to the chief tributary districts are bridges. It is clear that the bridges can be enlarged or increased in number at any time when the volume of travel justifies the expense of reconstruction.

Considering the fact that Pittsburgh is a world capital in the steel bridge industry, that its busiest quarters are sundered by three of the world's big rivers, and that it is traversed in every direction by ravines which demand the construction of mighty viaducts, it is a striking and rather shameful thing that it does not possess a single bridge over its rivers that is notable among the bridges of the world, either for its beauty, for its perfect engineering adaptation to its purposes, or for its size, strength, or amplitude. In fact, the bridges of Pittsburgh, compared with those of other cities, are rather unusually limited in capacity and lacking in the qualities of impressiveness and beauty.

It is a case of the cobbler's children going barefoot: when a man sells shoes at wholesale in every quarter of the globe, it is time for his own family to be well shod. Pittsburgh can afford to have, and owes it to herself to have, the best possible bridges. No time, or pains, or reasonable expense should be spared in planning future bridges, whether they be on new locations or to replace existing structures, to get the best designs that the highest engineering skill combined with the highest artistic ability can produce. Bridge-builders everywhere should be enabled to think of Pittsburgh not merely as a source of cheap raw material for bridges, but as an all-round leader in the bridge-building art.


GENERAL MAP
OF THE
PITTSBURGH DISTRICT
SHOWING
POPULATION - 4 000 000 PERSONS
RAILROAD PROPERTY THUS
MANUFACTURING PROPERTY THUS
SLOPES STEEPER THAN 25% THUS
PARKS, CEMETERIES, ETC. THUS
SCALE IN MILES
CONSULTANT ON CITY PLANNING



To the eastward, where the most active growth of the city has been taking place, the arteries consist not of bridges over open rivers, but of streets, very limited in number by reason of the form of the land, and so situated that the cost of securing greater capacity will increase by leaps and bounds with the rise of land values and the erection of new structures. The first step in planning improvements for the heart of the city therefore must be to consider the possibilities for improvement in the eastward arteries.

There are only three places where such arteries could ever have been laid out, even if the wisest foresight had been exercised in the early planning of the city when all was free and open. These three places are around the north edge of the hills along the Allegheny, around the south edge of the hills along the Monongahela, and through the gap in the hills followed by Fifth avenue and Forbes street.

The northerly route is followed by Penn and Liberty avenues, by the Pennsylvania Railroad, and by Grant boulevard clinging to the hillside above the railroad. All the teaming and surface traffic of a very large region must be carried through the throat on the lower level. It is important also to note that the only street which passes through the heart of the city with more than village dimensions, that is to say the eighty-foot Liberty avenue, leads directly to this throat and then chokes down to a fifty-foot street. It may safely be said that increased capacity for east and west general traffic north of the hills can be secured only by a radical widening of Liberty avenue or Penn avenue. Upon the whole, the latter seems the more advantageous route. A traffic square at the angle in front of the Union Station, where the broad part of Liberty avenue ends and the narrow part begins, would furnish a good cross-connection, and, fortunately, such a square can now be formed with the destruction of but few buildings, and those of relatively little cost.

The street along the Monongahela, Second avenue, although it might, by proper planning at the start, have been made of great importance and value, cannot at the present time be greatly widened without the most serious difficulties. For much of its length it is pinched between railroads and industrial plants.

The only remaining natural outlet to the east is that occupied by Fifth avenue and Forbes street and the block between them. Neither street is nearly wide enough for the traffic it will be called upon to bear, but the widening of Fifth avenue would be so costly as to be almost prohibitive. For many reasons the widening of Forbes street into an ample main thoroughfare seems to be the best solution of the problem here presented.

The intersection of Forbes street, widened with Sixth avenue extended, is likely to become a traffic center of the utmost consequence. Sixth avenue, crossing Fifth avenue and Grant street, leads toward the Union Station and all the northeast part of the business district and to the North Side bridges; a new bridge and tunnel are likely to lead from this very intersection to the South Side and the South Hills; from this center a good connection is readily obtainable with Fourth, Third, and Second avenues and the southern water front; and Diamond street can be widened at moderate expense so as to continue Forbes street right through the heart of the business district.

The importance of the Forbes street route to the eastward and of its future traffic burden will be better realized, when it is understood that at Soho a direct extension could be made on easy grades from the widened Forbes street to Fifth avenue, the street which can more easily be widened beyond that point; and further, that a little to the east a new and greatly needed street might branch off to the right from Forbes street where the latter turns inland. This new street would continue along the side hill above the river, and would provide the only possible convenient outlet from the city to all the upland regions south and southwest of Squirrel Hill. Thus, the western portion of Forbes street, when widened, would carry the great bulk of all future street traffic between the heart of the city and the whole district from East Liberty to the Monongahela river and all the country east and southeast of that triangle.

It would be difficult to overestimate, on the other hand, the value to the future convenience and prosperity of the city, of carrying the Forbes street improvement westward,

straight through to a junction with Liberty avenue in the heart of the city on the line of Diamond street; it is a peculiarly fortunate thing that this is the only east and west line in the midst of the business district where a wide street can still be put through without destroying any considerable number of costly modern buildings.

When Diamond alley was widened in part from twenty feet to fifty feet, not long ago, the improvement was of much importance, because it added one more street large enough for general business in a locality where there was a great demand for business frontage, and where the original lots were of very excessive depth. But the improvement was a distinctly local one, and contributed little to the solution of the general traffic problem. But the peculiar relation of Diamond street to the general system of main traffic lines demands a much more courageous action for the benefit of the whole city. In connection with the widening of Forbes street, it should be converted into a thoroughfare at least equal to Liberty avenue. A glance at the map shows the convenient and equitable location of Diamond street, and its importance as a thoroughfare to supplement Liberty avenue in handling the traffic of the Point district. It also makes clear that the Diamond Square Market site should not be occupied in any way that would perpetuate the obstruction offered by the present use of the square to through travel. The need is not for a mere mitigation of the present conditions by opening little archways through a new building on the Market site, but for a radical clearance. The space was originally set apart as an open public square, and the complete occupation of it by revenue-producing buildings was a diversion of the square from its original purpose, in general accordance with a short-sighted policy which has done much to produce the congested conditions prevailing in the city today.

It may be necessary to provide elsewhere for the market, and a site is suggested in the block between Third and Fourth streets on Liberty avenue, with the great advantage of rail connections. On account of the character of the surrounding country, an exceptionally large proportion of market supplies come to Pittsburgh by rail and must continue to do so. It is highly uneconomical and adds needlessly to the congestion of the streets, to unload the market supplies from the railroad a mile away, as is now done, and haul them by team through the heart of the retail district.

Coming, as it does, directly opposite the Sixth street bridge, Market street ought to be a very important crosstown connection; and because the buildings are generally small and old and most of the lots so deep as not to be seriously injured by curtailment, a widening is suggested throughout its length.

SOUTH SIDE FROM WATER STREET WEST OF WABASH RAILROAD.

THE WATER FRONT

Within the interior of the Point district, Diamond and Market streets widened, supplemented by the existing Liberty avenue, appear to be the only thoroughfares of metropolitan dimensions which it is reasonable to provide for. But around the borders of the district there is much that ought to be done.

In its water front Pittsburgh has a great public asset which now lies undeveloped, both from the point of view of transportation and from that of recreation and civic beauty. As a transportation factor, its primary use is for the transhipment of water-born commodities. The actual amount of river freight is at present relatively small; but it is potentially important, and one of the reasons for its lack of growth is the neglect of Pittsburgh and other river ports to provide for the quick, convenient, and economical handling of river-born traffic at the public wharf.

At river ports throughout the world, the first primitive step, beyond the mere dumping of stuff and passengers on the natural shelving banks or river bed of mud or gravel, is the paving of the slope, as at Pittsburgh, still leaving the goods to be dragged up and down the bank by main force. But among the live modern river cities of Europe, wherever a real water competition with rail service has been desired, even though such competition be limited in its range, the day of the primitive or mud-bank type of shore has long gone by, and the public wharf has been reconstructed into one of the many well-recognized types of com-

THE PITTSBURGH RIVER FRONT.
Looking northeast from Ninth street bridge.

mercial embankment providing an up-to-date equiqment for handling freight and decent, attractive conditions for passengers. This development of the public wharf properties in Europe has kept pace with the activities of the railroads, making for the steady and intelligent improvement of terminal facilities. Indeed, in many European river ports, the improvement of the water terminals has rather forced the pace for the railroads.

In contrast to this active aggressive spirit, Pittsburgh, like most American river towns, where she has not actually turned her water front over bodily to the railroads, has left it in a most inefficient primitive condition.

But the value of Pittsburgh's water front lies not merely in its use as a wharf, however much improved. A second lesson to be gained from the varied experiences of other river cities is that, in reconstructing the commercial water front on modern lines, there is generally opportunity to construct a wide marginal thoroughfare for the relief of traffic congestion in the adjacent streets. Sometimes such a water-front thoroughfare becomes a busy avenue of retail trade and general travel, but more usually its peculiar value lies in diverting some of the the main streams of heavy teaming from the older interior streets, where the retail trade and office business tend to concentrate and where the passenger travel is most dense. Especially with an isolated and restricted business district like that of Pittsburgh, made up almost wholly of narrow streets and connected with the rest of the city by a series of bridges and of bridge-like gaps in the hills which wall it in, becomes of the utmost importance to secure the formation of a wide-circuit street connecting these outlets together, so that not all the travel is forced to filter slowly through the midst of the business district.

A third undeveloped asset in the Pittsburgh water front is its value for recreation and as an element of civic comeliness and self-respect. One of the deplorable consequences of the short-sighted and wasteful commercialism of the later nineteenth century lay in its disregard of what might have been the aesthetic by-products of economic improvement; in the false impression spread abroad that economical and useful things were normally ugly; and in the vicious idea which followed, that beauty and the higher pleasures of civilized life were to be sought only in things otherwise useless. Thus, the pursuit of beauty was confounded with extravagance.

Among the most significant illustrations of the fallacy of such ideas are the comeliness and the incidental recreation value which attach to many of the commercial water fronts of European river ports, and it is along such lines that Pittsburgh still has opportunity for redeeming the sordid aspect of its business center.

Wherever in the world, as an incident of the highways and wharves along its river banks, a city has provided opportunity for the people to walk and sit under pleasant conditions, where they can watch the water and the life upon it, where they can enjoy the breadth of outlook and the sight of the open sky and the opposite bank and the reflections in the stream, the result has added to the comeliness of the city itself, the health and happiness of the people, and their loyalty and local pride. This has been true in the case of a bare paved promenade, running along like an elevaed railroad over the sheds and tracks and derricks of a busy ocean port, as at Antwerp; in the case of a tree-shaded sidewalk along a commercial street

with the river quays below it, as at Paris and Lyons and hundreds of lesser cities; and in the case of a broad embankment garden won from the mud-banks by dredging and filling, as at London. Pittsburgh has an unusual opportunity to secure this incidental value for recreation in the treatment of its river front. Immediately across the Monongahela are the high and rugged hillsides of Mt. Washington and Duquesne Heights, and below these are the lesser but still striking hills along the Ohio river from the West End to McKees Rocks. The outlook over the river, with its varied activities, to these hills immediately beyond, would be notable in any part of the world. Furthermore, the rivers and the hills are the two big fundamental natural elements characteristic of the Pittsburgh district. Thus, any provision close to the heart of the city whereby the people can have the enjoyment of these mighty landscapes is of peculiar importance.

It does not diminish the essential grandeur of the situation that the river swarms with barges and steamers, that it is spanned by busy bridges, that the flat lands along the rivers are crowded with railroads, buildings, and smoking factories, and that the hillsides are crowned with houses. It is a spacious and impressive landscape, in any case. But for the people to get the good of it two things are needful. A locally agreeable place must be provided from which the scene can be enjoyed; and the landscape must be treated with the respect which it deserves by the elimination of certain features which are merely indicative of neglect, waste, and abuse, and which have no economic justification. Especially is it desirable that the precipitous hillside rising to Mt. Washington, now largely an unfruitful waste, a place of raw gulleys and slides mingled with some painful advertising signs, should be treated with respect as a vital part of the great landscape of the city. It should be protected from defacement and its earthly portions reclothed with the beauty of foliage.

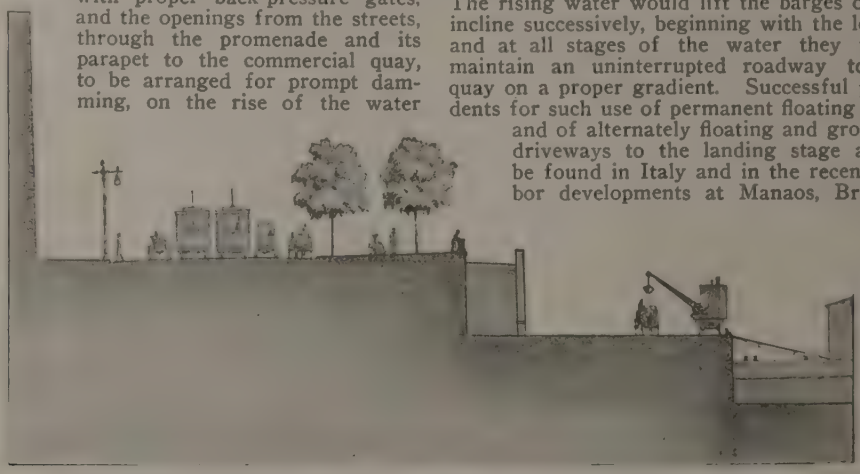
WATER FRONT.
Down river from Sixth street bridge.

The accompanying illustrations are suggestive of the sort of thing which might be done by Pittsburgh with its remaining public water front, and in time, let us hope, with portions of the water front which have passed into private hands; but the actual details of the treatment to be adopted can be properly worked out only in connection with the comprehensive plans for flood protection with which the Pittsburgh Flood Commission is now grappling. The technical problems involved in the control of rivers are among the most complex and baffling with which the engineering profession has to deal. Nevertheless, the experience of hundreds of cities and the work of thousands of engineers has developed certain types of treatment, one or more of which, with suitable local modifications, will pretty surely appear in the final solution of the Pittsburgh problem.

First, there should be an amply wide water front street, presumably formed by extending Water street and Duquesne Way over the upper part of the present sloping bank. Second, the outer sidewalk of this street should become at most points a tree-shaded promenade, of such width and with such equipment of benches and other features for public recreation as the circumstances permit, so arranged that the people using it will neither be in the way of the transportation activities nor be annoyed or endangered by them, and so designed that the people can enjoy to the full the natural beauty of the river valley and the always

interesting activities of which it is the stage. Third, there should be, next the water, a commercial quay, substantially level, of adequate but not unnecessary width, accessible from the streets by inclined roads of reasonable gradient, parallel with the river, in place of the present excessive slopes.

In the first typical section here given is shown one such arrangement. Here the level of the promenade is such that its solid parapet rises above the maximum flood level. This is of a type adopted for rivers that are subject to occasional excessive floods, as at Pittsburgh. It assumes the embankment to be made watertight; the sewers and drains to be provided with proper back-pressure gates, and the openings from the streets, through the promenade and its parapet to the commercial quay, to be arranged for prompt damming, on the rise of the water above the danger level. Thus would the entire business district be protected from floods, not only on the surface, but also in the basements. The quay shown on this section is supposed to be at a level just above ordinary navigable stages, and to be equipped with power cranes for direct loading and unloading between steamers or barges tied up at the quay, and wagons upon it. Provision could also be made for a freight track running in alongside the cranes for transfer between cars and vessels, if thought desirable, in addition to the facilities provided on railroad property. Alongside the quay, floating landing-stages for packets and so forth, reached by gang-planks or bridges, would be provided, as at present, but in a more decent and commodious style.



SUGGESTED WHARF SECTION: LOWER QUAY AND INCLINE FIXED.

This section is of a type tested by practical experience and is clearly a great improvement upon the present primitive conditions. But it is open to two objections: first, that the quay is flooded at intervals, although so designed as to suffer no injury, and to be put out of commmission only when the river is practically closed to navigation by the height of the flood; and, second, that at low water, that is to say "pool full," it is not at the most convenient height.

An alternative section is therefore suggested, which has less precedent behind it, but which might prove better adapted to the Pittsburgh conditions. In this the fixed level of the commercial quay is replaced by a continuous landing stage formed of long floats or barges of permanent construction, moored against the wall and free to rise and fall with the changing level of the river. The approaches to the floating quay for wagons would be, as in the case of the fixed quay, by descending inclines parallel with the river, just outside the main wall; but in this case the roadway would be a line of barges, which would rest on a fixed incline during low water. The rising water would lift the barges off the incline successively, beginning with the lowest, and at all stages of the water they would maintain an uninterrupted roadway to the quay on a proper gradient. Successful precedents for such use of permanent floating quays and of alternately floating and grounded driveways to the landing stage are to be found in Italy and in the recent harbor developments at Manaos, Brazil.

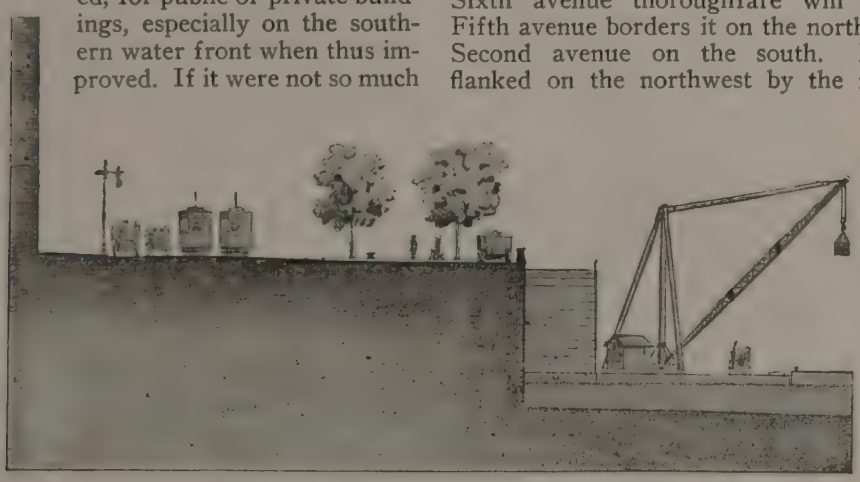
A great advantage of the floating quay is that in this type of construction the bed of the river may be excavated to its full depth back to the face of the flood wall itself, and that the space necessary for the commercial quay is secured on the floating structure outside of this line without materially reducing the prism, or section, of the flood discharge. It would therefore be possible, with this design, to secure more ample width for street, for promenade, and for commercial quay, and at the same time have more space in the river for the passage of the floods.

Whatever may prove to be the best details of the river-front treatment, it is clear that it can and should provide an ample thoroughfare, a clean, pleasant tree-shaded promenade, and a convenient, up-to-date wharf with easy access to and from the streets.

There is no serious difficulty in providing for such an improvement from the junction of the two bridges at the point to Ninth street on the Allegheny and to Smithfield street on the Monongahela. If the Baltimore and Ohio passenger station is removed from Smithfield

street it will be possible to continue the new water-front street and promenade east of Smithfield on a viaduct just outside of the present Water street, rising over the Baltimore and Ohio freight yard, and the grade entrances thereto at Grant and Ross streets, and connecting along the line of the Panhandle (Try street) with the proposed Second avenue bridge over the railroad and thence with Forbes street and Sixth avenue.

It is probably impossible for Pittsburghers who are familiar with the present neglected aspect of the water front, and who are not familiar with the finer European quays, to form any conception of how fine a situation will be created, for public or private buildings, especially on the southern water front when thus improved. If it were not so much to one side of the main streams of passenger travel, the river frontage between Smithfield and Ferry streets would offer a most admirable site for public buildings in the down town district.



SUGGESTED WHARF SECTION: FLOATING LANDING STAGE AND ADJUSTABLE INCLINE.

A CIVIC CENTER

The location of a civic center, where the city offices can be grouped in a convenient and dignified manner, ought to be such as to connect with the main transportation lines. It ought, if possible, to embrace the county buildings. It ought, if possible, to occupy land which is not of such high cost as to preclude the setting apart of the open space which is so requisite to the highest dignity and beauty of public buildings. All these advantages are embraced to a high degree in a locality now so unpromising and unattractive that it is hard not to feel an unfair prejudice against it.

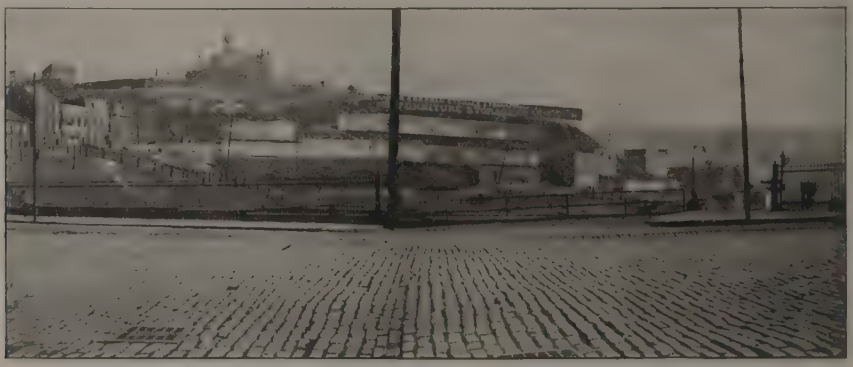
The locality in question lies to the east and southeast of the present county buildings. It embraces a bit of low ground occupied by the little Panhandle station and local freight yard, surrounded, except for the county buildings, by vacant lands and cheap buildings, at various higher levels, mounting on the east to the commanding ridge that dominates all this part of the city. Through this locality the Forbes and Diamond street thoroughfare and the South Hills and Sixth avenue thoroughfare will pass. Fifth avenue borders it on the north and Second avenue on the south. It is flanked on the northwest by the noble and distinguished architecture of the court house and the jail—masterpieces of Richardson, priceless examples of the work of one of the few great artists America has yet produced. To the west a new county building is about to be erected.

It is proposed that the central area of low ground, occupied by the railroad, be decked over at about the level of Fifth avenue, and that a great public square with gardens be laid out thereon, somewhat after the manner of the celebrated public gardens built over the railroad at Princes street, Edinburgh, or, in a smaller way, Park avenue, New York. Below, the structure would simply be a station and freight yard of permanent construction, with sky-lights and

ventilators, at suitable locations, piercing a flat roof of adequate strength. The cost of construction would be less than the cost of an equal area of land independently acquired for an open space in connection with a civic center in any locality that could reasonably be considered.

Along the east side of this square or garden, in the form of a gradually rising terrace, would run the approach of the new South Hills bridge, ascending gently from Forbes street; and on the east side of this again, as though terraced on the hillside, would be the principal municipal building culminating in a tower which would spring from the highest level at Bluff street. The pronounced and unnant and impressive works of man in the city—the steel works, the bridges and viaducts, the jagged sky-line of office buildings. To build a city hall and civic center of scholastic formality, appropriate in the placid conditions of Paris, would be to lose a great aesthetic opportunity.

In the neighborhood of the proposed civic center a number of street improvements ought to be made, most of which are related to the propositions above described, but all of which are independently desirable,—the elimination of the grade crossing of Second avenue with the Panhandle Road at Try street; the grading and widening of Sixth avenue to the dimensions of a main thoroughfare, the natural route from the Union Station, the



PRESENT CONDITION OF CIVIC CENTER SITE.

symmetrical differences in elevation, the slanting grade of the approach to the great South Hills bridge, the irregular and picturesque form of the site and of the existing county buildings, all seem to demand a certain informality and picturesqueness of design. These peculiarities of the site ought to be welcomed because they are eminently characteristic of the city and of the mountainous region in which it is set. Throughout the city and its surroundings the one pre-eminent quality of an agreeable sort is the bold picturesqueness of the landscape, the deep ravines, the lofty hills, the precipitous declivities, the plunging prospects from hilltops into the river valleys; and a similar quality of forcefulness, activity, and bold, irregular adaptation of means to ends, is to be felt in all the more domiadjacent freight yards, and all the Allegheny bridges to the districts fed by Fifth avenue, Forbes street, the South Hills bridge, and Second avenue; the extension of Grant Boulevard; and the much discussed elimination of "The Hump," the hill which hunches the central east and west avenues of the business district.

Between the Point district and the South Hills there is now urgent need for a thoroughfare connection of adequate capacity and on reasonable gradients. The South Hills country is sparsely developed as yet, but, being comparatively free from smoke and very near to the business district, it offers unusually desirable opportunities for homes, and it must soon be thickly settled. The need for a good thoroughfare to this region

will then be of far greater importance even than now.

Two plans for such a traffic artery are being considered—one by a new bridge to Carson street (probably from Ross street) and thence by a low-level tunnel to Bell Tavern in the bottom of Sawmill Run Valley; the other by a high-level slanting bridge and tunnel starting from Forbes street at Sixth avenue and reaching Washington avenue, in the South Hills, about at Haberman street. The former, at a distance of two miles from City Hall, reaches the bottom of a valley only a hundred feet above the Point district and some two hundred and fifty feet below the main residential areas of the South Hills region; whereas the latter, at the same distance from City Hall, reaches, at an easy grade (not over 3½ per cent) a point fully three hundred feet above the Point district and only fifty feet below the residential areas to be served.

It is reasonably clear that the end to be attained in this thoroughfare scheme is the *most direct* access possible on *easy gradients* to the *higher levels* of the South Hills country. For there can be little doubt that, even when building space is at a much higher premium than it is now, the overwhelming majority of the population will be found on the hills rather than in the narrow valleys. There are certain general tendencies which are observable, both in America and in Europe, in cities which have a large area of hill-top land separated by deep valleys. The hills are generally preferred for residential purposes, and the earliest roads or trails often follow the ridges, plunging down and climbing up again steeply to get from one ridge to another. The main roads in the second stage of development are apt to seek the valleys for the sake of good grades, with a corresponding development of the most active urban growth in the valleys and on the lower slopes, the hilltop development being retarded by lack of transportation facilities. Nevertheless the continued attractiveness of the uplands slowly builds them up, and as the wealth of the community grows there is an inevitable tendency to reduce the obstacles to ready connection between one hill district and another by raising the levels of the bridges which cross the intervening valleys. Bolder and bolder viaducts are built, until finally there is a complete and more or less independent highway system on the upper levels, and the major part of the residential district comes to be there too.

Obviously, therefore, every opportunity should be utilized to gain grade in the approach to the South Hills District by starting at a high elevation and wasting no distance in level stretches, if the most efficient thoroughfare artery to this district is to be secured. The best permanent means of reaching those upland districts, whether on one side of Sawmill Run or on the other, is not by a tunnel debouching in the bottom of the valley—say at Bell Tavern. This follows from the fact that the tunnel *can* reach a much higher level at a good gradient and with a shorter distance. And from this higher outlet point, a viaduct, high in the air above the Bell Tavern, would give direct access to the uplands of Beechview and Mt. Lebanon and southward, while streets of easy gradient would reach the uplands east of Sawmill Run. The high level tunnel, furthermore, will reach all the areas served by the low level, or Bell Tavern, route, and in addition can reach the other and more important lands on the hills which *cannot* be reached via the Bell Tavern route within a reasonable distance.

THE POINT

At the opposite end of the business district from the proposed civic center is another spot where the civic pride of Pittsburgh should lead the city to make liberal expenditures for other than the economic ends which justify the street improvements which are the main burden of this report,

At the end of the Point, where the two lines of water-front improvement would join, is a considerable area of public open space. Here is the spot where the Ohio river has its birth: here was built the fort which broke the peace of Europe and around which turned the frontier struggles of the war that gave America to the English-speaking race. It is here that all the most inspiring associations of the city are chiefly concentrated. Poetically, this spot, at the meeting of the rivers, stands for Pittsburgh.

DOWN THE RIVER FROM POINT BRIDGE.

Because the eastward drift of the business center has followed the eastward drift of residences, and the growth of business has not yet expanded back to fill the void; because the Point is left pocketed beyond freight yards, visited only by the throngs who use the old Point bridge; it seems to be rather forgotten and disregarded by most Pittsburghers. But its historical and topographical significance can never be altered, and it is to be hoped that the city will rise to its opportunity and nobly form the Point into a great monument.

The North Point bridge is about to be rebuilt; the South Point bridge is very narrow and some day must be rebuilt in its own turn. In the placing of these bridges, in every feature of their design and of the design and decoration of their approaches, the monumental element ought always to control.

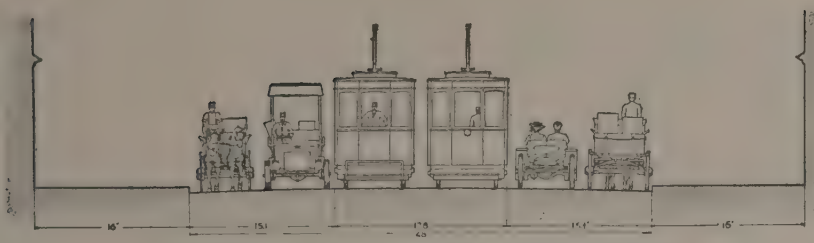
WATER FRONT.
Point Bridge from near foot of Pennsylvania avenue.

WIDTH OF THOROUGHFARES

In considering the economical widths for the main thoroughfares of a city, so many complex factors are involved that no exact and indisputable conclusions can be reached; but there are certain facts and principles that ought to remove such decisions from the realm of purely arbitrary whim and custom by which they are now generally settled. Practically every main thoroughfare even of the most compact type, must provide for car tracks in the middle. Without allowing any clearance on the outside, a space not less than eighteen feet, and preferably more, should be allowed for the actual cars on straight runs.

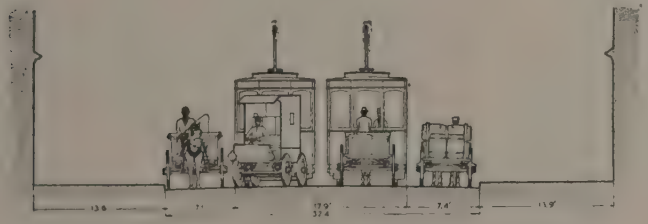
In Pittsburgh, the gauge of the car tracks was originally made to conform to the prevailing local gauge of vehicles on the mistaken theory that it was desirable to have the smooth tracks used by wagons, and this has resulted in the almost invariable conformity of the wagon gauge to that of the tracks, regardless of the size or character of the vehicle. With the added fact that Pittsburgh pavements are prevailingly bad, and that the form of rail is such that it is very difficult for a wagon to turn out when it has once got into the track, the teamsters in Pittsburgh are more inveterate in the habit of driving in the car tracks, and less ready to turn aside for cars or other vehicles than in most cities. The severe and constantly repeated strain of the horses which is required to wrench heavily-loaded wagons free from the track is, in the aggregate, a serious economic loss, and the delays not only to the street cars but to all forms of wheeled traffic caused by the conditions described are incalculably great. But even good pavements and the use of a grooved rail would not cure the trouble in Pittsburgh streets as now laid out, because almost universally, there is not sufficient room for a vehicle to pass between the cars and another vehicle standing or slowly moving next the curb.

In every street vehicles must be free to stop for loading and unloading, and on a busy thoroughfare the space next the curb is so much used in this manner as to become merely a series of sidings into which slow-moving vehicles can turn from time to time, in order to clear the main passageway. The result of the conditions above described is that practically the whole wheeled traffic in Pittsburgh streets is inevitably concentrated on the eighteen-foot width where the cars run. The extent to which this reduces the average speed of travel and the total capac-



LIBERTY AVE.—A SIX LINE THOROUGHFARE.

iy of the thoroughfare has been strikingly illustrated for Pittsburghers by the contrast of the former sluggish congestion of traffic on Smithfield street, with the sparse appearance and rapid movement of the same traffic since the "one-way" regulations have made it possible to get one free line in each direction for moving vehicles separate from the cars. The same striking increase in capacity is to be secured, without the grave inconveniences and drawbacks of the "one-way street" regulations, where the space between the cars and the curb can be made wide enough for two lines of vehicles, instead of just enough for one or for one and a half, as is usual in Pittsburgh.



FIFTH AVE.—A FOUR LINE THOROUGHFARE.

It is very difficult to determine just what is the most economical allowance of width. There is much variation in the widths of the vehicles themselves, and the necessary amount of clearance varies with the average skill of the drivers and with the effectiveness of the police control. The width of the line is plainly determined by the widest vehicles in it rather than by the narrowest. In Pittsburgh the customary width of the heavier and wider wagons is now controlled by the practical necessity of fitting the wheels to the railway gauge of five feet two and one-half inches, and the widths are considerably less than prevail in New York, Boston, and other reasonably well-paved cities where the wagons are not fitted to the car tracks. About seven feet over all is now the ordinary maximum in Pittsburgh, a few auto trucks and delivery vans exceeding that figure slightly, and an occasional three-horse team occupying over eight feet. In New York and Boston, wagons measuring from seven to eight feet from hub to hub are common, and they sometimes considerably exceed eight feet.

Just as in the case of steam and electric railway equipment, the tendency is constantly in the direction of heavier, wider vehicles, for the sake of operating economy due to large units; and, with the steady increase in the use of motor vehicles for business purposes this tendency is likely to be greatly accelerated. There is every reason to expect that motor trucks will gradually increase in size until a limit is fixed by the public authorities in order to protect the pavements, and for the sake of standardizing the lines of travel in relation to the street widths. But, in the interests of economy of operation, the limit should be as high as practicable, probably not less than eight feet.

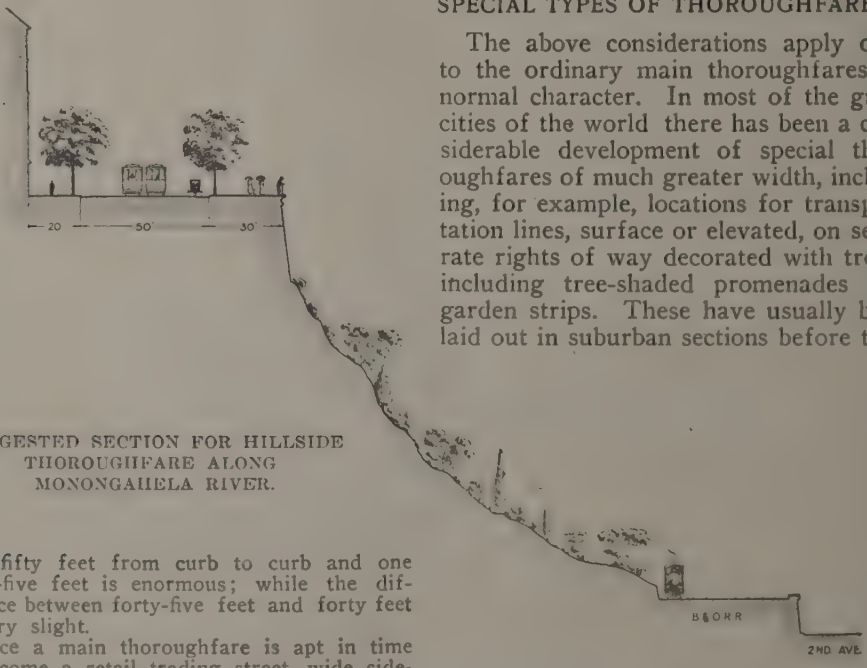
If eight feet be allowed for each vehicle, plus only a foot of clearance, the cars and one row of vehicles on each side between them and the vehicles standing at the curb would require fifty-four feet between curbs. A

EAST OHIO ST.—A TWO LINE THOROUGHFARE.

Of the 530 miles of main thoroughfares within a radius of seven miles of Pittsburgh's City Hall, less than one and one-half per cent have room for passage between cars and standing or slow-moving vehicles at the curb.

wagon backed up to the curb on a busy street will seriously discommode travel, at that, and the clearance allowed is very small. A width of fifty-four to sixty feet between curbs is, therefore, highly desirable in the main thoroughfares.

As a matter of fact, with the widths of vehicles which now prevail in Pittsburgh, if standing and slow-moving vehicles are compelled to keep in contact with the curb, it is possible to keep open a line of travel on each side of the car tracks, with only occasional blockades, where the width between curbs is fifty feet or, at a pinch, even forty-eight or forty-seven feet. That is to say, the difference in traffic capacity between a thoroughfare fifty feet from curb to curb and one forty-five feet is enormous; while the difference between forty-five feet and forty feet is very slight.



SUGGESTED SECTION FOR HILLSIDE THOROUGHFARE ALONG MONONGAHELA RIVER.

Since a main thoroughfare is apt in time to become a retail trading street, wide sidewalk space is important. It is a common rule to make the distance of the curb from the property line one-third the width of the roadway. In this connection, it is interesting to note the standard widths adopted in European cities. The standard in London is forty-eight feet between curbs, and eighty feet between buildings for secondary avenues, and 100 feet over all for principal arteries; and 140 feet over all is proposed for two great main arteries, the cutting of which through the midst of the city is being considered. In German cities of the second size, such as Leipzig, Frankfort and Hanover, the standards are as follows: for strictly local streets, thirty-three to forty-seven feet; for secondary thoroughfares, fifty to eighty feet, and for main thoroughfares, eighty-five to 118 feet. A Prussian law, in force since 1875, apparently drawn up to meet the requirements of Berlin with its heavier traffic, lays down the following dimensions for the laying out of new streets and for the alteration of old ones: local streets, forty to sixty-five feet; secondary thoroughfares, sixty-five to ninety-five feet; main thoroughfares, over ninety-five feet.

A total width of ninety feet, with a fifty-four-foot roadway, and eighteen-foot sidewalks, is a satisfactory minimum for meeting the practical requirements of an ordinary main-traffic street; a width of one hundred feet is preferable, and eighty feet may be regarded as a rather niggardly irreducible minimum.

SPECIAL TYPES OF THOROUGHFARES

The above considerations apply only to the ordinary main thoroughfares of normal character. In most of the great cities of the world there has been a considerable development of special thoroughfares of much greater width, including, for example, locations for transportation lines, surface or elevated, on separate rights of way decorated with trees; including tree-shaded promenades and garden strips. These have usually been laid out in suburban sections before they were much built up; or, if within the built-up districts, on the sites of old fortifications, canals, or other abandoned engineering works. The latter opportunities are lacking at Pittsburgh, except in connection with the river banks. In the suburban localities of Pittsburgh, so much of the available building land is topographically divided into narrow strips that it would be cut to pieces in an exceptionally uneconomical manner by any boulevards 150 to 300 feet in width, the type usual in flatter cities. Each must be laid out as a problem by itself, the principal objects in each problem being to select a tolerably direct line on reason-

able grades, and so to fix the side lines of the location that it shall be possible to meet the immediate needs by constructing an economical suburban road where it does not already exist, and ultimately to convert it into an ample urban thoroughfare with the minimum of cost and inconvenience.

As a general rule, any width to be secured for aesthetic purposes in connection with Pittsburgh suburban thoroughfares, over and above that needed for handling the expectable future street traffic, must not be in the form of a general and continuous widening. But occasional pieces here and there may be taken for park purposes, as, for instance, a steep sidehill adjacent to the line and unavailable or difficult for building, or a narrow ridge on which the thoroughfare runs, may have at one point so little available building land fronting upon it that the whole can reasonably be parked for a short distance, thus keeping open the distant views.

There are two special forms of street, developed here and there in hilly cities all over the world of which Pittsburgh needs to take account in its suburban developments. In many instances, and for long distances, existing suburban thoroughfares that must be enlarged and improved, and others that must be laid out, are compelled to run along the face of hills so steep that a street of level cross section, even though limited to eighty feet, would leave the land on one or both sides so far above or below the grade as to destroy its value for building purposes. In such cases it is often practicable to make use of one-sided streets or two-level streets. The former are designed to give accessible frontage on one side only, usually the up-hill side. The property on the opposite side is reached by the next street, which is laid out correspondingly nearer in order not to make the lots too deep. The width of such a one-sided street may be curtailed without reducing its thoroughfare capacity, because it is freed from local business all along one side. Bluff street, though not a thoroughfare, is an excellent Pittsburgh example of the one-sided street, and illustrates the great attractiveness which such streets often possess. In a two-level street a longitudinal bank or retaining wall is introduced in the middle so as to adapt it to the topography and bring each half of it nearer to the natural surface where the abutting property fronts upon it. Such a street must normally be wider than a single thoroughfare of the same capacity, the saving in construction and in the development of abutting land more than counterbalancing the cost of extra width.

Whatever radical changes may be made to improve the present, or safeguard the future, condition of the thoroughfare system in regions that are now rural, there remains a huge problem within the district where the street system has already crystallized into substantially its final form. Here increased capacity can, for the most part, be secured only by local improvements and widenings of existing thoroughfares.

STREET WIDENING AND THE LAW

Pittsburgh, in common with other cities in Pennsylvania, has a remarkable power, which is of the utmost importance in connection with the intelligent control of its street development, but of which it has not hitherto taken adequate advantage; a power that appears to be denied to the cities of every other state in the Union, although effectively used in some other countries. Pittsburgh may legally lay out a street in anticipation of a future need, and yet postpone entering upon the land for construction or for opening it to the public. Until the city legally enters on the street, the owner of the land has the free use thereof, and he receives payment only when the opening takes place; but if in the interim he shall have erected any structure within the limits of the proposed street, he will receive no compensation therefor when the street is opened. Although similar laws have been declared unconstitutional in other states, this provision has been sustained in Pennsylvania, and the power has been effectively exercised in numberless cases since the middle of the last century The procedure is to establish a building line, set back a certain distance from the street line, and to permit no new buildings to be erected in front of that line, but to pay damages only when the power to prevent the erection of a new building is actually exercised.

Fortunately, in Pittsburgh the building up of the street frontage with solid blocks of stores, apartments, and business structures, has at most points followed rather slowly after the earlier wave of detached dwelling houses, and a large proportion of the streets which are destined to be the main arteries of the huge future city are still lined by buildings which are set back at various distances from the street, leaving front door-yards between them and the sidewalk. Outside

of the down town district and a limited area in East Liberty, it is therefore possible to provide for the ultimate widening of these streets without the destruction

a set-back becomes inconvenient and undesirable, and one by one the buildings are either extended to the sidewalk by new additions, or new buildings are erect-

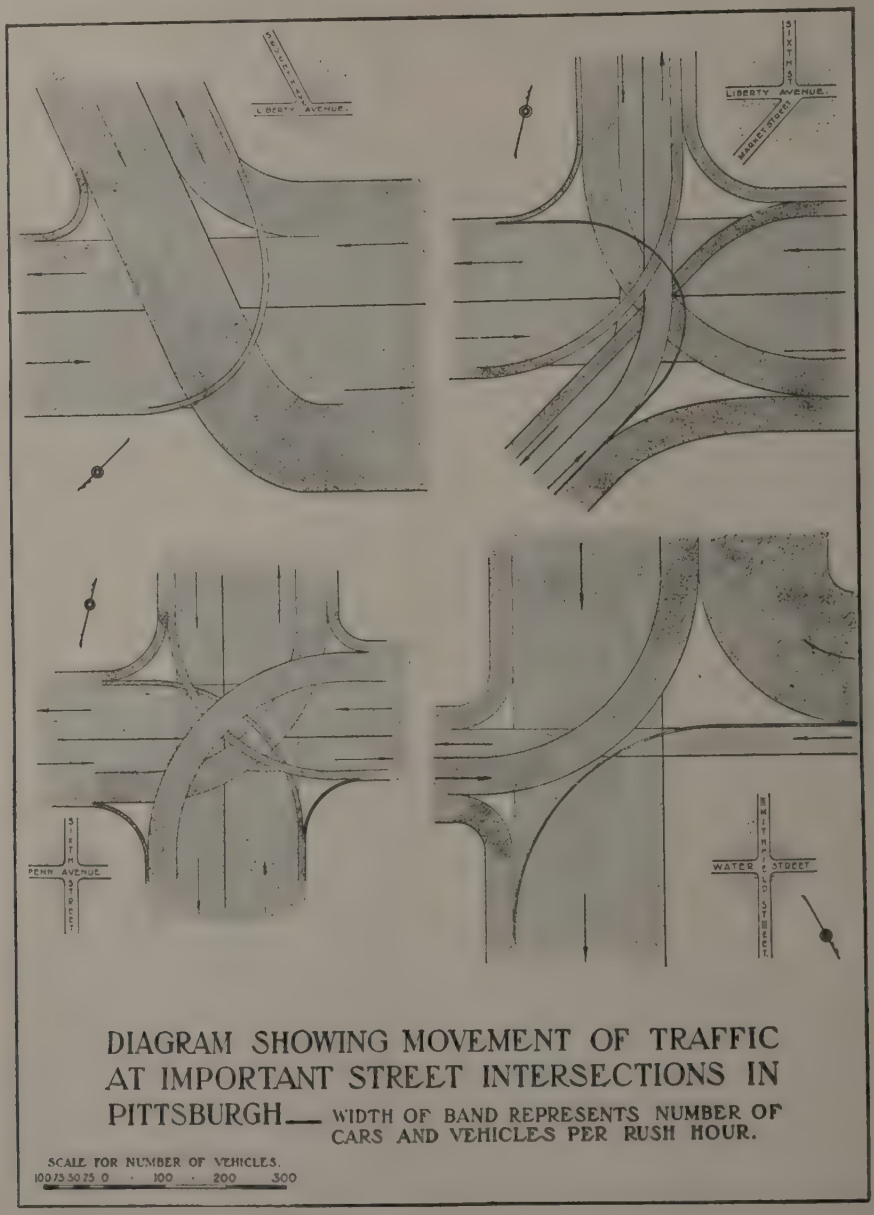


DIAGRAM SHOWING MOVEMENT OF TRAFFIC AT IMPORTANT STREET INTERSECTIONS IN PITTSBURGH— WIDTH OF BAND REPRESENTS NUMBER OF CARS AND VEHICLES PER RUSH HOUR.

of many valuable structures, provided the preliminary steps are promptly taken.

As traffic increases and the lots come to be used for business purposes, such

ed on the sidewalk line. Since the individual lot owner cannot move the street as a whole up to his building, he has to extend or move his building to the street.

His immediate purpose is thus served, and ultimately the whole row of buildings is thus advanced in response to changed conditions. But at just about the time when this process is fully completed, the volume of traffic flowing over the street is apt to have become so great that everybody recognizes the street to be too narrow for the increased traffic it has now to carry. The very advancement of a few buildings to the sidewalk line is a sign which points directly to the growth of travel and indicates that ample width will soon be needed in that thoroughfare.

If the street is one likely to have a considerable amount of through travel, it would be reasonable at once to lay it out wide enough to handle such travel; and the cost of the land taken for the widening would be charged, at least in part, to the abutters, who get, by the change, what many of them already want and what the rest will soon be wanting—direct frontage on a busy sidewalk.

A still wiser course of procedure would be to determine on the widening of these future main thoroughfares before any buildings have been advanced to the sidewalk line, and to establish building lines far enough apart to leave room for all probable future requirements; but to make no physical widening of the street until the growth of travel or the demands of the abutters call for shifting the sidewalks over to the established building line and enlarging the roadway to correspond. This is the invariable practice in Washington and in most well-conducted European cities.

It it the plan to some extent in New York, where just recently the sidewalks of Fifth avenue have been moved back against the building line on the space formerly occupied by stoops areaways, and dooryards. Pennsylvania avenue and Sixteenth street, in Washington, are both laid out 160 feet wide from building line to building line, although Pennsylvania avenue is an important business artery, and Sixteenth street is a residence street without heavy traffic and with no commercial business. On the former the wide sidewalks are in immediate contact with the fronts of the buildings, as is proper for a business street, and the roadway, with car tracks in the middle, is more than wide enough to carry all the traffic that can ever be concentrated on it Whereas, on Sixteenth street, the traveled portion of the street, including sidewalks and the space for sidewalk trees, is only eighty feet wide, and the remainder is occupied by front dooryards forty feet deep, which the householders are at liberty to fence and use almost as freely as if they owned them in fee simple. At the same time all the householders are protected against the premature action of any individual lot owner who might see a possible advantage in being among the first to bid for a commercial business by building a flat-house with stores under it out upon the sidewalk line forty feet in advance of the other houses. This is the sort of thing that is happening every now and then in Pittsburgh on streets where the great majority of the owners would prefer to have the set-back continued for some years longer. In Washington this crowding forward cannot be done; but when a reasonably large proportion of the owners on any street, or any block, are ready for the change, the front yards are abolished and the sidewalk is moved over into contact with the buildings. If a single owner wants to put in a store long before his neighbors are ready to give up their front yards and long before the city is ready to widen the street to increase its traffic capacity, he is of course at liberty to do so; but he must not move forward of the general building line. What he usually does is to abolish his own front dooryard and substitute an extra wide piece of sidewalk paving in place of it, sometimes using the space for outdoor stands, or show cases, to attract trade. He may even be permitted to erect light temporary structures, such as awnings, on the space between his main building and the present sidewalk line, under which, in good weather, he can do a very good business.

Philadlphia has applied this principle to street widening, as, for example, in the case of Chestnut street. Existing buildings covered most of the space between the building line and the street line, and the exercise of the power with the consequent accruement of damages occurred in each case only when the original building was torn down by the owner and he was required to set the new building back to the new building line.

The same principle is equally applicable to those cases where the existing buildings are mostly or wholly back of the new building line; the damages becoming due in such a case only when a building permit for the erection of a new structure encroaching on the designated open space is actually withheld.

The advantages of such a method of procedure, in the case of those highways where all, or nearly all, of the buildings are now set back from the street and where a widening will ultimately be needed, are obvious and very great. In a large percentage of cases, where the street is still mainly residential, the majority of the abutters would welcome the establishment of a building line for their own protection from inconsiderate neighbors; just as the majority of people will pay higher prices for lots in a neighborhood that is protected by properly drawn restrictions for setbacks,

BELLEFIELD.
Four Mile Run from Schenley bridge.

etc., imposed by a land company. In a great many such cases abutters could be induced to waive any claims for damages on condition that the building line should be applied to the whole street. Furthermore, the actual net damages to be paid would be distributed over a long period, and a considerable proportion of them, in many cases, could properly be assessed on adjacent benefited property owners.

When the actual physical widening of the street takes place, through absorbing the restricted zones on each side of it, the damages for land-taking will be comparatively small, because at that time most of the abuters will want nothing so much as that very widening, if only to bring the sidewalks in contact with the fronts of their buildings. But regardless of its clear financial advantages to the city of reducing its total payments for street widening, and especially in distributing the burden of that cost over a long period without running up a large bonded indebtedness and interest charges, the fundamental argument for this method of procedure is that it avoids the absolute dead loss to the whole community resulting from the destruction of valuable buildings. It is not practicable to avoid this in any other way and still accomplish the result of widened thoroughfares. Theoretically it could be done by a direct widening of all the highways in the ordinary manner if it were to be done promptly; but there are comparatively few cases in which there would be enough immediate advantage in the increased width to make the proposition attractive; and it is obvious that any such wholesale immediate action would involve a sudden and enormous financial burden which it is utterly impracticable for the city to assume.

If, after the gradual piecemeal process of widening at moderate and distributed expense has been begun, the city thinks it would prefer to have the process over and done with promptly, it is just as able to complete the widening immediately, by wholesale condemnation, as if the gradual process had never been entered upon. If the city begins on the gradual process it can always change to the other when it feels rich enough, or when the buildings on the old lines have become few enough; and in the meantime the erection of new and costly buildings, obstructive to the proposed widening has been prevented at comparatively slight expense. If the city does nothing pending such time as it can afford to make the widening at a single operation, the cost of the operation is liable to mount at least as fast as the city's ability to pay for it, and the time will never come.

There is, then, one course of action which overshadows in permanent importance and in urgency all other things that Pittsburgh could do at the present time for the improvement of its main thoroughfare system. That is to establish new building lines, at a suitable distance apart, along all of its present and prospective main thoroughfares which there is any prospect of being able to widen.

URBAN DISTRICT PROCEDURE

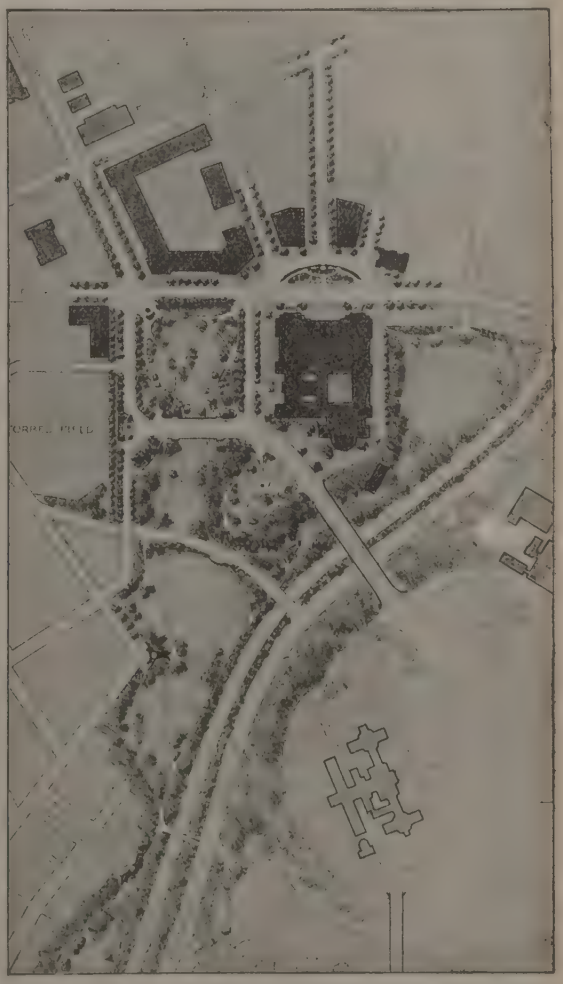
It is obvious that the flow of traffic moves regardless of the artificial boundaries of the city and the surrounding boroughs, and that if an efficient system of thoroughfares is to be envolved for the Pittsburgh industrial district it will be necessary to disregard those boundaries in planning it. This has been done in the preliminary studies which have resulted in this report, and the nceessity for it must control the form of any permanent organization for preparing final plans and executing them. If these duties are to be entrusted to officers of the city, and its boundaries remain unchanged, those officers must have authority from the Legislature to deal with territory beyond the boundaries of the city, as is the case in a limited way, in Wisconsin cities.

The simplest and most logical procedure, if the boundaries of the city and of the boroughs are to remain substantially unchanged, would be to establish a common agency for dealing with the general problems of city planning for all of

the municipalities and the related parts of the country outside of them. The constitution of Pennsylvania apparently prevents the formation of a special metropolitan board for the Pittsburgh industrial district, but general authority might be obtained under which the county could establish such a board. If the difficulty should be met simply by extending the boundaries of the city, it is important that the new boundaries should include not merely those areas which are now seen to have close physical relations with the city, but a great extent of territory within which the beginnings of urban or suburban growth have started, or are likely to start, during the next generation.

Whether the duty of planning and providing for the main transportation lines is made a city affair or a county affair, those who are charged with it should be free to go as far in any given direction as the demands of the traffic lead them. They should neither be limited by arbitrary boundaries in those directions where scattering but connected urban development may reach out furthest from the center, nor compelled to extend their operations to an arbitrary boundary in those directions where such development falls short.

In all this work a thing of greater consequence than any specific improvement, a thing of vital import to every taxpaying citizen of the present and future city, is the making of comprehensive and accurate topographical maps. It is only on the basis of such maps that all municipal engineering, and indeed much other work directly managed by the city, can be planned and carried out with proper economy and efficiency. It is only on the basis of such maps that improvements in the city—details of city replanning—can be most economically determined. And in the outlying districts, where the future city is being built, such maps are absolutely essential to an intelligent planning or control which will avoid the heavy penalties that follow haphazard city growth, especialy in such a hilly region.



Proposed plan for treatment of educational, civic and park district where the Carengie institutions, the Soldiers' Memorial Hall, various clubs, etc., are located, near the entrance of Schenley Park. This district is treated at length in the report and two possible plans are offered.

COALITION OF PITTSBURGH'S CIVIC FORCES

AN EXAMPLE OF THE PROGRESS AMERICAN CITIES ARE MAKING FROM AGGREGATIONS OF PEOPLE TOWARD ORGANIC COMMUNITIES

ALLEN T. BURNS
PITTSBURGH CIVIC COMMISSION

Pittsburgh, as a whole, is divided into three parts. One of these the South Siders inhabit, the second the old Pittsburghers, and the third those who in their own language are called Alleghanians, in ours North Siders. Would it be truthful to carry the parody further? Do all these, like the people of Caesar's Gaul, differ from one another in customs, institutions and laws? Are these three parts of Pittsburgh further divided, not into clans and tribes, but into neighborhoods, sections, localities which compete, contend and vie with one another? Does Pittsburgh thus lack a united front to face the inroads of a hostile Caesar, the ambitious and selfish designs of some present day, native Orgetorix, or the call to promote her own progress and common welfare?

So far as this parallel fits not only Pittsburgh's physical divisions, but also her civic sectionalism, local instead of communal interests, neighborhood instead of municipal spirit, she illustrates the typical problem of American cities. They have not distinguished between growth and overgrowth, between unification and enlargement, between development of united civic forces and increase in territory and population. Overgrown children only slowly gain command of their rapidly increasing powers and faculties and so become correlated, effective personalities. So cities, the local bodies politic, have grown so rapidly that they have been unable to weld into a working municipal unit their increments and diversities of population, interests and activities. The story of every American city is one of only gradual and partial achievement of civic self-consciousness, self-direction, self-command. American cities have not yet fully "come of age." They are still only "in process" of becoming correlated, effective individuals.

Cities are accustomed to represent themselves by supposedly appropriate personalities. But generally these characters possess anything but the sturdy, assertive qualities requisite for imperial civic achievement. They are decrepit old men, Father Knickerbocker, Father Penn, Lord Baltimore, Moses Cleveland, Father Pitt. Is it significant that such personifications are considered fitting? When cities reach their real majority may they not rightfully adopt new symbols? These new personifications will be rugged, powerful youths, dauntless, wise, and beautiful maidens. Across the breast of each may justly be inscribed a watchword of municipal intelligence comprehending the needs and interests of all citizens, a motto of a wise and determined purpose to attain civic justice. No city will rest till she may fairly image herself similarly to ambitious Chicago's robust empress of the prairies, the maiden "I will."

Pittsburgh with other cities is on the march toward this amalgamation of all elements and forces into a single corporate organism, a municipal personality. The march has been long, but is a record of triumphs over unusual forces of division and disintegration. To understand this progress one must know or review the factors that have set the problem. It is not unlike, and so possibly its statement will throw light upon the problem of other American cities.

The most considerable feature of the process is Pittsburgh's enlargement, growth in territory and population. In annexing new territory and welcoming prospective immigrant laborers, Pittsburghers have not stopped to ask whether past additions to the body politic have been well digested and assimilated. Size and bigness have been, in common with other cities, the first thought. But weight

and bulk are no more a sure sign of power in cities than in boys. In both overgrowth often goes with gorging beyond the assimilative possibilities. That the result is failure as yet to incorporate healthfully all her civic forces is no surprise.

To be concrete, here are tasks of integration which Pittsburgh has faced, due to natural growth, annexation, and immigration.

Total Increases in Pittsburgh's Population. U. S. Census.

Year.	*Population.*	*Increase.*
1860	49,221	2,620
1870	86,076	36,855
1880	156,389	70,313
1890	238,617	82,228
1900	321,616	82,999
1910	533,905	212,289

Growth of Pittsburgh by Annexation.

Date of Annexation.	*Total Area. Acres.*	*Annexed Area. Acres.*	*Population Annexed.* [1]
1. March 18, 1816 (Incorporated.)	320	320	6,000
2. March 1, 1837.	430	110	2,775
3. Dec. 15, 1846..	1,130	700	5,000
4. June 30, 1868.	14,788	13,558	21,308
5. April 2, 1872..	17,472	2,684	37,412
6. Dec. 1, 1894..	17,762	290	3,000
7. Mar. 1, 1898..	17,952	190	3,500
8. Jan. 2, 1905...	18,155	203	3,800
9. Jan. 8, 1906...	18,645	490	3,500
10. Jan. 7, 1907...	18,718	73	1,800
11. Nov. 21, 1907..	19,339	621	6,000
12. Dec. 6, 1907...	24,504	5,165	140,000
13. Jan. 6, 1908..	26,255	1,751	3,500
14. Jan. 4, 1909...	26,465	210	1,150

[1]Population figures estimated from Census and Resident Taxable Figures.

Increases in Population by Immigration.

	Total Foreign Born.	*Increase in Foreign Born.*
1860.....	[1]14,766	
1870.....	27,822	[1]13,056
1880.....	44,605	16,783
1890.....	73,289	28,684
1900.....	84,658	11,369
1910.....	[1]133,478	48,820

[1]Estimated.

These figures state the size and frequency of the meals Pittsburgh has swallowed and tried to digest. "Daddy" George ascribes the success of the George Junior Republic to the slow increase in the number of its citizens. He designedly allowed the community to grow at such a rate that at the end of ten years its population was only about 150. He has stated that this rate of growth was thus controlled because at no faster a rate could the republic assimilate new citizens and integrate them into its workings. Larger communities also need to study the limitations of their digestive powers. The city problem as here presented recognizes that there is a rate of growth beyond which the city does not integrate new elements into its body politic.

But bulk and number are not the only, if even the more difficult, factors in the problem of Pittsburgh's development of organic unity and power. Divisive and mutually repellent forces have been almost controlling at times. Pittsburgh has had to overcome a sectionalism in all forms.

As already mentioned, the very topography has tended to divide the city. No city in America, if in the world, has had such physical obstacles to overcome in securing free communication and access between its different parts. Rivers, hills, gorges, cliffs, and precipices cut the land into separate districts. The residents of one section have had great difficulty even to enter any other except the central business district. The natural barriers have been strengthened by such antiquated institutions as toll bridges on the main thoroughfares, a street car system with no through routes, and almost no transfers. This has meant a ten-cent carfare between most sections of the town. As mutual acquaintance, friendship, and understanding must underlie all co-operation, the prerequisites of municipal unity have been extremely difficult.

All "orthodox" Pittsburghers ascribe to Scotch-Irishism the vanishing, but still persisting, individualism of the city. Past failure in public spirit and in discharge of citizenship is explained, even palliated, by the plea that the people, being Scotch-Irish, could not have been expected to fuse, unite, and work for common ends. However true the explanation—and the writer as Scotch-Irish resents and rejects it—there have been many evidences of unusual "hanging together" or "flocking-apartness."

A few illustrations may be given. No field of effort has been more typical than the charities of the city. Pittsburgh has been so rich in the number of philanthropies as to claim to excel any other city of her size. Each wealthy family is said to have had a philanthropy which it especially fostered and promoted. And

regardless of the values of correlation and co-operation learned so well in their business, Pittsburghers persisted in wasteful duplication and rivalry in the virtue "that faileth not." Some thirty hospitals and dispensaries still compete with one another for support, both governmental and private, and even for patients to the extent of undercutting rates of rivals. Fifteen agencies employ independent visiting nurses with no districting of the city or correlated work. Attempts to form a city-wide nursing organization have failed, because of the refusal of present agencies to merge. In the past even the heads of settlements have been unable to find a medium for mutual council and co-operation.

Let the reader remember that this is a presentation of the situation out of which Pittsburgh is growing. But the extreme individualism of the old situation is seen in the fact that of all the large cities of the country Pittsburgh has been the last to organize an associated charities. Many were the unsuccessful attempts to bring the various agencies into this most effective of modern philanthropic institutions. And even now single charities refuse their co-operation or good will. Church federation is tabooed, and any suggestion of it in the ministerial union kills the project which smacks of it.

Yet some citizens state that this individualism has been the city's only political salvation. For the dominating machine of Pennsylvania has never run as smoothly here as in the City of Brotherly Love. Politicians have fought so much more among themselves that once in a while the public has come into its own through the disagreements. The Magee-Flinn falling out, the Flinn-Bigelow feud, the rival Browns, the Oliver-Flinn enmity have repeatedly made one faction ready to side with the independents and thereby enhance the latter's chance of success.

This territorial divisibility and unusual individualism have reflected themselves in the customs, civic organizations, and political institutions of the community. The names of the old boroughs annexed from time to time have persisted and are used almost as though they still designated separate governmental entities. In order to understand conversation or municipal questions one must know the names: Bloomfield, Lawrenceville, Oakland, East Liberty, Allegheny, Try Hill, Birmingham, West End, Beltzhoover and Allentown, as well as one knows the principal streets. And annexation of new territory has been by compulsion, not consent.

Nor are these mere names. The old community celebrations have continued. The sections have their own picnics. Lawrenceville long had its own Fourth of July celebrations because East Liberty did. The question of uniting for more effective observance was scarcely considered. The local names must be kept alive! Residents of the old city of Allegheny still resent the loss of identity suggested by the designation, North Side. Under the most of these local names have been organized energetic civic bodies. Each has been interested primarily and mainly in the improvement of its own community; hence the saying: "Any ward can be bought for a new sidewalk or a pair of wooden stairs." Local improvement has been the test of discharge of official duty. The street paving schedule has been the pork barrel of the annual budget. If the hill people "got theirs" their solid vote has been secured.

Recently one civic organization advocated that a city street in its district be given to a corporation. The officers of the society admitted that the policy was bad for the city as a whole, but was for the immediate benefit of the locality. This also suggests the precedence given personal business interests over municipal loyalty which has postponed the day of effective citizen co-operation in Pittsburgh as elsewhere.

Consequently it is not surprising that Pittsburgh has been the hot bed of flourishing ward politics. As in most other cities the councilmen, who still are chosen by wards, thrive through catering to local needs while indifferent or negligent where weightier concerns of the whole city are at stake. Note whole sections

of well paved streets, while these same streets with most other main ones have been given in perpetuity to the street car monopoly. But in addition to this common evil of ward councilmen, the very schools are controlled by independent ward boards. Sixty-one of these manage or mismanage the children's heritage, each in its own devious and peculiar way. There is not enough similarity and uniformity to permit admittance to high school upon certificate of graduation from grammar grades. Even justice is so diverse an interest that each ward choses its own local magistrate. Before him can be brought a case from anywhere in the city. His only concern need be that he pleases his "constits." Let him "soak' 'the fellow outside his district and his next election will be sure.

Somewhere it was written: "A house divided against itself cannot stand." "Old Abe" taught the nation the lesson through the stress of civil war, and Pittsburgh has paid her price in charitable waste and inefficiency, civic supineness and enmity, political crime and shame. Has she learned her lesson? She is a city ripe for Franklin's proverb: "We must all hang together else we shall all hang separately."

Pittsburgh has learned her lesson. Above all sectionalism, above all personal ambitions and pride, above past rivalries and enmities, Pittsburgh is rising to her task of united self-assertion for the commonweal of all. She is coming of age, she is attaining her majority. She will be typified by any one of her self-reliant, independent, strong-armed, clear-eyed, self-sufficient mill workers. They have made her industrial supremacy, she from them and for them is building her civic pre-eminence. This civic unity and consequent efficiency is appearing in all the fields in which her past sectionalism appeared and in others besides.

Popular gatherings and celebrations mark and express this growth of community feeling and spirit. Annual play festivals bring together the children of all sections and nationalities, whose interpretation of their varying lives and customs by games and dances increases mutual admiration and respect. The sesquicentennial of 1908 brought together in procession the fourteen principal nationalities in the city. It was arranged by the Chamber of Commerce, composed of business men who thus refuted the charge that business cannot be alive to the human element existing and indispensible to a city's growth. The participants in the fête vied with one another in displaying their worth and service to the community. "Romans lay your sewers" read one sign in the procession. Thus all caught a glimpse of their essential interpendence and common interests.

A year ago a demonstration, said to be the largest and most unique in the city's history, occurred. It was a mass meeting to protest against the spread of vice and to endorse the graft prosecutions. Three thousand citizens rallied when old residents predicted that not more than a corporal's guard could be stirred to express their civic interest to the extent of attending a downtown meeting. The gathering was of such a character as to be known generally as a town meeting, a revival of the days when all citizens took the time and interest to assemble to decide their community questions. This meeting is taken as the way mark of a new epoch in civic activity in Pittsburgh. The sequel justifies the statement.

Territorially Pittsburgh is recognizing her essential unity. The annexation of Allegheny in 1907 was compulsory, to be sure, yet a necessary step if the common community problems of health, police, transportation are to be adequately handled. The boundaries of the logical administrative area have not yet been made the boundaries of the city. But this expansion is considered seriously and may even be consummated within a year. Mayor Magee, in his inaugural of 1909, struck the note of one community, one government. He advocated the incorporation of a territory twenty miles in length inhabited by nearly a million people. Leading citizens of Pittsburgh are organized to effect this end through the present Legislature. There is serious opposition by the boroughs to be annexed. This opposition is based on criticism of

present city politics, yet recognizes the reasonableness, obligation, and necessity of union if the highest municipal life is to be secured.

The growing recognition of community of interest is seen in the nature and scope of municipal improvements now to the fore and in the method of their study. Annexation of all territory within what are termed the natural city boundaries is prominent among these. But the arguments for annexation are that municipal functions and activities must be performed for the whole territory if they are to be performed efficiently for each part. In this idea the Pittsburgh Civic Commission has lead. Its first important work was to retain Bion J. Arnold, John R. Freeman, and Frederick Law Olmstead to outline the investigations necessary to group the physical problems of the urban community. Their report covered transportation, thoroughfares, parks, water supply, sewage disposal, smoke prevention, and building regulations. Each subject was treated from the viewpoint of the needs of the whole district. Detailed studies have followed the preliminary report. Transportation, water supply, and sewers are being planned by the city for the entire community, irrespective of artificial legal boundaries. And Mr. Olmstead has just completed for the Civic Commission a report on a comprehensive system of thoroughfares to knit and connect more closely every section of the greatest industrial community of the country.

Thus physical barriers to solidarity are being broken down. The hills are being pierced with tunnels, ravines are being spanned with viaducts, bridges are being freed from tolls. The growing united demand of the citizens upon the street car company is: "One city, one fare, through routes, universal transfers." Thus will intercourse be promoted, separation overcome, and sectionalism destroyed.

To turn to the field of organized effort, the new co-operation in Pittsburgh finds a striking illustration in the Associated Charities. In little more than two years 105 philanthropic agencies, besides twenty-five churches, have become allied and represented in this philanthropic clearing house. Two notable secondary results have come of this union: a children's bureau for the correlation of all children's agencies, and a health conference to secure co-operation, instead of rivalry and competition, among the medical charities. Likewise, the settlements have united for conference and common action on such matters as concern all.

The fraternizing power of the common meal is being utilized. Workers in charities, education, and civics have united in a club meeting once a month for dinner, social intercourse, and only as much "shop" as is necessary to fool these serious people into thinking they are not being frivolous. The Hungry Club is a weekly lunch club of men. Any citizen is welcome to attend. There is no membership as yet. It has at each meeting a discussion of a current and urgent public question. Thus the function of a city club is being partially discharged. And the attendance has become so large that a committee is at work studying the possibilities of a permanent city club. So prevalent has the eating and talking together practice become, that the credit men, the Chamber of Commerce, the builders, and the real estate dealers are all utilizing this method and are generally discussing, not matters of trade, but public affairs. In fact, civic interest is so widespread that every propaganda organization has fewer available speakers than can meet the demand for civic information. Churches, clubs, brotherhoods, unions, and schools have been infected, as it were, with civic fever and fervor, and the newspapers have large spaces filled each day with accounts of "uplift meetings." A recent issue appeared with this headline: "Plans for Civic Uplift are Widespread. Dozen meetings held with view of obtaining improvement of conditions." And this report will be outdone in a week by sixteen meetings at least in one day.

The Pittsburgh Civic Commission has taken a unique way to promote this civic education. It has organized committees in each ward for the purpose of holding special meetings, spreading civic intelligence, and co-operating with all bodies to promote the understanding of public

questions. These committees have helped create an effective demand for budget reform. They are acting as the local committees for the new charter movement.

The most promising and significant evidence of the passing of the old individualism and sectionalism on the one hand, and of the integration of this new civic solidarity on the other, are the merging and co-operation of various commercial and civic bodies. Instead of every individual idea forming a new organization about itself for its own advancement, advance is being made by methods to harmonize, unify, and correlate all the good impulses of the community. In 1907 the two big rival commercial bodies became one, the old Chamber of Commerce and the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association formed the new Pittsburgh Chamber of Commerce. Since that time the organization has commanded the loyalty of the leading business men. In 1908 the Allied Boards of Trade organized. Board of Trade is the rather unusual name used by each of the fifteen local civic bodies whose original purposes were to secure improvements for their respective sections. They now have a means to pool issues, and are finding that each community is best served when progress is city-wide in its demands and results. With this body other organizations, which from their beginning have been city-wide in scope, are allying themselves, such as the Civic Club and the Civic Commission.

By working together these bodies are learning the strength of union. For special campaigns, organizations which have considered themselves rivals, or the one much superior to the other, have formed co-operating committees. The budget conference is one of these with more inclusive representation than has the Allied Boards of Trade itself. Its purpose is to secure proper presentation and discussion of city appropriations both within councils and among private citizens. The Civic Club of Allegheny County, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Civic Commission have merged their housing committees for the purpose of co-operating with city authorities in securing an advanced standard of sanitary regulation of dwellings. While men's organizations have been sticking to their claim of isolated superiority in municipal affairs, within the last month the Federation of Women's Clubs has brought together representatives of the most influential civic organizations and effected their united co-operation to secure a new school system in place of the antiquated ward schools.

The most important united action at present is the move for a new city charter. This is a direct outcome from the mass meeting of a year ago. That meeting called on all civic bodies to appoint representatives for recommending a new form of municipal government. All organizations quickly responded, formed a committee, threshed out all differences of opinion, and adopted a charter plan which was the consensus of all delegates. The plan has received the unanimous approval of the seventeen co-operating organizations. The latter have sent their representatives back to form a committee to remain permanent until the Legislature grants this united demand. This joint committee is now conducting a vigorous educational campaign for a charter which will make every elected official the representative, not of a section, but of the whole city.

Such is the progress which is being made in the coalition of Pittsburgh's Civic Forces. It is a progress in process, not completed. The centripetal forces are overcoming the centrifugal. In place of disunion and dissension harmony and co-operation are coming. The task of fusing and welding discordant, repellent elements into one organic, effective body politic is well underway. Against greater odds than have faced any other American city, Pittsburgh is attaining the power needed by them all. She is advancing from a disorganized aggregation of individuals to a self-reliant, self-directing community. As she undertakes the remaining problems of municipal progress she may justly be typified by a mighty mill worker. In the light of past achievements and as the city faces future tasks the fitting watchword for Pittsburgh the Powerful is the motto "I Can."

PRISONERS WORKING OUT-OF-DOORS.

Putting in cement foundations for a new building; laying tiles on a new barn—a plain, practical but sightly barn, such as a good farmer would build for himself; adding a story to the

A PRISONER SURVEYING FOR A NEW BUILDING.
In the background is the cell-house, built by prisoners.

WITZWIL, A SUCCESSFUL PENAL FARM

FRANK A. FETTER
PROFESSOR OF ECONOMICS, CORNELL UNIVERSITY
MEMBER NEW YORK STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES

In this day, when imposing prison architecture has lost its novelty to the student of penology, a simple farm used as a penal labor colony in the Canton Berne, Switzerland, has visitors from all parts of the world. Edmond Kelly of New York, author of The Elimination of the Tramp,[1] visited Witzwil in 1906 and wrote in the visitors' book: "The best of the labor colonies I have seen; far ahead of those in Belgium and Holland." Edith Sellers, an English authority on European social work, wrote in 1908: "The best of its kind that I have visited." Because of the present active discussion of the plan of farm colonies in America, and especially in New York state, it is perhaps worth while to report the impressions gained last summer at Witzwil in repeated visits made to discover the secret of the unique success this institution has attained.

The Witzwil farm consists of 2,000 acres of level moorland, a part of a tract redeemed from the waters of Lake Neuchatel a generation ago by an intercantonal drainage enterprise. It is still flooded at times of very high waters. Good gravel roads traverse the fields. No fences, walls, or signs tell the visitor when he has entered the prison grounds. Here and there may be seen substantial farm houses, each with a large, plain, practical barn. A paid farmer lives with his family and four working prisoners at each of these outposts ("courts") where about thirty cows are kept. In the center of the farm is a group of buildings including the director's (warden's or superintendent's) house, a cellhouse, and large barns and workshops.

After this land had been drained it was owned and cultivated by a large private agricultural corporation. The company did not prosper; its property came into the hands of creditors, and drainage assessments due to the Canton Berne were in arrears. To collect a bad debt the canton took the land. For the first few years the cantonal workhouse nearby supplied the labor needed, while old buildings were being repaired and new ones erected. In 1895, however, Witzwil was made a penitentiary farm under separate management. Since then other buildings and new roads have been made, and a large area of pasture lands in the Simmental Alps has been acquired for summering the young cattle.

This farming enterprise in which most of the work is done by prisoners has

[1] The Elimination of the Tramp. By Edmond Kelly. G. P. Putnam's Sons. New York. 1908. Pages, 111. Price, $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.06.

BUILDING A ROAD.

The men in white blouses are employes—there are no idle guards at Witzwil.

proved to be a good business investment for the canton. There has been expended by the canton, all told, for land $200,000, for building material $100,000, and other cash advances (net, after deducting the so-called rents paid to the canton), $50,000, a total of $350,000. The present worth of the whole plant (land, buildings, stock, cash fund) is at a low estimate $550,000, an average gain for the time the institution has been in full operation of over $13,000 a year.

An inventory valuation is somewhat a matter of opinion and the rise in the price of lands accounts for part of this increase. But let us look at the account for 1909, which is fairly typical. In any comparison we must take account of the peculiar practice of the canton in giving a nominal, or apparent, cash appropriation to be used for new construction, but charging rent for land and buildings on the basis of four per cent rental, sometimes to an amount exceeding the appropriation. What would American institutional managers think of that? Last year Witzwil paid to the canton a net cash sum of $1,000 (excess of the rental above its appropriation) and expended a net sum of $7,000 for materials in new construction, paid all expenses of the institution, including salaries and insurance, and laid away a reserve of $9,000 for building a railroad on the grounds. In 1908 it paid the canton $1,000 and expended $10,000 for new materials. In 1907 it got from the canton about $1,000 net but expended $24,000 for new materials. While the care of the 200 (sometimes over 250) prisoners is without cost to the public, the actual outlay on new buildings and equipment has amounted to a good return on the investment in grounds and buildings. Yet this has been done without the lease or the contract systems of labor, and with no injurious competition with, or protests from, free labor. Within the last year the land has at length been brought fairly under cultivation, so that it would seem that the results in the future would be still more favorable.

In view of such facts and figures, the interesting question is, how was it done? The most obvious answer is, by good management. Otto Kellerhals was but twenty-four years of age when he entered upon this work in 1891, becoming director, in full charge, in 1895. He was a practical Bernese farmer boy with an education. Graduated at the cantonal agricultural college at Berne, he attended the famous institute in connection with the University of Halle, Germany. He was versed in the new agricultural science and he knew how to put good theory into practice. He is a quiet, plain man who reads widely and works with his hands. He thinks, schemes, dreams of Witzwil, but he finds time to go out wheeling with his four boys. His wife takes charge of the institution in his absence and is at all times a helpful coworker in the administration.

The answer to our question, however, must be found not alone in the director's ability, but in his use of it, in his spirit and in his plans. Light was thrown

on these by a remark of Mr. Kellerhals: "A superintendent should manage his institution as if it were his own farm. The buildings are for use, not for show. They should be just what a good farmer would put up; the workshops and machinery should be just what a manufacturer would choose for the same purpose." This proposition may sound like a truism; but would not its application work a revolution in many an institution? It is not only that buildings and equipment have been in practice too expensive and elaborate, but also that many officials and citizens hold the very different theory that a penal institution is a place where labor ought to be wasted.

Consider, for example, Director Kellerhals's policy as to the use of machinery. Here we saw a row of American mowing machines, there an automatic potato digger built on the farm; here electric motors in the machine shops, there an automatic bread-mixer enabling one prisoner to do all of the baking for the institution; here the best laundry machinery, there a model creamery through which passes the enormous product of the farm. These things were far more remarkable because of the exceedingly slight use made of labor-saving machinery on private farms in Switzerland. It was a sight to delight an American, but not so the Russian prison official who was that day making a study of Witzwil. In the Russian prisons, as he said, everything is done by hand. The hand-work policy is followed on principle in the otherwise excellently managed prison system of Prussia. In visiting other Swiss institutions I had just been hearing various arguments (not needing to be repeated here, as they are not unknown in America) in favor of excluding machinery from institutions. It is evident that Director Kellerhals is not uttering a truism or practicing a commonplace in Europe. He does not cherish the official fear that the prisoners will be without occupation. "There is always work here," he said, "there is never any labor to waste"; and he ran over a list of plans he has in mind for the improvement of the great estate in the next few years. This does not mean, as I understand him, that all these things could be done profitably with free labor; it means that he believes in using in the most productive way open to him the labor force put into his charge by the state.

In its variety of occupations and products Witzwil is a challenge to any other institution of its size anywhere. Convicts have helped draw the plans of the buildings, and have built them all with a minimum of supervision, and out of the raw materials. Structural steel, iron plates, and steel rods are bought in straight, plain pieces to be cut and shaped in the Witzwil shops to many uses. The cellhouses are of cemented stone, without steel in the walls, yet only one man has ever dug his way out. The doors are of heavy wood, and all hinges,

THE NOON HOUR AT THE GRAVEL BANK.

Two miles from the institution but there are no balls, chains or stripes--and but few escapes.

OTTO KELLERHALS, THE DIRECTOR.
He thinks, schemes, dreams of Witzwil, but finds time to go wheeling with his four boys.

locks and grates were forged by prisoners. All plumbing, wiring, tinning, roofing were done by convicts, even the making of the lightning rods. The convicts made all of the furniture that is in the cells and in the offices. They made all the stoves out of flat iron plates. They make all the field tools, rakes, hoes, shovels, picks, baskets, brooms, brushes, boxes, barrels, besides a number of complex farm machines. Most remarkable of all, they make excellent wagons and carriages in various patterns, not merely assembling the parts, but with the exception of the springs forging all of the metal parts: tires, rims, steps, in the blacksmith shop from plain rods, and shaping the woodwork in some cases from logs cut in the forest. These things are not made to show what can be done regardless of expense; a careful cost-account is kept of every article to determine what it pays best to do.

All these and the other industries are, after all, but auxiliary to the main industry of farming. Five-sixths both of the gross and of the net industrial receipts are from agriculture. Yearly there are sold $20,000 worth of cattle and hogs, $12,000 worth of milk, and $40,000 worth of other agricultural products, and through the winter 400 hogs and 800 neat cattle are kept. Agriculture is the paramount interest and—here is another feature of the Witzwil system—everyone is helping to farm. When the weather is fine the shops are all but deserted, and so far as possible, every one, free or convict, from the director to the last prisoner, is out in the fields. It is the Witzwil policy to have the tailors and the shoemakers make hay when the sun shines, for so they are worth more to the institution than making clothes and shoes. "Besides," said the director with a smile, "the days they pitch hay they need no other exercise." On the other hand, almost any work pays on bad days rather than to have prisoners idle in their cells. At such times the shops the busy places. In the trades of basketry, hat-weaving, saddlery, woodworking, iron-working, tailoring, shoemaking, book-binding, etc., the number of working days per month, as shown by the official figures, is twofold to manifold as great in the winter as in the summer. Other large labors are so far as possible crowded into the winter and early spring months, an adjustment favored by the mild winter climate. Such labors are house and road building, drainage, peat-cutting, forestry, and melioration of the soil.

Is the unusual variety of industries at Witzwil due to a superior quality of the inmates compared with those of other institutions? No evidence of such a fact appeared. To Witzwil are sent men sentenced for the first time for felony (the English word most nearly corresponding) for less than three years, whether they are young men or old. Many have served time in minor institutions or have been convicts in other countries. A large proportion have been chronic drinkers. Only ten per cent have had more than primary school training. When a skilled man comes, his skill is used, not wasted. The surveying for the new buildings, roads, and new railway, is being done by a convicted engineer, and the complicated calculations of materials and costs are being made by a convicted

banker, a victim of the American panic of 1907—at least that revealed his peculations. Switzerland has not as yet put the indeterminate sentence into practice, and the average term of the Witzwil inmates is short. One-half of them serve less than six months, four-fifths, less than a year, and only one in twenty serves over two years. A more shifting and unpromising labor supply would hardly be found in any American prison or penitentiary.

On its material and financial sides Witzwil is in many respects a model. What as to its equipment and agencies for reforming the prisoners? Here, it must be confessed, something is lacking. Not only is there no school for the almost, or quite, illiterate prisoners (many of whom are young), but the intellectual stimulus in other ways falls short of good modern reformatory standards. But this said, the criticism is about spent. The conditions of physical health are so excellent as to make a citizen of the state of Sing Sing feel very humble. The simple, dry, light cells, built in one story along a central hall, and with outer windows opening directly to sun and air, are architecturally and hygienically much superior to those at Elmira. The food is bountiful and varied, and the clothing, both in winter and in summer, excellent for its purpose. There is no prison pallor on any face in Witzwil. Some motive to ambition is given by grouping the prisoners in three classes with three grades of wages, small sums each month which are sent to the prisoners' families or kept until the sentences expire. The different classes have also differing privileges, including for the more trustworthy that of living at the farm houses in semi-liberty. Punishment plays a small part; tempers keep sweet better out-of-doors. There are ten solitary cells which I inspected, but none of them had been occupied since weeks before the time of my visit.

Whatever merit of a reformatory nature Witzwil has consists in its teaching of the hard lesson of regular toil under healthy physical conditions. The spirit of work, so far as I saw it, is remarkable. This is fostered partly by the policy of giving responsible tasks to prisoners without oversight, and partly by another noteworthy policy, that of keeping no idle guards at Witzwil. The paid employes all work with the prisoners, setting an example of industry. The combined moral and financial advantages of this plan are self-evident; every guard earns his salary in the increased product, and as the convicts come they are put to work under good paid workers from whom they learn. It may well be that Witzwil is a better practical school of agriculture and the trades than some reformatories with a showy educational equipment.

An essential part of the Witzwil system are the homes, in the neighborhood, for unemployed men. The little colony of Nusshof, belonging to the institution, can give employment to ten liberated convicts at a time, until they can again get a foothold in the world. Tannenhof, conducted by a private society, at the border of the Witzwil farm, can house and give work to forty men at a time. It shelters many former inmates of Witzwil, and is a haven to which they later

MAKING SHOES AND CLOTHING.

The baskets, tables, benches, chairs and the building itself were made by prisoners.

return when hard pressed by temptation and by unemployment.

With the large liberty enjoyed by many of the prisoners, and with the nearness of the French border, ever in sight, there are on the average each year about seven escapes, and of these two are not recaptured. Most of the attempts are made by foreigners.

Many of the men in Witzwil are such as in America largely recruit the army of tramps. Most competent officials whom I consulted in Berne agreed that in the canton the tramp problem, as we know it in America, no longer exists! Other influences (especially the wayfarers' lodges) have helped to produce this desirable result; but Witzwil doubtless has done its share, along with smaller and less distinctive institutions shaped somewhat on the same lines. Witzwil teaches an impressive lesson in its proof that dissolute and untrained prisoners may be made industrious and self-supporting in an open-air prison colony, and it challenges America to a trial of the same plan. Witzwil has its lesson further for all American public institutional management, whether correctional or charitable, in its economic use of labor, in its union of agricultural and manufacturing industry, and in its outdoor work for adult men in an unwalled institution.

Could the plan of a farm labor colony succeed in New York as well as in Switzerland? When this question was put to Mr. Kellerhals he at once replied: "It should succeed better. In Europe land is dear and labor is cheap; in America land is cheap and labor is dear; and labor is the factor of production which the prison has in abundance."

A large state such as New York, with fifteen times the population of the Canton Berne and twice that of all Switzerland, would have the economy resulting from size in an institution. In a thoughful paper (not yet published), to be presented to the Swiss prison society, Mr. Kellerhals has shown that a larger institution could be more economically managed.

A further advantage over the Swiss institution could easily be had in New York with its precedents and present public opinion, by the application of the indeterminate sentence to habitual drunkenness and vagrancy. Such a change, favorable to the welfare both of the public and of the pitiable victims of vicious habits, would, by giving to the institution a more stable working force and a longer period for training, promote greatly its financial as well as its reformatory success.

Finally, Witzwil, remarkable as it is, can be surpassed in America, if to its economic merits can be added the best modern reformatory discipline. The opportunity awaits the progressive state that will found such an institution, and the able management that will guide it to success.

NEW INDUSTRIAL BUILDING NEARING COMPLETION.
Better machinery and equipment here will increase the economy of the whole farm.

THE HOUSING AWAKENING[1]

V

THE HUDDLED POLES OF BUFFALO

FREDERIC ALMY

Secretary Buffalo Charity Organization Society

The Poles of Buffalo live in a sort of social Sahara. Their infant death rate is excessive, and the proportion of Poles exceeds all others in the juvenile court and at the city poor office. It has recently been shown that ninety-six per cent of those under investigation earn less by $110 than the $634 a year which the Charity Organization Society of Buffalo stands for as the lowest tolerable budget which will allow the bare decencies of life for a family of five.[2]

It is not generally known, perhaps, that among Buffalo's 80,000 Poles there is not one settlement house, not one city playground (though land has now been bought for one), and but one day nursery; that, according to our Polish Survey, there are twenty teachers in parochial schools who do not speak English at all, or speak it too poorly to use it in teaching. The Polish community is almost bare of the modern social work so rife elsewhere in Buffalo. Such work could create a Polish opinion which would refuse to tolerate the huddled living which keeps the Poles down. It might reduce the Polish census; but is it better to have 80,000 near the foot of the ladder or 40,000 climbing rapidly?

Even as it is, the Poles are climbing. They have two daily newspapers; 4,000 families, representing 20,000 people, own their own homes; 5,000 of them have deposits in the savings banks, amounting to over $2,500,000; and they own taxable property worth $12,000,000. It is a wonderful record, under a heavy handicap of social neglect. They are thrifty, they are clean, they are willing, and they are neglected. They are raw material of the first value, undeveloped and wasting.

Nearly all the Poles live in small one-story and two-story wooden cottages. The new cottages are mostly two stories, with accommodations for six or more families, but the older type is a one-story cottage, so built that it is adapted to four families, though the owner is apt to occupy two of the rear apartments.

Today there are in Buffalo 80,000 Poles, which is one-sixth of the entire population, and their 15,000 cottages are all under the tenement law, which is administered by a Polish health commissioner, Dr. Francis E. Fronczak. He is new in office, but bids fair to be the best health commissioner Buffalo has ever had, even Dr. Wende not excepted. It is in his power to do much to release his people from the conditions which have held them down. Good health work means not only protection for the rich, but salvation for the poor who cannot, like the rich, escape from their surroundings. Dr. Fronczak has the opportunity to save more lives in Buffalo than even Dr. Pryor has saved through his tenement and tuberculosis work, or than the mistakes of a thousand doctors in private practice could destroy.

The tenement law has not yet been effectively enforced, but there have been good efforts. Twenty-eight years ago, in 1882, the tenement committee of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society secured some tenement ordinances, and ten years later the same committee made an elaborate report which led to new and more stringent ordinances in 1894.

[1] A series of articles describing housing conditions in typical American cities, large and small, East and West, and the efforts being made to improve these conditions. Published with the cooperation of the National Housing Association. I. Introduction, by Lawrence Veiller, THE SURVEY, November 19, 1910, price 10 cents; II. Socialists and Slums—Milwaukee, by Carl D. Thompson, December, 3, 1910, price 25 cents; III. The Awakening of a State—Indiana, by Albion Fellows Bacon, December 17, 1910, price 10 cents; IV. Housing Reform in Cold Storage—Boston, by Edward T. Hartman, January 21, 1911, price 10 cents.

[2] See THE SURVEY, for June 4, 1910, pp. 370, 379.

Good work was done by this committee in enforcing these ordinances, and as a result Buffalo has no such serious structural conditions in its tenements as most large cities have.

Instead of now sowing, we are reaping. The sowing was done long ago by Dr. John H. Pryor, of later tuberculosis fame, and by William A. Douglas and Williams Lansing, who served later on Roosevelt's Tenement House Commission.

Photo by Hare

A PHILOSOPHER CARELESS OF APPEARANCE.

Our chief evil today is room-overcrowding, and here the city ordinances of 1894, which required 600 cubic feet of air for each occupant, were better than the present state law of 1901, which requires only 400 cubic feet. The ordinance is still effective, and is expressly not repealed, but the state law has practically supplanted it.

In 1905 Messrs. Pryor and Douglas of the tenement committee of the Charity Organization Society started another tenement crusade, and for a year or two the town was "tenement mad," as one of the newspapers put it. Revolting details of nasty plumbing were in the daily press. Dr. Van Peyma and George W. Gillette of the same committee followed up the work. The health commissioner, Dr. Greene, gave his full support, and in one year 200 buildings were altered or reconstructed. These were mostly in the Italian quarter for the poorer Italians have run to old hotels, warehouses, and abandoned homesteads, while the Poles have kept to cottages. As late as 1906 we found Italians living in large rooms, sub-divided by head-high partitions of rope and calico, with a separate family in each division.

The state law is certainly drastic. All new or altered tenements must be certified as O. K. by the Health Department, and without this certificate tenants cannot be compelled to pay rent, city water can be turned off, and any mortgage is immediately foreclosable. The city has turned off water several times, and has used the eviction clause with great success. In the old United States Hotel, which was converted into a tenement house, the landlord refused to make necessary, but costly, changes. We told the tenants to stop paying rent, and he could not evict them. The result was that radical changes were made with the tenants still in the building. The welter was indescribable, but there was no unnecessary delay.

As Dr. Pryor has said repeatedly, night inspection is far more effective than day inspection to detect overcrowding, and nothing less than night inspection is adequate. Moreover, until this year there were but three tenement inspectors in Buffalo, and even now there are but nine.

Photo by George J. Hare, Buffalo

OVER THE HOUSE TOPS IN WINTER.

Photo by Hare

THE EVENING MEAL.
Husband and wife and two boarders in a Polish home.

Photo by Hare

THE PRESSURE OF EXISTENCE.
Ten people in four rooms and six beds.

What can nine inspectors do in a city where the large tenement hardly exists, and where there are 15,000 tenement houses, under the three-family law, in the Polish section alone?

In 1902 we found one small two-story cottage in the Polish quarter, on Mills street, which housed sixty people. Of course it was photographed for the Sunday papers with its whole population standing in front of it. Nothing of this sort exists today, but as Mr. Daniels's Polish Survey has abundantly shown, the overcrowding is still serious and dangerous.

Counting little bedrooms, living-rooms, and kitchens (and they are pretty nearly indistinguishable), Mr. Daniels tells us that half the Polish families in Buffalo, or 40,000 people, average two occupants to a room. There are beds under beds (trundle beds, by the way, were once quite respectable), and mattresses piled high on one bed during the day will cover all the floors at night. Lodgers in addition to the family are in some sections almost the rule rather than the exception. Under such conditions privacy of living, privacy of sleeping, privacy of dressing, privacy of toilet, privacy for study are all impossible, especially in the winter season; and those who have nerves, which are not confined to the rich in spite of an impression to the contrary, are led near to insanity. Brothers and sisters sleep together far beyond the age of safety. It begins so, and parents do not realize how fast children grow, or how dangerous it all is.

What is the remedy?

Enforce the tenement law. Public opinion stands for it, and only public inertia stands in the way. Night inspection will prove the overcrowding, though mere day inspection will prove it also. These cottage tenements lack some of the evils of tenements elsewhere, for there are no dark rooms, but nevertheless they handicap life. The Poles will never come into their own in Buffalo until they stop this huddle. The word is not mine, but Mr. Veiller's, but it is descriptive.

To stop the overcrowding will of course raise rents. Two families in a cottage must pay more than four or six families in the same cottage. With the wages they get the Poles cannot afford the rents they pay now. If rents increase many will go back to Poland, as they did by thousands in the recent panic years. This would make a dearth of labor and raise wages. The employers will seek to bring in a lower grade of people, as in the steel plant at Lackawanna, just over the city line. If an efficient health commissioner insists on American conditions for these people, the standard of living will be sustained and the standard of wages also. If the high wages continue, the employers, and possibly some of the consumers, will not have pretty things to say of Dr. Fronczak, but the Poles will; and the community will owe him a debt it can never repay.

As I have said elsewhere, we want to give our foreign population an American fair chance, and then compel them, literally compel them, to live like Americans. We shall not have good citizens otherwise for our universal suffrage. The children of the poor do not need charity so much as they need opportunities. You cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear, and you cannot make an American citizen out of a tenement slum. The slum must go. If you spare the slum you will spoil the child.

HOME WORK IN THE TENEMENTS[1]

ELIZABETH C. WATSON

SECRETARY OF THE WORK AND WAGES COMMITTEE OF THE CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

Photos by Lewis W. Hine

THERE WAS A MAN LIVED IN OUR TOWN
AND HE WAS WONDROUS WISE,
HE WANTED FOLKS TO WORK AT HOME
AND SO HE ADVERTISED.

THEN WHEN HE SAW THE PEOPLE COME
IN CROWDS UNTO HIS DOOR,
HE SAID, "I'LL GIVE MY WORK ALL OUT,
I NEED A SHOP NO MORE."

(*From Sorrowful Rhymes of Working Children.*)

And so it came about, and grew and grew, until now there are thirteen thousand some odd tenement houses in New York licensed by the bureau of factory inspection of the State Department of Labor, in which work given out by manufacturers and contractors can be made or finished in the homes, where the labor of all members of the family can be utilized without reference to age or factory law.

Securing a license permitting a tenement house to take in certain homework is a very simple matter. The owner or agent renting the property files with the Department of Labor a personal application for a license. The department sends out an inspector to investigate the building. If it comes up to the sanitary regulations and there are no charges filed against it in the Health or Tenement House Departments, a license is granted that allows all families living in the house to take in work if they desire. The house may contain one or forty families. The number makes no difference. The license is for the entire house, and entitles all the tenants to do homework.

The law calls for two inspections of licensed tenements a year, but owing to the limited number of inspectors only one complete inspection is made, at which time thirty-five or more inspectors make a complete survey of the licensed houses. Only four inspectors are detailed regularly to this department for work the year round.

The law regulating this branch of industry is Section 100 of the labor laws which prohibits, except when licensed, the use of a room or apartment in a tenement house or of a building on the same lot with one for "manufacturing, altering, repairing or finishing" of

coats, vests, knee-pants, trousers, overalls, cloaks, hats, caps, suspenders, jerseys, blouses, dresses, waists, waistbands, underwear, neckwear, furs, fur trimmings, fur garments, skirts, shirts, aprons, purses, pocketbooks, slippers, paper boxes, paper bags, feathers, artificial flowers, cigarettes, cigars, umbrellas, or articles or rubber, nor for the purpose of manufacturing. preparing or packing macaroni, spaghetti, ice cream, ices, candy, confectionery, nuts or preserves.

But whether licensed or not, the law does not interfere with the making of any goods *not* specifically mentioned in it. There lies the rub, as witness this list of things not mentioned and therefore made, quite legally, regardless of conditions:

finishing gloves, making buttonholes, hat frames, millinery ornaments, chiffon hats, baby

[1]Some of the facts and figures from Miss Watson's report, and her adaptations from nursery rhymes, are shown at the Child Welfare Exhibit at the Seventy-first Regiment Armory, New York, which will continue until February 12.

bonnets, sleeve garters, rompers, Irish lace, silver brushes, dress shields, leather bows and buckles, all kinds of hemstitching, feather stitching and fancy hand work; embroidery of all kinds, such as on waists, dresses, silk vests, silk stockings, collars, underwear, table linen, chiffon gowns, infants' flannels, coats, sacques, knitting and crocheting of Angora hoods and mittens, slippers; making candle shades; stringing bead necklaces; crocheting gloves, mittens, silk rings; plaiting hat straws; making guimps, bibs, silver mesh bags; tag stringing; tying cords on fancy pencils, tying pencils on fancy programs; pasting labels on cigar and other boxes, cutting out embroideries; trimming all over and chiffon embroideries; beading slippers, nets and lace; setting stones in celluloid combs, artificial jewelry and hat pins; making passementerie; embroidering pillow tops; making maline bows of human hair; sorting and sewing buttons on cards, covering buttons, making kimonas, tassels, pompons, evening scarfs and countless other things.

Section 101 of this same law imposes upon the manufacturer the duty of knowing whether the house into which his goods are taken for manufacturing purposes is licensed or not. In order to furnish such information the bureau of factory inspection prints and sends out a Monthly Bulletin Relating to Tenement Houses. This contains the addresses of all licensed tenement houses; of houses not licensed, the application having been denied; and of houses for which the licenses have been revoked.

This is all very well so far as it goes, but as the law applies only to the things on the licensed list and has no jurisdiction whatever over the home manufacturing of any articles not on that list, work can and does go merrily and legally on in houses refused a license, or in which a license has been revoked on account of unsanitary conditions.

For instance, in one house in which the license had been revoked on account of unsanitary conditions, and in which there had been several cases of contagious disease, I found flower making, garment finishing, and fur work. Work requiring a license could not be legally done, but any work not requiring a license could be. No license was necessary to sort coffee, therefore it could be and was sorted.

The halls and stairways in this house were in unspeakable condition. A series of complaints had been filed against it in the Tenement House Department and the apartment of the family engaged in coffee sorting was deplorably out of repair and dirty. Bags of broken coffee were bought at a nominal price from a coffee factory in a nearby street, and taken home, where all the children of the family, plus a small cousin from a neighboring apartment, sorted the whole beans from the broken ones. The two little girls of the family, one aged nine the other eleven, were continually staying out of school and only attended enough days to keep off the truant list.

The child labor law prevents any child under fourteen years of age from being employed in any factory, mercantile establishment, restaurant and other places of business, but no law reaches the home-working child save the compulsory education law—and that has jurisdiction over his school day only. He may work from six in the morning until school opens, and from three on to midnight, with no respite, every school day, and all day long, as many days a week as he can conveniently remain out of school without be-

KEEPING BOYS ON THE STREET.
Children carry ostrich plumes from shop to home.

FRANCIE FRANCESCA NE'ER LAUGHED AND NE'ER PLAYED,

FRANCIE FRANCESCA THE WILLOW PLUMES MADE,

ALL THE KINGS HORSES AND ALL THE KING'S MEN,

CANNOT MAKE FRANCIE'S POOR EYES WELL AGAIN.

ing regarded as a truant and there is no law in our enlightened city to stop him.

The predominating home industries in New York are finishing clothing, making artificial flowers and willowing ostrich plumes. Children work in all three.

The following chart gives the nationalities doing homework:

Ten per cent is done by	Italians.
Ten per cent is done by	Germans, Irish, Americans, Syrians, Jews (chiefly Russians).
Fine custom made vests.	German.
Finishing clothing; making artificial flowers; willowing ostrich plumes.	Ninety-eight per cent is done by Italians.
Globe neckties, blouses and clothing for United States Navy.	Irish and Americans.
Kimonos, crochet, lace, embroidery and crocheted lady sacques.	Syrians.
Plaiting hat straw; all kinds of women's neckwear; fancy bows.	Jews.

Prevailing fashion and changing styles are such integral factors in the homework problem that it seems impossible, even with a very large force of inspectors giving thorough inspection, for the Department of Labor ever to adjust the license list to fit the exigency of the occasion. Last fall the fashion for beaded net and passementeries brought a new kind of homework into being, and the present demand for hand embroidery has made this comparatively minor trade grow by leaps and bounds. We have well established tenement trades almost before we know of their existence.

Thus "homework" is an unknown term best expressed by x. In fact, so little is known of it that the more we scratch about on the surface of the situation the keener our realization of the paucity of facts concerning it. The State Department of Labor tells us the number of houses licensed to take in certain specified work. But it knows nothing of the number of people in each of these licensed houses doing such work. It cannot tell us the number of houses in which such work is done without a license, nor has it knowledge of the quantity of work done not requiring a license. And no one knows or can estimate the number of children helping in this work. In fact, in order to know all this it would require an inspector for each house!

Yet for all our lack of definite information on the subject, we have some indications of the extent of homework. One of these indications is the "Help Wanted —Female" columns in the daily papers most widely read by the workers. These are full of advertisements for homeworkers.

In one paper, during a period of two weeks' time chosen at random, there were 205 advertisements for women to take work home—almost fifteen advertisements a day. Some of these, for crochet workers on babies' hoods and bootees, wanted a hundred workers at a time and continued their advertisement many days.

Some light has been thrown on the situation by following these advertising columns for three months. For instance, workers in the predominating trades in tenement houses, such as finishers of clothing, are never advertised for. Artificial flower makers to work at home are rarely advertised for (once in the three months, I believe) and home workers on willow plumes were advertised for just twice during the three months, although the willow plume trade was at that time in its busiest season. Absence of advertisements for workers in the predominating tenement trades indicates, significant-

JACK SPRAT HAD LITTLE WORK,

HIS WIFE COULD GET MUCH MORE.

SHE AND THE CHILDREN WORKED ALL DAY

TO KEEP THE WOLF FROM THE DOOR.

WHERE THE WHOLE FAMILY WORKS.

The father a hodcarrier, has been in America 24 years, works about eight months a year, $2.50 a day. The oldest boy (15) has working papers, earns $5.50 a week in embroidery shop. All except the babies work on willow plumes. The oldest girl (12) was absent from school 29 half days out of a term of 89. The ages of children range from 13 years to 2 months.

ly enough, that these trades are well established in the homes, the source of supply for such work is well known to the workers and the applicants for work are more than equal to the demand for workers. This gives manufacturer and contractor power to dictate the lowest terms—as we shall see later on in the history of the willow plume trade.

The kind of work done in different parts of the city depends wholly on the character of the factories in the neighborhood. Throughout the lower West Side we find artificial flowers, fancy feathers, finishing of clothing; on the lower East Side finishing of clothing; the upper East Side willowing plumes, and beginnings of flower making. Several kinds of work in the vicinity mean that there is no respite for home-workers—the slack season of one industry is supplemented by the busy season of another. In the Bronx are embroidery factories. Consequently we find the Bronx families cutting out embroideries, embroidered handkerchiefs and the like. Tiny children, four years old can cut out embroideries. As soon as they can manage little scissors they help separate the strips, even if they are unable to cut out the scallops. One small, pathetically weary looking child, probably five years old, on being asked how long she had been cutting embroidery, shrugged her little shoulders and replied, "O! Ever since I was."

Very small children can help pull out bastings in finishing clothing, sort and sew buttons on cards, and separate flower petals. Willow pluming is a little more difficult for little children, the complicated knot making it almost impossible for very small fingers; however during the past summer several children of seven years were found doing it.

With the exception of these trades, and the finishing of underwear, the character of work carried on in homes takes it out of the smaller children's hands, leaving it for mothers and older mem-

OVERCOATS TO BE FINISHED.

The load was so heavy that the man stopped frequently to rest, laying his burden against dirty stairways.

bers of the family. Small children cannot embroider, knit angora hoods or mittens. But girls of eight, nine and ten years can and do crochet lace, though lace making is a comparatively minor industry. Passementerie, beading nets, making millinery ornaments, and operative work, such as making kimonas and rompers, requires older, more experienced handling than a small child can give.

But even here the child is utilized in carrying work to and from factories and shops. (A very small child with a very big bundle of clothing—as big as itself—is a common sight in the tenement districts.) The physical results from these heavy loads are yet to be proved. Again, the children take entire care of the smaller children and babies and carry on the entire work of the household. Little girls of eleven and twelve do the family washing before going to school in the morning, or remain out of school to do it.

Last March, on a bitter cold day with snow falling, while visiting a tenement in which finishing was done, a little shivering group of children was found whimpering and huddling in the second floor hallway. The baby, a tiny scrap of fourteen months, was crying with cold, while the little mother (of seven) cuddled him in her arms, trying to forget her own discomfort in caring for him. A third child, a little girl of five, said they were locked out because the mother had taken the work to the boss. On returning, the mother was much distressed at finding her little family crying with the cold. Shrugging her shoulders, she asked: "What, I must do? I maka the coats, my man he no gotta job. He walk this day for work. I lock a children in, they burn up. I lock a children out, they cry. What I must do?"

And so the stories go on, a series of tales of neglect, overwork, undernourishment, the latter the result of several things—poor food bought in a hurry from the ubiquitous push cart, or the stress of work where every minute counts making it impossible for the mother to take time to prepare food properly and often has to leave it for the children to cook. Then, too, even if the family has nourishing food the children are often just too tired to eat.

The continuous indoor life, the lack of play time, the overcrowding and general demoralization of the home through its conversion into a factory, must eventually register, and if we find it impossible now to measure in exact terms the injury of this system on the child, we will reckon with it later on in his physical and psychological reactions.

One picturesque old Italian *nonna*

THIS LITTLE CHILD MADE LACES,
THIS LITLE CHILD MADE FLOWERS,
THIS LITTLE CHILD MADE WILLOW PLUMES
THIS ONE HELD BABY FOR HOURS,
AND ALL OF THEM WORKED IN A CLOSE, WARM ROOM
THROUGH THE GOOD, BRIGHT SUMMER HOURS.

A STRIKING EXAMPLE OF CONGESTION.

A single room used as kitchen, nursery, boarding house, and workshop for six persons. The boarder is writing home to Sicily. The mother of the family alternates her work on feathers with amusing younger children.

(grandmother) in a family working at home, was asked if she liked America. With a shrug of her shoulders she replied: "Not much, not much. Good money, good people, but my country—my country—good air, much air, nice air down Italy. Blue sky, the water laugh in the bay." Then, spreading out her arms, hands up, with a pathetic gesture; "In my country peoples cook out of doors, maka the wash out of doors, eat out of doors, tailor out of doors, maka macaroni out of doors. And my people laugh, laugh all a time. And we use the house only in the night time to maka the sleep. America—it is *sopra, sopra,* (up, up, with a gesture of going up stairs). Many peoples one house, worka, worka, all a time. Good money, but no good air."

Some twenty-five years ago the New York Court of Appeals handed down the following — known as the Jacobs decision:

> It cannot be perceived how the cigarmaker is to be improved in his health or his morals by forcing him from his home with its hallowed associations and beneficent influences to ply his trade elsewhere.

This decision has blocked all legislation up to date.

How these miserable homework factories with their inmates working from daylight to six, eight, ten o'clock and even later in the night, can be defined as "homes" is beyond one's comprehension, and one must look through very rosy spectacles indeed to find the "hallowed" and "beneficient influences of a home" in which fur garments are stored in every conceivable corner and cranny of the living and cooking rooms, while all the members of the family toil from early morn to late night in order to earn enough to keep body and soul together.

What home influences can there be where a mother and three children, (the youngest just five), having been in this country, but four months and speaking no English, are making artificial flower wreaths (in an unlicensed house) at six

cents a dozen wreaths, day in and day out?

The table below of prices for work and the weekly incomes from it will show the compensation these homeworkers, victims of their own unrestricted competition, receive for converting their homes into factories.

To show the effect of home work at close range, the Work and Wages Committee of the New York Child Welfare Committee decided last May to make an intensive and comparative study of two groups of the same nationality, living under the same conditions, in new law tenements, subject to the same educational and civic influences, differing only in occupation—one group doing home work and the other not doing it. Willowing ostrich feathers, a typical homework trade, (in its busy season) was chosen for study.

Willowing consists of lengthening the short strands, called flues, of inferior feathers by tying on one, two or three flues until the feather has the desired depth and grace. The work is paid for by the inch and varies with the number of sets of knots to the inch.

Three years ago when the trade started, few knew how to willow, and fifteen cents was paid for tying one set of knots (per inch). The following season more workers were in the field and the price went down to thirteen cents an inch. Then it dropped to eleven cents (an inch), nine cents, seven cents, five cents and last summer (1910) the workers were receiving but three cents an inch while some of them in late summer were beginning to work by the piece. One feather fourteen and a half inches long, tied three times to the inch, brought its maker one dollar and ten cents. The woman who made it said "Pretty soon, the bossa, he want us work for nothing."

One plume bringing the set price of three cents an inch contained 8,613 knots. A woman and two children worked at it for a day and a third, tying at the rate of forty-one knots for a cent.

The neighborhood chosen for study was in the upper East Side, where the feather industry flourishes. In one block between Second and Third avenues there are eighteen factories or shops in which the older girls of the district work, and where the families living in the upper

WORK.	PRICE PER PIECE.	WEEKLY INCOME
Finishing coats	6c a piece	$2.40 to $3.00
Finishing pants	6c to 10c a pair	$3.00 to $4.20
Making violets	3c a gross up	$2.75 to $3.50
Making little roses	8c a gross	$2.75 to $4.00
Making large roses (7 and 8 petals.)	10c to 18c a gross	$3.00
Making baby dresses (Sewing up two sides, hemming skirt, making sleeves and sewing them in, gathering and binding the neck into a band, sewing on one button and making one button hole.)	45c a dozen	$3.20 to $5.00
Embroidering crepe de chine dresses (It takes 10 days to complete one.)	$5.00 a dress	
Making kimonas (4 seams—2 sleeve seams, hemming and binding.)	4c a dozen	
Men's neckwear—		
Cotton string ties	5c a dozen	$2.75
Silk ties (Lined, turned and pressed.)	15c a dozen	$3.60
Sorting and mounting buttons on cards	2c a dozen cards	.25 a day
Embroidery and tucking shirtwaists (if material included) (Woman working from 5 o'clock in morning until 8 o'clock at night can complete one a day.)	$1.00 a piece	$6.00
Plaiting hat straw (Season trade only, lasting 4 months in fall and winter.)	10c a dozen yards	$4.00
Embroidering silk stockings	20c to 45c a pair	Girls average 12½c an hour
Muslin underwear (Running in ribbons, making 3 buttonholes and sewing on 3 buttons.)	15c to 25c a dozen	$3.25 to $4.20
Cutting out embroideries, trimming scallops, etc.	5c a dozen yards	$2.75
Trimming embroidered handkerchiefs	25c a hundred	$3.00 to $4.25
Making baby bootees	25c a dozen	?
Making Irish lace collars	50c to $1.50 a piece	?
Making Irish lace medallions	35c to 50c a dozen	?
Making Irish lace by yard—insertion	15c a yard	?

floors and in adjacent houses secured their supplies for home work. In one house (above one of these shops), occupied by fourteen families, we found twenty-eight children under twelve years of age busily plying this trade. The streets and stoops are full of ostrich feather refuse, the stairways are littered and the air full of feather particles. The houses are filled with homeworkers, regardless of license. During the summer 370 homes were visited in order to get the history of one hundred families *not* engaged in home work and not one-half of these houses were licensed.

To show how impossible it would be to inspect and license this trade properly the story of Fortunata must be told.

A group of Italian men stood around the door of No. 324.

"Yes, Fortunata live here." Then one cried at the top of his voice: "Fortunata, Fortunata," which promptly brought a stout, good-natured, rugged-faced South Italian woman carrying a black oilcloth bag fairly bulging with greens, peppers and their curious Italian squashes.

"She my girl, she my girl. She live upstairs. What you want? You Board of Health?"

On being told I was not the Board of Health, she said: "I take you upstairs to see her. I take you up." Then, turning to a little girl on the doorstep, in Italian: "Quick, *sopra* (up). *Sopra!* Tell Fortunata give her plume to her godmother. Go, Mara. A lady comes who will arrest her if she work on feathers."

Slowly she toiled up the stairs, I behind her. No use trying to speed beyond her portly figure. In the middle of the first flight she stopped, slowly wiped her brow, and said: "I big, big woman—takes me much time to go upstairs. My house way upstairs." Meanwhile she called at the top of her voice in Italian: "Fortunata, Fortunata, take the plumes into your godmother's. There comes a lady."

Reaching the first floor nothing would do—we must stop at a neighbor's and admire the baby. Meanwhile she explained to her neighbor that the lady was from the Board of Health, coming to arrest the children who worked on feathers, and that she wanted Fortunata to put the feathers away before we reached the apartment.

Slowly we climbed the second flight. This time we paused in the middle of the hallway where, with many gesticulations, she showed me the bad places in the plaster. "The boss he no care—house look bad." Later "the boss" we find is her own brother.

Laboriously we climbed the third flight, stopping at the head of the stairs to visit in the hallway, with all the neighbors

THE OLDEST FORM OF TRANSPORTATION.

White underwear to be ribboned. Several gross of garments were in the bundle.

How doth the Manufacturer
Improve the Ostrich Tail?
By Willowing the Scraggy Ends
Until they're Fit for Sale.
How Cheerfully He Sits and Smiles
Throughout the Livelong Day,
While Children Knot the Tiny Flues
And Make the Plumes that Pay.

who had come out to look over the "lady from the Board of Health, who had come to arrest them for making feathers." One of them even went so far as to say me no one ever made feathers in that house. In vain did I tell them I did not come from the Board of Health; I could not arrest them if they made feathers in their own homes.

Finally we reached the home of Fortunata. Four rooms clean as a pin, save for one little place by the front window where there still remained a few tiny remnants of the snipped flues of the feathers. After talking to Fortunata for some time we ask her if she makes feathers. Her mother replies for her.

"No, no! She no make feathers. Feathers hurt their eyes. I no let Fortunata tie them."

Turning to Fortunata, I said: "Fortunata, go into your godmother's and bring the plume."

She looked at me as if she were dazed. "Bring me your plume from your godmother's, Fortunata"—and she did.

When her mother saw her returning with the feather she said: "Senorina, you speak Italian?"

"I speak a little, but I understand more," and with that she put her hands to her side and rolled with laughter. Then we all laughed together, whereupon she patted me on both cheeks and said: "You very nice lady! You very nice lady! You very happy lady!"

A glance at the budgets of the families in the next column—particularly of the wages of the fathers—tell their own story and show why home work is necessary.

This budget is not small because the fathers are lazy. Some of them are city employes in the street cleaning department, others are carpenters, bricklayers, rock drillers, etc. Many of them are skilled workmen earning good pay by the day, but one woman summed up the whole situation when she said: "Everybody, all a people, they willow the plumes. It hurts the eyes, too, bad, bad. How we can help it? The man he no work, two days, three days, may be in one week, two weeks. Sundays he no work, no pay. The holidays, no work, no money. Rainy, snowy days, bad days, he no work. Well, what we can do? My girl, me, we maka the feathers. The children must have to eat."

Homeworkers.	
Average income of father per year..	$370.57
" size of family.....	7
" number of children.....	5
" rent per month.....	$11.17
" number of rooms.....	4
" income of father per week..	$7.13
" income from other sources outside home work.....	$6.60
" total income outside home work	$13.73
" " income from feather making per week.....	$3.00
" income from all sources per week	$16.73
" rent per week.....	$2.79
" amount per week to cover food, lighting, clothing, insurance, emergencies, etc., for 7 people ..... —or—	$13.94
" amount per week per capita for food, lighting, heating, clothing, insurance, and emergencies	$1.99

Non-Homeworkers.	
Average wages of father per year...	$840.84
" size of family.....	7
" number of children.....	5
" rent per month.....	$11.39
" number of rooms.....	4
" income of father per week.	$16.17
" income from other sources.	$9.36
" total income per week.....	$25.53
" rent per week.....	$2.85
" amount per week left for heating, lighting, clothing, insurance, and emergencies	$22.68
" amount per week per capita for heating, lighting, clothing, insurance and emergencies	$3.24

So, to supplement the family income, the children work, tying these feathers, bringing all kinds of eye trouble and strain in their wake, remaining out of school—whenever possible.

The school records of the homeworking children show an average non-attendance of twenty-nine days out of an eighty-nine-day term, as against an average non-attendance of ten days by those not doing home-work. Six of the nonhomeworking children had perfect attendance records, while some of the homeworkers had been absent seventy

whole and three half days. One, a child of eight, although a resident in the district nearly three years, had never been in school at all and could scarcely speak English.

The family records of these two groups show a tendency to more deaths (of children) in the homeworking families—177 as against 104—and a larger number of deaths from contagious disease, which might be interpreted as an indication that the homeworking child's power of resistance is less than that of the non-homeworker.

What are we going to do about it? Are we ready to ask that all children be exempt from such work? Is the time ripe to say all such work must be eliminated from the tenement homes? And if so how shall we do it?

TEN LITTLE TEN'MENT KIDS STANDING IN A LINE,
ONE WENT TO PULLING THREADS AND THEN THERE WERE NINE.
NINE LITTLE CHILDREN, HAPPY BY THE GATE,
ONE WENT TO WILLOW PLUMES, THEN THERE WERE EIGHT.
EIGHT LITTLE CHILDREN GAZING UP AT HEAVEN,
ONE WENT DOWN TO TEND THE SHOP, THEN THERE WERE SEVEN.
SEVEN LITTLE CHILDREN ALL IN A MIX,
ONE WENT TO CROCHET LACE, THEN THERE WERE SIX.
SIX LITTLE CHILDREN, VERY MUCH ALIVE,
ONE WENT TO BRAIDING STRAW, THEN THERE WERE FIVE.
FIVE LITTLE CHILDREN SITTING BY THE DOOR,
ONE WENT TO FINISH COATS, THEN THERE WERE FOUR.
FOUR LITTLE CHILDREN HAPPY AS COULD BE,
ONE SEWS ON BUTTONHOLES, NOW THERE ARE THREE.
THREE LITTLE CHILDREN WATCHING BABY COO,
ONE WENT TO CROCHET BOOTS, THEN THERE WERE TWO.
TWO LITTLE CHILDREN PLAYING ALL ALONE,
ONE GOT THE VIOLETS AND WENT TO WORK AT HOME.
ONE LITTLE CHILD ALONE CAN'T HAVE HEAPS OF FUN,
SHE WAS PUT AT STRINGING BEADS AND THEN THERE WERE NONE.

THE COMMUNITY AND THE CHILD

SOPHONISBA P. BRECKINRIDGE

Among the difficult and delicate tasks to which the community is now setting its hand, none is more compelling in interest than that of establishing a standard of child nurture, which shall be recognized by social agencies and public officials as one below which no family or group in which there are children shall be allowed to go. The idea of a king as representing the state in the capacity of father to the fatherless has been long recognized; and the functions of the chancellor as visitor of institutions in which orphans were gathered, as well as his power to act in accordance with the needs of the children in cases of marital discord, are illustrations of the same idea. In the past, however, the need of parental supervision from without was not realized in the case of families where the parents were alive and apparently competent. In fact, the failure to apply any effective standard of parental duty was so great as to give rise to a question concerning the existence of such a duty, except so far as it could be based upon and sanctioned by the moral law. In accordance with the "law of nature," the father has been regarded as liable for the maintenance, protection, and education of his children; but it has seriously been questioned whether this duty was imposed by the civil law, and its adequate enforcement has only recently been undertaken. It is significant that a modern writer speaks of the enforcement of parental responsibility as an entirely novel undertaking. In one of the first issues of the *Crusade,* Sidney Webb writes as follows:

> We must take note in passing, that any such notion as enforcing parental responsibility is an entirely new thing. Speaking not pedantically as a lawyer, but broadly as a historian, it is an innovation of the past half-century—almost, we may say, of the present generation. Our ancestors never thought of enforcing parental responsibility. A hundred years ago, if a father left his children half-starved, scantily clothed in rags, with the most miserable lodgings, overcrowded and indecently occupied, with every kind of insanitation, so long as the parish was put to no expense, no one took proceedings against him. Cruelty to animals was made an offense long before cruelty to children. There was no attempt to constrain a parent to keep the child in health, to provide medical attendance for it, to supply education or moral training—least of all any idea of enforcing upon the parent any fulfilment of the obligation to furnish the all-important environment of a decent home. With the not very real exception that doing a child to death too suddenly might (we may almost say theoretically) be treated as murder, there was, a hundred years ago, so far as regards children in their parents' own homes, nothing in the way of enforcement of parental responsibility.

So exaggerated was the idea of parental right, that the relation of the father to his child became very much like that of the man of property to his possessions. Not only was there a lack of enforcement of all obligations, but along with this went a full recognition of control. On the one hand, the father was free from any effectively enforced duty of support; on the other, he was entitled in law to the custody of the child's person and to the enjoyment of the child's earnings. Moreover, these rights were enjoyed by the father not only free from any interference by those outside the family group; they were subject to no effective control by the mother, who enjoyed no authority but only "reverence and respect." At the same time it is fair to say that the paternal standard of child-care was often no lower than that of public agents to whom children were entrusted; it was, for example, the plight of the children apprenticed by poor-law guardians which first brought the attention of the English people to the waste of child life in the early factories; and all students of the juvenile court movement are familiar with the wretched treatment to which child wrongdoers are often subjected even now by guardians of the law.

In the absence then both of control and of example, it is not surprising that the father of today finds himself amazed at the attempt of public agents to interfere with his treatment of his own children. "Can he not do as he will with his own?" Nor is it surprising that the community

comes slowly to the conviction that parental affection and the "law of nature" are not always adequate safeguards of child life; and that only gradually have the true consequences of failing to meet the demands made by all children been realized. It may be pointed out again and again that neglect of education means incompetence, vagrancy, and crime; that neglect of recreation means the anti-social gang; that neglected physical needs mean stunted growth and consequent inefficiency and poverty; but the schools to which all children must go remain ineffective; wide stretches of the city wilderness lie unbroken by playgrounds; the halting attempts of the fourteen-year-old child to find a first job are made without guidance or help; and even the elementary decencies and needs of physical life are lacking to innumerable children.

It is not my purpose to discuss here any of the difficulties connected with the institutional care of children by public agencies supported by public taxation. It is rather to call attention to certain interesting methods of control over family life which are rapidly being developed. In the first place, notice should be taken of the legislation which aims to secure as good conditions as possible in homes where there is apparently no parental lack; that is, homes in which the parents are alive and not incompetent. This object is sought by embodying in express enactment the natural duty of support on the part of the father,[1] and by giving to the mother powers, rights, and duties concerning the child equal with those of the father.[2]

The families in which there is obvious parental lack may be grouped into three classes: first, very poor families in which the father is either dead or incapacitated; second, families in which the parents lack intelligence with reference to the needs of child life, but are willing to meet those needs when properly guided or helped; and third, families in which destitution is accompanied by filthy and degrading physical surroundings, immorality, drunkenness, and a resulting lack of child care and supervision.

With reference to the first group, namely, families which are simply poor, fairly definite theories of treatment have been worked out. If the father is dead or unable to support the family, and the mother is a fit guardian for her children, it is already recognized that the community is adopting a most wasteful policy when she is allowed to assume the duties of both breadwinner and caretaker. It has been demonstrated that what is saved by letting her earn is more than overbalanced by the children's loss of her care and companionship. But the application of this principle is extremely difficult. There is no need of further experiment to demonstrate the delicacy of the task of furnishing support from without the natural group, interesting evidence[3] may be found in the reports of such experiments as have been made, which goes to show that close supervision, wise and firm guidance, and rare insight are needed by those who administer the pecuniary resources of such a group without being naturally related to it.

The demand is irresistible that where the group has no other need than that of pecuniary aid, the community shall supply that lack, so that a good home may be maintained at public cost as a priceless public asset; and the provision of the California juvenile court law approves itself at once in theory when it provides that the expense of maintaining their own children may be allowed to parents out of the public funds at the discretion of the court, within the limits fixed by the law.[4]

When both parents are dead the relatives may be asked for contribution; in default of support by them and in the case of really homeless children a similar principle is recognized, namely, that the wards towards whom the state has the privilege of assuming the full parental relationship shall have created for them, so far as possible, the conditions characteristic of a good home. In this statement is embodied the doctrine para-

[1]Illinois Revised Statutes, Chapter 68, sections 15, 24.

[2]Ibid., Chapter 64, section 4.

[3]See Report Royal Commission on the Poor Law, Vol. I. Part IV. Chapter 8. section 410-420. Appendix Vol. XVII. pp. 269 and 337.

[4]McCartney juvenile court law, section 21.

doxically known as "boarding out" from institutions, which should rather be called "boarding in" good homes. For there are childless homes as well as homeless children, and the task of fitting them together, of bringing the child into a simple decent home in which those decencies of habit and life to which all children have a right may be supplied, is not beyond the ingenuity of the community. That this practice should be extended is another urgent recommendation of the Royal Commission on the Poor Law.[1] It is, however, no simple undertaking and requires intelligence, devotion, and real unselfishness on the part of those to whom the supervision of the children and of the adopted homes is entrusted. Already in Illinois our county officers are authorized to place children who must depend upon the county for care in homes rather than in the county almshouse, when this can be done "without expense to the county." It is only a question of time when a similar policy will be adopted even when additional cost is involved.

From the experiments which have been tried, however, two sources of difficulty become apparent: the first, a lack of that skill in handling family problems which is acquired only through familiarity with the difficulties of family life, and ignorance of the real force to be dealt with when the normal incentive of family responsibility is removed. Undoubtedly, for a considerable time to come, when poverty is the sole occasion for interference, reliance would best be placed upon the skilled private relief agency, from whom eventually a technique may be acquired and taken over by a public servant. Obtaining the material relief is simple; administering it is too difficult for our public servants, who at present are usually untrained, although they may be honest and willing.

In the case of families in which essentials of sound living other than material resources are lacking, but in which there are spiritual assets to be husbanded, the opportunity of the agent of the community to do delicate, permanent, constructive work, presents itself. Such cases are those of foreign families in which there is need of instruction as to the difference between the ambitions of the old and of the new country for their young people. The Italian father who puts his little daughter too early at work that she may earn the dowry so desirable as an assurance of a fitting marriage, the Polish father whose children are the victims of the peasant's "land-hunger," the children from any neighborhood whose precocious earnings go into the parlor furniture or a little better outward standard of living, these are all cases in which the representative of the best American standard of child-care has occasion to instruct the parent who is unintelligent, but not unfit.

In this group belong, too, the difficult cases in which the father maintains a casual attitude toward his family obligations; perhaps, originally, because of difficulty in finding work, or because during his boyhood he was allowed to become a casual worker at some blind-alley employment and he is now casual in all his relations to life. Here is a task requiring the utmost patience and endurance, to find the possible job, perhaps to put on the screw of prosecution on the ground of non-support, and certainly to bring to bear every available influence for the sake not only of the children who are the occasion for interference, but for the final dignity of the husband and wife.

In both of these groups, those who are poor and those who are unintelligent but willing, it may be said that the theory of treatment is well formulated; the acquisition of technique is the difficulty to be met and faced. In the case of degraded families, however, there is the added difficulty that as yet there is no adequate theory of treatment; no realization that the obvious basis for the policy of maintaining homes by public help is the supposition that homes are good and rendering valuable social service. Surely they should not be homes in which demoralizing conditions are making a healthy and decent life impossible for the children. Yet where shall the line be drawn? That we have at present no measure to apply, no test with which to try the value of homes may be illustrated by some interesting cases found in a

[1]Part VII, Vol. 2, pp. 88 and 92.

study of the families handled in a single district office of the United Charities of Chicago within the past year, in the treatment of which the county agent, the representative of the public, has had a part. Some of these cases had been under the care of various social and public agencies for a considerable time; but even when the home was so degraded that the child's physical and moral well-being was imperilled, it was only after extreme delay and hesitation that the child was removed, if at all. While the removal of the child is rightly regarded as the most serious step which can be taken in family treatment, the question should be raised whether the time is not ripe for serious action when the child's whole chance of a decent life is ruined by delay.

In one case two small children, a girl of three and a boy only a year old, were in the care of an aged, incompetent, but devoted grandmother and an indifferent, degraded father, in a squalid home in a rear basement, so unsanitary that the attention of the health authorities was solicited. A drunken uncle helped to make the home intolerable. During a period of ten years aid was given the family by the county and a private relief society, while the church, a children's protective agency, and a probation officer were at different times "at work on the case." After ten years, during which time the children's little bodies were infested and infected, the little girl's person violated, the boy's mind stunted, the relief agency not only refused further aid, but asked for drastic action by the children's court, and the family group was broken up. For the little girl there was no hope, and she was sent to an institution for the feeble-minded where she will receive what little training she can take. The little boy, whose mind was apparently so dull that he had not been able to learn either to read or to write, was boarded with a family in a rural community where he is making rapid progress in the new school to which he has been sent.

A similar history is related in the case of a violent, untrained, self-indulgent young Italian wife, who has divorced the father of her seven-year-old Andrew and three-year-old Maria and married the man who is now the father of her five-months-old boy. But both men are agreeable and both continue to be her companions. For two years the county and private relief agencies had contributed to her support. Finally the boy was sent to the Parental School, the baby to a children's home, but the little girl was left with the mother because, in the words of two interested visitors, she was "the sole restraint on her mother." Later, however, while the county was giving coal and the relief society paying rent, the little girl became so infected that it was necessary to send her to the county hospital; and at last after the two years of experiment, during which the child's body and mind had been in the gravest danger, the agencies involved wished to remove her from the home; but in spite of brutality, indecency, disease, and filth the court could not take this action, because the witnesses to certain overt acts absented themselves from the trial and refused to testify.

In another family, where there had been a history through fifteen years of begging, drunkenness, and immorality on the part of the parents, both the county and the private agency had given relief with pretty full knowledge of these conditions. Finally, the struggle was considered so hopeless that it was thought necessary to take the case into court and ask to have the family broken up. A chance was then given the children, when it was probably too late. The superintendent of the institution to which the little girl was sent writes:

> The disposition of Mary is not indicative that she is delinquent. So far she is merely dependent. I think it will take the united efforts of everyone concerned to save her from becoming delinquent after the miserable experience she has had in her home.

For homes in which there is such degradation the theory of treatment ought to be quite simple. It is, however, extremely confused and obscure, because of the attitude of the community at large and particularly of persons habituated to the legal mode of thought. As has been said, the control of the parent over the child has in the past been so com-

plete, so nearly like that of ownership, that, as in the case of a thing belonging to a person, the case must at present be very clear in order to justify interference. No "taking of property" must there be without due process—and no infringement of the parental right without evidence of criminal abuse or demoralizing influence which is not only incontrovertible, but of a kind extremely difficult to secure. Only recently is the idea gaining ground that this enjoyment of the parental relationship is a privilege to be exercised under strict accounting, and to be justified by adequate performance. When that idea does grip the community, as sooner or later it must, the forfeiture of the rights will go with the failure to perform the duties. Even now we are learning that the rights of the children are co-ordinate with those of the parent, and that when one or the other must suffer the right of the child to grow into decent and competent maturity must be upheld. The separation of parents and children is often the very last hope of the former as well as of the latter. Never, to be sure, should the separation be for a longer time than is demanded by the requirements of the children; but when there are immoral practices, obscene language, low associates, and demoralizing surroundings, the children should be lifted out bodily at the earliest possible moment, not hesitatingly, but with the same assurance and steadiness with which one would draw them from a dangerous bog or quicksand.

On no point, perhaps, do our judges need more education than on this. They draw their precedents largely from the cases in the books, and from controversies in which the parties, while they were often morally low, did not always live or let their children live among degrading surroundings. The very presence of the parties at the bar of justice was evidence of a pecuniary ability which might shut out all demoralizing influences except their own from the lives of their children. Such would be true in the cases quoted to sustain parental right.[1]

The children whom the community is most often called on to protect, however, are found in homes of poverty. If in these homes, amidst conditions of crowded city life, the parents are degraded, the children are without defence, unless protected by the strong arm of the law. From homes in which the safeguard supplied by decent living on the part of the parents has been removed, the children should be swiftly taken.

Although no definite standard of child-care has yet been formulated a device has been created in the establishment of the juvenile court by which a standard may be worked out and effectively applied. When the statute so defines "neglected and dependent children" as to include not only the "destitute, homeless, and abandoned," but "those who are without *proper* parental care"; gives to any "reputable resident of the county" standing in court for the purpose of calling attention to the needs of any group, and vests in the court power to determine whether the interests of the children in that group would be served better by leaving parents and children together or by separating them, the necessary machinery and authority are provided. There remains only the necessity of working out the full implication of the word *proper*, and of developing in the court the appreciation of the supreme importance, in determining the habits of any child, of the conditions surrounding the early years.

Undoubtedly many adjustments of the machinery of the court will have to be made, new parental checks in the shape of adult delinquency laws and other means of control devised; but these must be used with intelligence and courage; and this can be hoped for only when the burden of proof lies upon the parent to justify his right, rather than upon the child to claim interference and removal. The task of caring for the destitute home may be for the time safely left to the private relief society; the problem of the degraded home demands the strong hand of the state.

[1] Rex vs. Greenhill, 4 Ad. and Ellis, 624; Wellesley vs. Wellesley, 1 Dow. N. S., 152.

WHAT THE GOVERNORS ARE SAYING

SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY

Thirty-eight state legislatures convened in January. Twenty of these states have democratic governors and eighteen, republicans. Recent changes in the party in power, and the inauguration of democratic governors in many republican strongholds have aroused an expectation that a democratic program of state legislation might appear, especially in dealing with topics which the Democratic Party as a national organization has considered to belong in the domain rather of state than national legislation.

Each governor necessarily devotes the larger part of his message to purely local matters pertaining to his individual state. There are, however, many topics common to all the states, upon which recommendations should give indications of how the currents of public opinion are set. The appeal for economy and a warning lest income and resources will not be adequate to meet the demands upon the state's purse; the reform of employer's liability laws, the need for better corrupt practices acts, the regulation of public utility corporations, are among the topics common to nearly all of the recent messages to the legislatures, or inaugural addresses of the new governors.

In general, there is no evidence of a well defined program on these or other topics, which we might have expected as a result of the recent meeting of governors at Lexington. Minor and formal matters are presented with some uniformity, but the larger and more difficult questions of social welfare, in which readers of THE SURVEY are primarily interested, are treated so unevenly as to show the need of executive enlightenment. The annual conference of governors might with profit have one of its own committees report the results of meetings like the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the scientific societies which met recently at St. Louis.

It is apparent, from the utterances of both democratic and republican governors, that the present year is likely to be barren in matters of social legislation, and that reactionary principles are pretty widely in control. Governor Woodrow Wilson's inaugural address in New Jersey and the messages of Governors McGovern of Wisconsin and Osborn of Michigan are exceptions, though not the only ones, in that they take a longer look ahead and urge the more immediate and comprehensive treatment of the larger social problems.

It is always necessary for a governor to urge economy in the use of public funds, because the executive, rather than the legislature, usually assumes responsibility for the solvency of the state treasury. There is a difference, however, between a perfunctory recommendation, the sounding of a general alarm, and the real appreciation of what sound economy means and how it can be obtained. THE SURVEY will stand with good citizens everywhere, regardless of party affiliation, in upholding efforts to apply sound business principles to the expenditure of public moneys. In many states, however, the governors should realize that the growth of population, the increase of dependents, and the necessarily increasing burden of charitable and correctional work to which the modern state is unalterably pledged, necessitate the expenditure of large and increasing sums of money for the maintenance of charitable institutions, hospitals for the insane, prisons, and perhaps more particularly for wisely directed efforts to prevent the further increase of these burdens by removing the causes that give rise to them. Not always the curtailment of the newer enterprises or the refusal to consider additional work which the state ought to undertake is the wisest economy, but rather the discontinuance of longstanding extravagances, the unnecessary and expensive printing contracts for the benefit of local newspapers, and the employment of supernumeraries in so many branches of public business, are the kind of economy which will require much urging on the part of an efficient executive

and will not meet with eager acceptance on the part of the average legislature.

Governor McGovern recommends for Wisconsin a commission to investigate, through experts, the organization and business methods of the departments and institutions of the state government and its civil divisions, with power to supervise public printing and to co-operate with the statistical and economic investigations of the federal government in order to secure the information Wisconsin needs to meet her local problems.

The reform of the existing employers' liability law, including the restriction or abolition of the fellow servant defense and the assumption of risk doctrine, and in most instances looking to the adoption of the workman's compensation principle, is recommended by Governors Pothier (Rhode Island), Osborn (Michigan), Tener (Pennsylvania), Fort (message) and Wilson (inaugural address) (New Jersey), Deneen (Illinois), Foss (Massachusetts), Marshall (Indiana), who also asks for an industrial court with exclusive jurisdiction over accident cases, Carroll (Iowa), and McGovern (Wisconsin).

Questions of taxation play the usual important part, and in some cases are accompanied with a recommendation of the income tax amendment to the Federal Constitution, notably in the message of Governor Dix of New York which reverses the recommendation of his predecessor, Governor Hughes; and in the messages of Harmon of Ohio, Marshall of Indiana, Carroll of Iowa, and McGovern of Wisconsin.

The initiative, referendum and recall are presented fully with a favorable recommendation by Governors Deneen (Illinois), Osborn (Michigan), McGovern (Wisconsin) and Foss (Massachusetts); and the referendum alone is recommended by Governor Marshall (Indiana).

A very decided effort is widespread for better legislation to cover corrupt practices, and to increase the power of the people in primary elections, notably as found in the recommendations of Governors Harmon (Ohio), Wilson (New Jersey), Dix (New York), Marshall (Indiana) and Deneen (Illinois).

Among the miscellaneous recommendations that have attracted attention are those of Governor Harmon (Ohio), who advocates a single board of control for the state penal, reformatory, and benevolent institutions; of Osborn (Michigan), employing convict labor on roads and holding publishers responsible for dishonest advertising; of Pothier (Rhode Island), giving state aid to the extent of $200 per bed to hospitals providing for advanced cases of tuberculosis; of McGovern (Wisconsin), advocating better public care of indigent, crippled, and deformed children, and better provision for public health activities at the state's expense; of Deneen (Illinois), advising complete state care of the insane poor; of Shafroth (Colorado), removing mental deficients from state insane asylums and providing for a separate institution; of Dix (New York), concentrating the power of the lunacy commission in a single head; of Harmon (Ohio), suggesting better methods of employing convicts at useful labor; and of Baldwin (Connecticut), pleading for woman suffrage.

Liquor legislation seems to be less in demand and comparatively few recommendations are made. Osborn (Michigan) goes into the question quite fully, advocating higher license and stricter control of saloons; Kitchin (North Carolina) upholds the state prohibitory law and urges the abolition of "near" beer licenses; Marshall (Indiana) proposes to modify the local option law in the direction of greater home rule for the cities and towns and stricter enforcement by the elimination of exceptional club privileges.

Public utility commissions, with power to fix rates, are urged by several governors, quite forcibly by Wilson (New Jersey), Bass (New Hampshire), Pothier (Rhode Island), Deneen (Illinois), Osborn (Michigan), who would also include the regulation of express charges; Foss (Massachusetts); and the increase of the powers of the railroad commission to make effective a recent stock and bond law is urged by McGovern (Wisconsin).

The popular election of United States senators is pretty generally recommended by the democratic executives, and Governor Dix (New York) asks his Legis-

lature to petition Congress for a parcels post. Better enforcement of laws protecting woman and child labor is urged by Governors Osborn of Michigan and Dix of New York.

It would be rather difficult to predict the lines along which the legislative grist of the states as a whole will converge this year. The indications are that the measures of social reform in which readers of THE SURVEY are interested and are promoting through private efforts, which in many instances demand for their realization the sanction and active co-operation of the state, will not occupy a large place on the statute books of 1911.

A period of stagnation, or even of reaction, frequently offers the best opportunity for shaping up strong forces for the next forward steps, and such periods usually precede years of greater activity and progress. Therefore, there is no cause for discouragement or reaction on the part of social workers. The problems of democracy are slowly but surely on the road to solution in the United States, and the goal is neither uncertain nor unattainable.

COMMUNICATIONS

MINIMUM WAGE AND IMMIGRATION RESTRICTION

Following the Immigration Commission's report to Congress in December, THE SURVEY presented the range of its findings in a series of articles in the January magazine number,—the first rounded interpretation of this federal investigation put before the public. As a governmental policy, the commission recommended restriction; as a method, the exclusion of aliens who can not read or write. Its recommendations were reviewed favorably by Joseph Lee, a leading advocate of immigration restriction, and unfavorably by Grace Abbott, director of the Immigrant Protective League. This is the line of cleavage over the literacy test which has deadlocked legislation in the past, making strange bed fellows of the employing interests who want bars down for the purpose of getting cheap labor, and the various racial societies who want to keep America as a haven of refuge for the oppressed of other lands. As a possible method of federal immigrant control, which would strike at the economic sources of immigration and prevent its worst economic effects, without shutting out fugitive peoples, Paul U. Kellogg suggested that the Australian minimum wage idea be welded to our immigration policy. That is, to make naturalization papers for the incoming immigrant (like child labor certificates for the growing boy) the open sesame to a free labor contract in the congregate industries of the United States, and to prohibit the hiring of unnaturalized aliens for less than a living wage. A number of communications have been received on the subject but as yet no incisive analysis of its legal aspects. A lawyer whose work calls him into various matters affecting the alien writes that the scheme "would be in conflict with treaty provisions, international law and comity regarding international treatment between nationals and alien residents," and an economist that "the constitutional and administrative obstacles would seem insuperable." On the other hand, without committing himself unreservedly before further consideration, Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia University calls it "the most hopeful program and the one at the present time most worthy of serious consideration for the wise restriction of immigration."

TO THE EDITOR:

That is a very fascinating suggestion made by Paul U. Kellogg in THE SURVEY of January 7. It is likewise original, of course. Best of all, it has the merit of going straight to the root of the immigration problem. For, as the Federal Immigration Commission asserts, that problem is chiefly economic, and specifically connected with depressed standards of living and insufficient rates of wages. The question of the proper assimilation of immigrants will always be important, indeed, but it can be much more readily solved than the question raised by their injurious influence upon the living conditions of the whole body of unskilled laborers. Grace Abbott attempts to refute the findings of the commission on this point, with the assertion that the immigrant does not underbid the native worker, except unwittingly, especially when he is misled by labor agents or employers. It seems to me that this answer does not meet the difficulty at all. For, quite apart from the cases that she has in mind, immigrants must and do depress wages, for the simple reason that they increase the supply of a kind of labor that is already too plentiful, relatively to the higher kinds of labor. So that, even if every

immigrant were as alert, as shrewd to pursue his own interest, and as anxious to raise his standard of living, as the most intelligent and most ambitious native, the bad effect of unduly increasing supply relative to demand, would still be produced. As a consequence, the native, as well as the immigrant, must accept a lower wage than he would be able to command if the great mass of immigrants remained away, and the supply of their kind of labor *i. e.*, unskilled labor, were not thus increased. It is all a question of supply and demand: the supply of a certain kind of labor is excessive relatively to the demand for it, and relatively to the supply of other kinds of labor. And the only remedy is to reduce, relatively, the supply, either by elevating a part of it into the higher kinds of labor through industrial education, or by directly restricting the volume of the supply through the erection of barriers, artificial barriers if you will, against it. Since the first method will be unavailable, or at least ineffective, for a good many years to come, there is nothing left for a practical people, such as we Americans think we are, but to employ the method of restriction. And the exclusion of a large part of the immigrant section of the supply is a reasonable measure of restriction.

Here, again, Miss Abbott takes exception to the conclusions of the commission. People still leave Europe to escape "intolerable conditions," she says; consequently, the same reasons exist now as fifty years ago, for maintaining a policy of unrestricted immigration in the interests of the oppressed, whether the oppression be political or economic. She is undoubtedly right as to the principle, the essential facts of the situation. But she would probably admit that the amount of oppression which the present generation of immigrants escapes when it comes to America is considerably smaller than in the case of some of the earlier generations. I speak of Europe as a whole, not merely of Russia. Hence the hardship that would result from restriction is less, considerably less, than it would have been formerly. Moreover, and this is the dominant consideration, until recently unrestricted immigration was, owing to the different economic situation here, only less beneficial to America than to the oppressed immigrants. Hence there was no reasonable ground for keeping them out. Today, their arrival at the current rate has a distinct, and very great, evil effect. It means nothing less than the perpetuation and intensification of inhuman and unchristian planes of living for millions of America's inhabitants. In these circumstances our duty toward the oppressed of other lands must be subordinated to our duty toward our own oppressed population. And our duty of protecting and lifting up our own oppressed workers may quite properly be discharged by excluding outsiders until such time as we shall have put into effect some other solvents, such as industrial education. This is the deliberate view of one whose parents found in America a refuge from the "intolerable oppression" of Irish landlordism. But "charity begins at home;" and America's first duty is toward her own citizens, and the people who have already made her their adopted mother Moreover, if immigration should continue at the rate which it has maintained during the last decade, only a small proportion of the newcomers will have materially bettered their condition; besides, the immigrants in many instances would be a source of strength to their own countries, and to movements for the betterment of conditions at home.

I seem to have got away from the subject upon which I intended to write; but I hope the digression is only apparent. For the aim of Mr. Kellogg's proposal is in effect restriction of immigration. For that reason the proposal is liable to the objections that may be raised against any other method of restriction. As a means of preventing the economic evils resulting from an excessive supply of low skilled immigrant labor, his suggestion is, as I have clearly intimated, fascinating in its novelty and possibilities. To prohibit by law the employment of any immigrant, within five years of his arrival, at less than a living wage, would, if the law were held constitutional and were enforced as well as the average law, solve the immigration question more directly, more effectively, and more satisfactorily to all the interested classes, than any other measure that could be devised. In a word, the proposal has all the advantages so briefly, but clearly, enumerated by Mr. Kellogg in his article. To me it seems to have the further merit of opening the way for general minimum wage laws applicable to citizen-labor, and enacted by the states as well as by the nation. Without such laws (in conjunction with other measures regarding industrial education and employment) I do not see how we are to get rid of the most obstinate and injurious factor in our socio-industrial problems, namely, insufficient means of living in a very large section of our population.

The practical questions raised by Mr. Kellogg's suggestion concern its constitutionality and its enforcibility. While I hesitate to express what is necessarily a valueless opinion on the former point, I cannot see any constitutional objection that is insurmountable. So far as I know, the constitutional guarantees that might be urged against the proposal all refer to citizens, not to aliens. True, the prohibition of a contract to employ recently arrived immigrants at less than a specified rate of wages, would limit the freedom of the citizen-employer as well as of the alien employe; and yet this freedom is already limited by our foreign contract labor law. If this is constitutional, why would not the proposed limitation be equally constitutional, especially since it does not forbid the employer to enter into a labor contract absolutely, but only to enter into a certain kind of contract? The fact that the alien had already become a resident would not seem to increase the constitutional rights and privileges of either party.

Concerning the feasibility of the measure, we see at once that if the wage limit were put high enough to be really effective and beneficial, a considerable proportion of immigrants would have to be deported. This would happen even if the law were made to apply only to those coming into the country after its enactment; for some considerable time would be required to convince all prospective immigrants that the majority of them would be compelled to return on account of inability to find employment at or above the prescribed wage. Nevertheless, it seems to me that this drastic measure would be justified if only it would secure the observance of the law. Assuming that this method of deportation is formally adopted, we have many reasons for thinking that a considerable section of public opinion would assist in carrying it out, and in otherwise enforcing the law.

If the measure were limited to corporation employments, as suggested by Mr. Kellogg, it would be less thoroughgoing, and in some ways less effective. On the other hand, it would strike at the worst phases of the situation that it seeks to correct, would be less harsh, and would receive much larger support from public sentiment. Most of us, I think, would prefer the measure in this form. But would it not be declared unconstitutional as setting up an artificial class distinction? It ought not to be so considered, for the distinction between a corporation and an individual is not artificial, and is recognized by law. However this is a detail that is of small importance as compared with the proposal itself.

To use the parlance of the day, Mr. Kellogg has, I think and hope, "started something" that ought to provoke varied and enlightening discussion. The lawyer, the social student, the economist, and the philanthropist can all find something in it that is particularly appealing,—or repelling.

JOHN A. RYAN.

The St. Paul Seminary.

TO THE EDITOR:

A few days ago I said at an immigration meeting in Buffalo that the courage and pluck which come from Europe are too valuable raw material to be refused because they lack there the education which they seek here for their children. The superintendent of education and the librarian of our Public Library agree with me, and these would not make a bad jury on this question. The next day, however, I had to confess that I was shaken by the findings of the United States Immigration Commission as reported in THE SURVEY, and the editor of THE SURVEY has asked me to explain myself.

The commission finds "an oversupply of unskilled labor" and desires a marked reduction of immigrants through a reading and writing test. If we have too many candidates for the opportunities of this country, it is time to form a waiting list. In the language of civil service reform, "the best shall serve the state." I am in favor of a competitive examination, but before we examine we must decide what we are examining for. Not for skilled places surely. Think how fifty senates would ring if we began importing foreigners for our higher places instead of keeping them at the bottom where of course they belong. But for places in the labor schedule I have never yet heard of a written examination. For unskilled labor we want chiefly brawn and character. Education in a peasant does not indicate character or native ability so much as opportunity which he will find here. Educated raw material is less raw, and so easier to digest, but what we are after is the best raw material. We would rather have the very best meats and do the cooking after we get them. A little cooking often keeps us from recognizing bad meat.

I am saying everywhere at present that public health is more important than public education, and that disease, public or private, is even more dangerous than ignorance. If we want health and muscle, why not test these by examination, just as we do for policemen and firemen? If we want agricultural laborers, or a diversion from the city to the country, why not prefer farmers and accept only those billed to country towns? Canada seems to do something of this sort. We are not holding an examination for clerks, and mere native intelligence cannot be gauged by literacy.

As a free trader I still question any restriction of immigration. The exodus during panics proves that supply and demand are effective; and we have left much undone in compelling immigrants to live like Americans. The Romans had sumptuary laws to check excessive and dangerous spending. We have anti-sumptuary tenement laws to check excessive and dangerous saving. Plenty of inspectors, inspecting at night, would do much to stop the huddling. This will raise rents and the cost of living. This will check the flood of immigration. This will raise wages and the standard of living.

I am one of the increasing minority who are tempted by the minimum wage law, and Paul Kellogg's alluring and audacious suggestion, in the same SURVEY, of a minimum wage law for recent or unnaturalized immigrants only would perhaps avoid the constitutional objection. He expounds it very eloquently, and I wish that some of the six social congresses which met last month at St. Louis could have discussed this proposition. It has many curious possibilities.

FREDERIC ALMY,
Secretary Buffalo C. O. S.

TO THE EDITOR:

Mr. Kellogg is ingenious in his proposal to place a restrictive tariff on immigrant labor. It seems to me more than likely, however, that if his plan were ever accomplished it would result in creating a privileged class and that consisting of the alien laboring man.

Assuming that the proposal is a constitutional measure, it does not seem logical that any device that would provide a minimum wage for the benefit of the immigrant before such legislation had been achieved for the native-born would be considered favorably by the community.

Though Mr. Kellogg's plan is obviously designed for the purpose of discouraging immigration by limiting the employment of alien labor, it is probable that the immigrants would regard it as a safeguard against their exploitation. The fact that the United States government held itself even indirectly responsible for the payment of $2.50 a day for the alien in any single industry would be advertised in the highlands and the lowlands, and I fear that processions of immigrants who have bought their steamship tickets would find it difficult to differentiate, particularly before they left the other side.

I hardly think that any great number of immigrants would be cautious enough to be deterred from travelling through fear of not being among those to receive that $2.50 a day, but the hope of being among the favored few would give it all the lure of a gamble. It is more likely that on the chance of obtaining so valuable a prize, the immigrants would be circling round the corporation tree that could drop such valuable plums. It is also conceivable that certain organizations known to connect up the pay envelope with their company stores might exercise ingenuity to discover ways and means by which the credit and the charges at the stores would correspond to the money paid. Some device to make the wages on the farm measure up with the mandatory wage of the corporation would have to be promoted, in order to equalize the charm of agricultural labor as compared with this well-rewarded corporation employment.

LILLIAN D. WALD.

Henry Street Settlement, New York.

To THE EDITOR:

I think that a provision to keep out all immigrants (with proper exceptions) who have not made contracts calling for a minimum wage would, if it could be enforced, accomplish a good deal of the object which the restrictionists desire and which the commission has had in mind. That is to say, it would prevent the indefinite keeping down of our standard of living by the influx of lower and lower levels of foreign labor.

The difficulty would be in finding any way of enforcing such a provision. It would be difficult to tell whether a contract was genuine, and impossible to see that it was afterwards carried out and to deport the immigrant in case it was not. The immigrant coming in under such a law would be like those admitted during Secretary Straus's administration under the bonding clause. Few, if any, of these, I think, were ever sent back, and it would probably have cost more to find and identify one of them than could have been collected on the bond.

The same object, however, can actually be accomplished to a great extent by adopting the illiteracy test, one great advantage of which is that it can really be applied and can be so surely applied that very few cases will occur of an immigrant coming over to this country and having to be sent back.

The Liberal Immigration League, by the way, has sent out a circular letter in which it says that the immigrant will be required not only to read, but to explain selected passages from the constitution. This of course is a misrepresentation. There have been many illiteracy bills passed by the House and Senate, respectively, and several are now pending. Not one of them that I ever heard of contained such a clause, nor have I ever heard such a clause suggested.

JOSEPH LEE.

Boston, Mass.

To THE EDITOR:

In your current issue Paul Kellogg's suggestions as to the Immigrant Labor Tariff are somewhat in line with the ideas advanced by Cavour many years ago.

This great Italian statesman suggested that under a "protective" tariff framed mainly for the benefit of the laborer, the government has the right to fix wages in the protected industries in order to see that the main object of the tax was assured.

Most of our unskilled labor is employed in the protected industries. The laborer is urged to vote for this tariff in order that he may personally profit by the law. His share may be withheld under our present system; but under a logically framed "protective" tariff act a government commission could fix the minimum wage from time to time and by so doing would prevent such wage falling below the standard.

New York. CHARLES H. ISRAELS.

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

HOSPITAL AND UNIVERSITY

New York city has suffered under the reproach that its great hospitals have not contributed in a reasonable measure to medical education, and that its scientists have not sufficiently given of their special knowledge and skill to the care and cure of the sick. This has not been because hospital managers prefer darkness to light, nor because men of science are lacking in public spirit and humanity. The difficulty has been one of organization. There has been a lamentable maladjustment between resources and needs. Artificial barriers, originating in inherited customs and mutual misunderstandings, and perhaps even more in a lack of effective imagination, have kept science and disease from that struggle at close quarters on which the highest hopes of humanity depend.

These have been the dark ages in the medical organization of American hospitals. Thanks to the Carnegie Foundation we are in position to appreciate fully its defects. We are in position, however, also to appreciate that the light has been breaking into the darkness. Great physicians have at all times been found at the bedside of the sick poor, and young men have had great, even if not ideal, opportunities to learn under direction. The universities have had to run hither and thither in their determined search for material for clinical instruction, but the idea has gradually taken root that on the whole the patient's chances are not worse, but better, if the operating room connects with a laboratory.

At last, however, the visions of philanthropy and those of science have been brought definitely into focus. Through the alliance between the Presbyterian Hospital and Columbia University, and the gifts of Edward S. Harkness and an anonymous donor, we are to have an ideal hospital, with clearly defined responsibility on a great university for the support and direction of scientific and educational activities, with financial resources at the disposal of the university for the precise purpose of meeting that responsibility, and with every assurance that from other resources the managers of the hospital will meet equally what may be called its philanthropic responsibility. The hospital comes to the university with great resources at its disposal, such as the recent bequest of Mr. Kennedy, and the gift now made through Mr. Harkness to reimburse the university to the extent of $50,000 or $60,000 a year—the income on $1,300,000—for its expenditures in carrying out its share of the agreement. Even greater resources it brings in the established reputation and honorable history of the hospital, the devotion of its trustees and staff, its promise of a future of ever increasing usefulness. Yet with all these resources it comes acknowledging unreservedly and heartily that there are other and equally essential resources which must be sought in an institution of research and instruction.

A memorandum given out by Robert W. de Forest, vice-president of the Presbyterian Hospital and chairman of its building committee, and George L. Rives,

chairman of the board of trustees of Columbia, puts the essence of the agreement in the following terse sentences:

> The proposed alliance is based upon the belief that through it the hospital is most likely in the future to secure for its patients the best medical and surgical talent, and that the university needs such an alliance in order to enable it to give the best clinical instruction to its students and opportunities for advanced study.
>
> The fundamental principle of this alliance is that the university, in return for the privilege of making all nominations to the hospital staff, medical, surgical, and special, shall meet the expense of all scientific and educational work connected with the hospital.

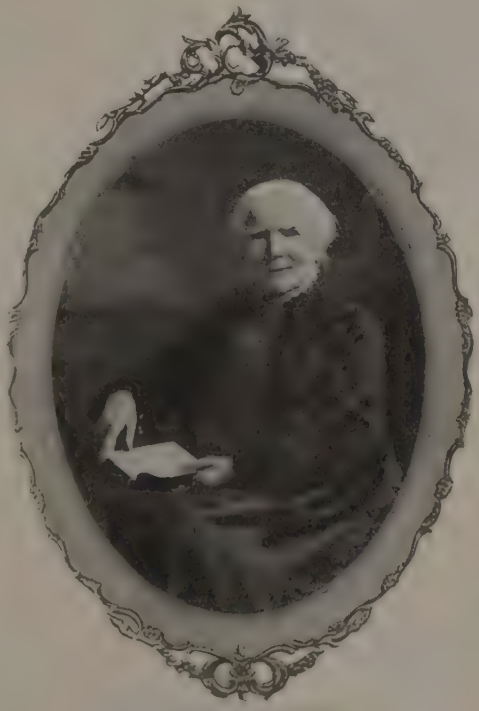
In estimating the significance of this alliance it is to be noticed, first, that although not irrevocable it is permanent. Large permanent investments are to be made on the assumption that the plan is to succeed and that it is not to be lightly changed. Second, the university does not limit its own financial contribution to the expenditure of the endowment now given specifically for this purpose. The amount to be spent in the support of scientific research and professional education is to be determined year by year by the university and will no doubt increase as new opportunities are presented. Additional gifts will no doubt be sought and obtained as in other activities of the university. Third, all of the independent resources of the hospital will now be available for the care of the sick. Pavilions, wards, and beds may be endowed in the knowledge that what is given for such purposes will go farther than heretofore, because the pathological and bacteriological research which stands behind the treatment to be given to their occupants, and even oversight of surgical and medical treatment which they receive, are provided by funds already given by others.

This agreement, therefore, and the generous gifts, which although historically subsequent to the first stages of the negotiations may be considered an integral part of the plan, represent a distinct departure in the medical administration of New York hospitals, and a notable landmark in the development generally of the relations between the medical school and the hospital on this continent. The Rockefeller Institute has created its extraordinary model hospital, primarily to serve its original scientific purposes. Johns Hopkins University and Hospital in Baltimore have long stood as the closest approximation to an ideal relation between the two institutions, and the resulting contributions, both to social service and to science, are too well known to require rehearsal. There are several similar instances of affiliation, as at the University of Michigan and in Philadelphia. To these has now been added an example of sound organization, whether considered from the side of science or from that of philanthropy, different from the others because the conditions are different, and yet illustrating, as do the others, the principles on which progress and the greatest public service depend. Those principles should win wider recognition from the wisdom and foresight with which they have been applied in this instance.

We publish elsewhere the letter from Edward S. Harkness in which he sets forth the purposes of the gifts to which we have referred, and the conditions under which they are made. It would be difficult to find a clearer statement of the position which the medical schoo may legitimately occupy in the hospital, or a finer appreciation from one not a member of the medical profession of the "underlying province of medicine" and its real "mission to humanity."

THE DOCTORS BLACKWELL, FIRST WOMEN PHYSICIANS

The Women's Medical Association of New York City paid honor to the memory of Drs. Elizabeth and Emliy Blackwell at a meeting held at the New York Academy of Medicine on January 25. All women engaged in the practice of medicine, which has been opened freely to their sex only in the last few decades, owe much to these pioneers in the fight for women's educational rights, who faced many trials and gave long years of service for the sake of their sisters-to-be in a noble calling.



ELIZABETH BLACKWELL.

Sixty-three years ago, at the solicitation of an invalid friend and much against her personal inclination, Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell, after many rebuffs at better known schools, secured admission to the Medical Department of Geneva University. Dr. Stephen Smith, one of her classmates, gave tribute to the elevating influence of her presence in the lecture rooms and told how she won regard from those prepared to scoff at her. Alice Stone Blackwell drew a deft picture of the personal traits of the two sisters, who though fully aware of the importance of the pioneer work they were engaged in, were modest and home loving folk. Mrs. Henry Villard and Dr. Gertrude B. Kelly spoke from the knowledge gained by years of association with them, while Dr. Abraham Jacobi praised the Philadelphia doctors who gave encouragement to Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell when she was seeking admission to a medical school, and to those who helped her during the first years of her struggle for a practice.

Dr. William H. Welch, in what was perhaps the speech of the evening, summarized the constructive work performed by the sisters in spite of the most disheartening obstacles here and abroad. He gave them great credit for establishing the New York Infirmary for Women and Children which grew into a hospital and medical college for women as well. The first nurses in the Civil War came from this infirmary, and the Ladies' Sanitary Aid Commission grew from a meeting called at Cooper Union by those in charge of it. The Drs. Blackwell established a training school for nurses, started a system of lay visitors to the homes of the poor, opened a playground in the yard of the dispensary, founded the first chair of hygiene in a medical school, and the first four-year course in medicine. Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell early recognized the importance of a campaign of moral education. Her writings were thirty years in advance of her time, but one of her

EMILY BLACKWELL.

books, The Moral Education of the Young, has been republished and is a recommended reference book on the list of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. The book is now out of print.

Dr. Welch's address showed clearly how these sisters were not only pioneer physicians, but forerunners of the large group of social workers of today.

END OF CHICAGO GARMENT STRIKE

Forced into submission by the impossibility of continuing longer the bitter struggle against hunger and cold, the 20,000 garment workers who were still on strike in Chicago against the concerns belonging to the two associations of clothing manufacturers decided on February 3 to return to work unconditionally, on whatever terms their employers would offer.

This means that they go back individually, and that each for himself must secure whatever redress he can for grievances at this time or in the future, and must make his individual wage bargain. The organized employers in these two associations have thus succeeded in denying to their employes the right of organization, and in defying the plea of the workers and the overwhelming sentiment of the public for arbitration.

Except for the 10,000 strikers from the Hart, Schaffner and Marx establishment who secured arbitration, and several thousand other workers who secured favorable agreements with Sturm, Mayer and Company and other companies,[1] the strike has been lost. Yet, even among the 20,000 starved into submission—and the word starved is used here in its literal meaning—the gain in spirit and in learning how to stand by one another through a long and bitter struggle will scarcely be lost.

The action which ended the strike was taken suddenly without bringing into consultation the joint conference which included representation from the Women's Trade Union League and the Chicago Federation of Labor as well as the national executive committee of the Garment Workers, the local union, and the strikers' committee. This conference, with Pres. John Fitzpatrick of the Chicago Federation of Labor as chairman, was put in charge of the conduct of the strike in November. Without the efforts of the first two organizations mentioned, the strike could not possibly have been maintained, and the failure to consult Mrs. Raymond Robins, representing the Women's Trade Union League, and President Fitzpatrick is held to be the grossest sort of disloyalty to the two persons who have done the most to help the strikers. As members of the joint conference committee of four who brought about the settlement with Hart, Schaffner and Marx, and who were exhausting every effort to bring about similar settlements with other concerns, it is pointed out, they should have been kept in council at every turn. It is held, further, in Chicago, that lack of loyalty should not too hastily be charged to the rank and file; but still deeper suspicion should be directed at the part which has been played throughout the entire struggle by some of the officers of the

[1] See THE SURVEY for November 19, December 10, 17, 31, 1910, and January 21, 1911.

garment workers—one especially, as has already been pointed out in THE SURVEY, and his immediate followers have all along been accused of attempting to secure personal charge at the sacrifice of the best interests of the rank and file of the organization. This official's position has been under serious question since the strike of the garment workers in Chicago six years ago.

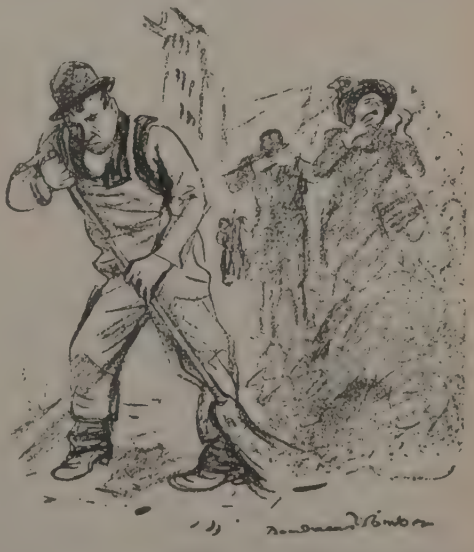
That the strikers had reached their last ditch was plain. Despite the continued contributions of public-spirited citizens who would not see the strike settled on a basis of physical endurance, and despite the support which came from many trade unionists, including the Hart, Schaffner and Marx employes as soon as they had returned to work, the funds for relief slowly dwindled until abject want stared into the faces of those who had been for twenty weeks unconquerable in their spirit of loyalty to one another. Finally, it is reported that at their meetings on February 3 they said it was no longer a physical possibility to keep up the fight, and that they asked of their leaders if they would be thought to be giving up their union principles if they went back to work to relieve their distress. The local leaders and Pres. T. A. Rickert of the Garment Workers of America said that they would not be considered disloyal, and the strike was thus at an end.

LEGISLATIVE BODY URGED ARBITRATION

The Hart, Schaffner and Marx workers have chosen Clarence Darrow as their representative on the arbitration committee to adjust their grievances and wages and to suggest means for dealing with grievances in the future. Representing the employers is Carl Meyer. These two attorneys are to choose the third member.

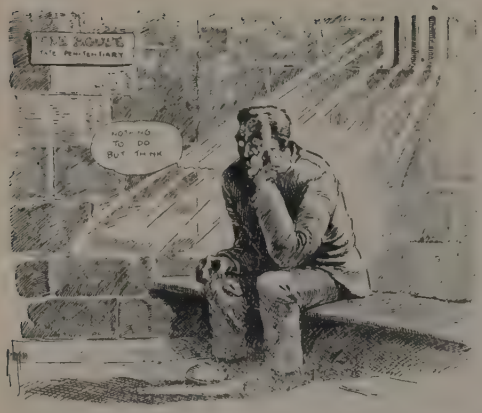
Much pressure for arbitration was brought to bear upon the employers belonging to the Wholesale Clothiers' Association and the National Wholesale Tailors' Association by the legislative commission appointed on January 16, following the organization early in the strike of an impartial voluntary citizens' committee and of the aldermanic committee. The legislative commission was created through a resolution passed by the state Senate, providing for the appointment of five senators to investigate conditions surrounding the strike, the efforts at settlement made by the State Board of Arbitration, and the proceedings of this board and of the other committees which had sought to study the strike and find some solution for it. The purpose was not only to help settle the strike, but "to bring about such legislation as will make arbitration compulsory by law." A delay in the appointment of the commission occasioned much comment, owing to the fact that Secretary J. Mack Glenn of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association had hastened to Springfield just after the action by the Senate. It was openly charged on the floor of that body that his influence had been used to check or delay action.

The hearings before this commission, held in Chicago, directed especial attention to the records found in the central employment bureau maintained by the so-called "association houses." Thorough questioning with reference to secret markings on the cards in the catalog of



Robinson in New York Tribune.

In the *Tribune's* series of city nuisances, first place was given to dry street sweeping. Alternating wet and dry days in New York make the streets dusty as summer for frequent intervals, but the sweeper is not preceded by a sprinkler as in the months officially dry.



Cleland in Columbus Dispatch.

IDLE HANDS.

The plight of the man who is not only in prison but has nothing to occupy him has been discussed in many states. The Ohio Legislature has been urged to provide employment.

applicants brought out the practical admission that information was recorded bearing upon the union attitude of the applicant, and whether he was known to be an agitator. Repeated statements in the newspapers by the chairman of the commission denounced the employers in no uncertain terms for their refusal to submit to arbitration their differences with their employes. Equally strong were the statements of the citizens' committee, signed by Sophonisba P. Breckenridge, Anna E. Nicholes and Prof. George H. Mead of the University of Chicago. Progressive labor legislation is not unlikely to follow in the wake of the Chicago strike. With public sentiment stirred all over the state, the time seems opportune for a vigorous movement in behalf of the amendments which the Women's Trade Union League proposes to the ten-hour law regulating women's work. As already pointed out in THE SURVEY,[1] it is hoped that the law can be changed so as to include all branches of women's work—adding department stores and other mercantile establishments to factories, workshops, and laundries as now provided. The hours per week are to be reduced to fifty-four if another amendment is secured.

Another agitation concerns a proposed law to establish a minimum wage board. In Wisconsin, following an investigation by the Consumers' League of Madison, Prof. John R. Commons is preparing such a law for submission to the Wisconsin Legislature. The results of this investigation and the draft of the law are to be made available for the campaign in Illinois.

[1]See THE SURVEY for December 3, 1910.

A SUCCESSFUL EXAMPLE OF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Non-union men in the plant of the American Steel and Wire Company at Waukegan, Ill., demonstrated in the past fortnight the value of collective bargaining. At the same time they proved that men of different foreign nationalities can stand together when it is necessary.

The wire drawers at the Waukegan plant are Slavs and Swedes, the latter being in the minority. The men claimed that for some time the rods had come to the drawing department in such a condition as to retard its operation and so to reduce their earnings, since they are on piece work. They claimed that hooks had lately been installed above the frames at such a point as to endanger their eyes as they moved about at their work. There was also a misunderstanding about the scale of wages. So they appointed a committee of four Slavs and one Swede to secure an adjustment of grievances. The committee, fearing that Superindentent Waldeck might be unwilling to meet them, and feeling their lack of ability to use English, requested a local attorney to take up their grievances with the superintendent. Accordingly, a statement was sent the latter on Monday, January 23. No reply having been received up to Wednesday night 400 wire drawers went out on strike the next morning, January 26. On Saturday Superintendent Waldeck met the committee and granted all its requests, so that on Monday morning, January 30, one week after the original letter was sent, work was resumed.

The points raised in the strike were granted as reasonable and as intimately concerned with the welfare of both the company and the employes. Had there been a permanent committee representing the men and recognized as such

by the management, so that the grievances could have reached the superintendent directly, there probably would have been no strike.

CLOAKMAKERS BEGIN WORK FOR SANITATION

In January the eight inspectors appointed by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control, which was established by the terms of settlement in the New York cloakmakers' strike last September and which is made up of Dr. George M. Price and Benjamin Schlesinger representing the union, Max Meyer and S. L. Silver representing the employers, and Lillian D. Wald, William J. Schieffelin and Henry Moskowitz representing the public, began the investigation of conditions within the shops, the first step toward establishing a standard of sanitation. John L. Turner is in charge of the force of inspectors and the board is to have the general advice of Professor Winslow of the College of the City of New York, of C. T. Graham Rogers of the State Department of Labor, on the subject of ventilation; of E. L. Elliot, editor of the *Illuminating Engineer,* on lighting, and of H. F. J. Porter on fire protection. The investigation will last through the season of rush work and the results, which will be made public, will be used as a basis for securing legislation on sanitation, light, and fire protection.

The work of the Sanitary Board, however, is not to be limited to the inspection of shops. A campaign of education in sanitary standards has been begun with the mass meeting of cloakmakers at Cooper Union about a month ago. This is the first of a series of meetings and it is hoped that through them and through articles in Yiddish and American papers, the board will be able to rally to the support of its sanitary ideals the rank and file of the workers in the clothing trades. The money needed for the work of the board has been supplied by equal contributions ($1,000) from the union and the manufacturers' association.

JUVENILE COURT OFFICERS CLEANING UP LEXINGTON

A strong wave of moral reform seems to have swept over Lexington, Ky., and the end is not yet. During the past four months several women, keepers of houses of ill-repute, or procurists, have been arrested for harboring young girls and boys, and have been fined from fifty to one hundred dollars and in some cases a jail sentence was imposed. A systematic series of raids has been made on twelve gambling places and fifteen wagon loads of gambling paraphernalia have been secured. Fines aggregating $3,750 have been imposed, three have been sentenced to a year each in the penitentiary, and five cases are yet to be tried at the next term of court.

When the cases came up for trial in the Circuit Court the keepers of gambling places presented a petition in which they promised to refrain forever from participating in gambling if immunity from the charges filed against them were granted. Judge Watts Parker of the Circuit Court refused to allow any compromise in the matter, which is in the hands of J. Percy Scott, judge, and Lawrence W. Mahn, chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court. Mr. Mahn was recently elected president of the State Conference of Charities and Correction.

Morgan in Philadelphia Inquirer.

THE PIED PIPER OF TODAY.

Philadelphia contributed $1,030,000 in fifteen days for the Y. M. C. A. building fund. In five and a half years over $12,000,000 has been raised by C. S. Ward, the "National Booster" for the Y. M. C. A., in nearly a hundred of the larger cities of the country.

Donahey in Cleveland Plain Dealer.

"IT'S YOUR MOVE."

Recent large gifts by Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Rockefeller have been seized upon by cartoonists and paragraphers as a "contest in philanthropy" in which the stakes were ten million dollars.

BALTIMORE CONFERENCE OF CHILD-CARING AGENCIES

The semi-centennial of the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society of Baltimore was fittingly celebrated last week by a three days' children's conference, with many speakers from without as well as within the city. The suggestion at the closing session that the seventy child-helping agencies which are co-operating through the Children's Bureau of Baltimore hold a general conference and exhibit next fall met with general approval. The work of the Henry Watson Children's Aid Society, which has been pushed forward with zeal and intelligence for more than half a century, and the new Children's Bureau of Baltimore organized last year, which was described by Louis H. Levin, were the chief local subjects discussed. Children's work in Baltimore, it would appear, is going forward in a promising spirit of co-operation.

The keynote of the conference was struck in the opening address on What Child-Caring Agencies May Do to Keep the Family Intact, by J. Prentiss Murphy of Philadelphia, who set a very high standard of obligation for those who presume to lay hold upon a helpless child and determine its whole future. High standards, too, formed the keynote of Dr. McKenna's address on the Catholic Children's Home Bureau. That the use of the family home for homeless children is not a modern invention he proved by quotations from the Church Fathers. High standards, again, were presented by Walter S. Ufford of the Washington Associated Charities, who urged specifically the supervision by responsible state agencies of all children's institutions, regardless of whether or not they receive public funds; and that this public supervision shall follow the child into its foster home.

Children's bureaus, national, state, and local, were discussed by Homer Folks of the New York State Charities Aid Association. The need for such agencies and the impossibility of standardizing children's work without them was strongly put, but Congress, he said, the state legislatures, and the county boards are all disposed to shift upon the other fellow the responsibility for their establishment.

Some very concrete reasons for a clearing house, such as a children's bureau would establish, were given by Edwin D. Solenberger from the experience of the Philadelphia Children's Bureau, which was created by the joint action of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, the Philadelphia Society for the Protection of Children, and the Seybert Institution. Mr. Levin's address on the Baltimore Bureau completed the testimony of the value of a central agency, not only for registration—which of course is of great value—but in constructive work for the improvement of child-helping methods and for the benefit of the children.

Another session was devoted to the essential principles of juvenile court work, in which Judge T. J. C. Williams of Baltimore, Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation, Judge William H. DeLacy of Washington, and Brother Paul of St. Mary's Industrial School of Baltimore participated.

THIRD WEEK OF THE CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

To the social worker whose mind is apt to be concentrated on the discouraging aspects of the child problem, the conferences on museums and libraries at the Child Welfare Exhibit, New York, was in some ways the most interesting of last week's sessions. The speakers had been

in a position to watch the expanding of the child's mind in a favorable environment, divorced, to some extent at least, from the unfavorable conditions of its home life. John S. Billings, head of the New York Public Library, traced the growth of the children's library from the time when the first room was set aside for children in a Massachusetts public library, through the removal of a lower age limit in New York city libraries up to the present time, when no public library is built without a room set apart for children. Mary W. Plummer, director of the Pratt Institute Library School, which has one of the oldest of these children's rooms in New York, told of the effect on both mind and manners of such a room, furnished with the means of intellectual appeal through pictures and books, with story-tellers to stimulate interest, help concentrate attention, and arouse thought, and friendly librarians to encourage and assist. The Brooklyn Children's Museum, the only thing of the kind in the world—a house set apart in a beautiful park and full of everything that could interest the child in science or history, from a working beehive to a wireless telegraph station where a boy can experiment and make his own apparatus—was described by the director, Anna B. Gallup. At both the Children's Museum and the Children's Room of the Natural History Museum, which Agnes L. Roesler described, the child is allowed to handle the specimens he is studying, to listen to informal talks by the director, and himself to take part in discussions. Mary E. Fenton told of the work of the Metropolitan Art Museum in making the art of the centuries the possession of the public school child. All these institutions, as well as the Bronx Zoological Garden, about which Prof. N. L. Britton spoke, co-operate with the public schools by lectures, by conducting classes through the exhibits, and by lending collections of specimens. Other speakers on libraries and museums were Prof. C. E. A. Winslow of the College of the City of New York and Robert W. de Forest, who contrasted the intellectual resources of the city child today with the lack of them in his own youth. Professor Winslow's figures and a set of interesting slides of the public libraries gave a vivid picture of the vast numbers of children who avail themselves of these resources.

Jane Addams, John Elliot, and Robert A. Woods were the principal settlement workers who spoke at the conference on that phase of social work, and Mrs. Joseph Bowen told how the settlement spirit of neighborliness and protection of the child from evil influences had been spread throughout a whole city by the work of the Juvenile Protective Association of Chicago.

Four of the week's sessions were devoted to food and health. Dr. S. Josephine Baker told of what has been done and what remains to be done by the Bureau of Child Hygiene of the Department of Health. Prof. C. E. A. Winslow urged the introduction into the public school system of a sensible course in sanitation and hygiene, and Dr. Charles E. North of the Department of Health told something of the milk problem in New York and the efforts of the city to deal with it.

Midway between the discussion by Dr. Thomas Wood of food and hygiene for the child, and the care of the sick child which was treated by Dr. J. W. Ellis, Dr. Henry Koplik and Lillian D. Wald, came Dr. Ottolengi's talk on dental hygiene, the introduction of which into the public schools, he maintained, would prove one of the greatest single means of lessening disease and improving nutrition. Dr. Ira S. Wile, in his paper on the causes of infant mortality, held that the most fundamental of these causes was low wages, with its concomitants of room congestion and malnutrition. He summed up the cure for an excessive death rate among infants as real motherhood made possible by an improved industrial system.

Miss Van Blarcom's paper on *ophthalmia neonatorum*, with gonorrhea, together with the carelessness of midwives who do not apply the simple cure, as its cause, was closely connected with the discussion of sex hygiene by Dr. Prince A. Morrow and Dr. Richard C. Cabot. Dr. Morrow based his appeal for sex hygiene on the suffering and death that immorality brought to the innocent, and

the heavy burden of dependent or semi-dependent degenerates it brought upon the state. Though his appeal was upon the ground of health, it was the health of others, and as such it was fundamentally an appeal to the sense of responsibility. This element of moral responsibility did not, however, seem to Dr. Cabot to be sufficiently strongly brought out. He feared that the health problem in venereal diseases, which medical discoveries might soon find an easy way of solving, was in danger of thrusting morality and the sacredness of personality into the background. He urged the heavy responsibility on educators of bringing out this moral aspect of the problem.

At the sessions on child labor Mary Van Kleeck treated the subject of tenement house work, Zenas Potter, field agent of the New York Child Labor Committee, the subject of street work, and Phoebe J. O'Connell of the Alliance Employment Bureau, the problem of the girl worker. In Mrs. O'Connell's opinion the years between fourteen and sixteen were of so little economic value to either the girl or her employer that it would, in the long run, benefit the community to raise the minimum working age to sixteen. This belief, indeed, ran through the whole discussion of child labor. James Gernon, chief mercantile inspector, told of the difficulty of enforcing the law, and A. J. McKelway and Pauline Goldmark spoke of the economic wastefulness of child labor, the latter instancing the feather and the artificial flower industries. In these trades the work of children has not only reduced earnings (in the case of feathers, a job which formerly paid fifteen cents now pays three), but had so lowered the grade of work turned out that the United States can no longer compete with France. Mrs. Florence Kelley, as well as Miss Goldmark, urged the minimum wage as a means of preventing tenement work, and an extension of the New York child labor law so that it would specifically cover children working in the sheds of canneries, who are now by a legal quibble without the sphere of its protection. She also expressed the hope that the enormous expenditure for the present exhibit would lead to some definite results, and suggested as objects to be worked for improvement and better enforcement of the street trading law, and the establishment of a city department of recreation to provide a normal and happy use of that part of the child's day which is not spent on study.

NEBRASKA CONSPIRING TO "HEAD OFF THE SLUMS"

In the questions discussed and in the emphasis placed on preventive work, the State Conference of Charities and Correction, held the latter part of January in Lincoln, brought out strikingly the similarity of problems in Nebraska and in older commonwealths of the East. The program might have been given in almost any state. This was particularly true of the address by Prof. Lucile Eaves on the importance of playgrounds as a part of public education; by Mrs. K. R. T. Edhold on the responsibility of the community to prevent tuberculosis, and by W. E. Hardy on insanitary housing. Mr. Hardy urged that Nebraskan communities take warning from the larger cities of the country where congestion has gone further, and frame laws that will act as preventives.

Mayor Love of Lincoln in his address on public charities returned to Miss Eaves's theme when he said that prevention is more important than relief; that with public amusement to offset the saloon we shall ultimately be able to abolish the poorhouse. But since the poorhouse and other public charities are at the present time necessary, he urged that poor relief be not given in the present haphazard manner, but administered through organized charity. The Rev. A. F. Wheatley told of the placing-out system in the State Home for Children, now used so extensively that the buildings are growing too large for their occupants.

Following the addresses by E. R. Gibson and Margaret Carus on probation, State Senator G. F. King struck an unfamiliar note in opposing an increase of the probation system, on the ground that in Nebraska it would increase the tend-

ency toward lawbreaking, which in his judgment is a characteristic of the American people. His reason was that the average county judge is ignorant and incapable of using the probation system with discretion.

Other subjects discussed were the white slave trade, the securing of a state board of charities and a farm colony and reformatory for young men, extending the system of suspended sentence, providing paid probation officers, and establishing a system of state factory inspection, all of which were made the subjects of resolutions passed by the conference.

DR. ELIOT'S PLAN TO TEACH SEX HYGIENE

The annual conference of the American School Hygiene Association in New York last week was the occasion of a careful paper by Charles W. Eliot on school instruction in hygiene. This body of educators and physicians has left off discussing whether or not sex hygiene should be taught, and addressed itself to the method of teaching. This is perhaps no less significant of the times than the fact that the subject was presented by an ex-president of Harvard University in such way as to attract the attention of the whole school world.

Dr. Eliot finds only two objections to the teaching of sex hygiene in schools. The first is that it is an unclean subject about which we should continue our world-old conspiracy of silence. A sufficient answer to this objection is its universal failure, he said. The second objection is that such instruction should be given to children only by their parents. To this opinion Dr. Eliot would subscribe—and gladly subscribe because the talking over of such vital matters between mother and child would establish a new and stronger bond than ever—were it not for the fact that "the great majority of parents do not now possess the necessary knowledge or the faculty of expression," and for the number of families lacking father or mother. Therefore, he argued, school instruction in the subject is necessary. We have given up trying to teach reading and physiology at home; why cling to another and equally important subject which most of us do not even pretend to teach our children?

An exact outline for such teaching may not yet be made, but the general lines may be laid down with confidence, Dr. Eliot said. The first essential is prolonged teaching of natural history, beginning early with botany, going on to the elements of zoölogy, "both subjects being taught in the most complete manner possible with incessant illustration indoors and out-of-doors." With this should be associated geography, and in rural schools agriculture.

Based on this nature study should be demonstration of the various modes of transmitting life which is the highest and ultimate bodily function of every plant and every animal, including man. Demonstration of the various processes of producing plant life can be carried on with the greatest exactness, and to this a few years later can be added the animal world. Dr. Eliot said:

> These subjects if properly taught with collecting box, scalpel, microscope and paper and pencil are just as pure and innocent for children under thirteen as chemistry or physics are. There is nothing sensual or unclean about them, nothing which does not tell of order, purpose, adaptation, co-operation, and achievement. Through much of the botanical instruction and more of the zoölogy runs the thought that the transmission of life requires two individuals of different quality. Children should be made thoroughly acquainted with this principle before any sex emotions begin to stir in them.

Following the zoölogy should be physiology, in which the courses should be enriched by greater instruction concerning the "causes of disease, including the recognized contagions and the modes of infection," in which the venereal diseases should receive their proper place. Further, Dr. Eliot held that "all schools should teach explicitly in due season those elements of good manners and customs which have to do with health and the preservation of bodily and mental purity."

Finally Dr. Eliot urged the single standard of morals for men and women—a subject which he has persistently and skillfully presented before many kinds

of audiences the past few months. He said:

> Does anyone protest that this educational process will abolish innocence in young manhood and womanhood and make matter of common talk the tenderest and most intimate concerns in human life, let him consider that virtue, not innocence, is manifestly God's object and end for humanity, and that the only alternative for education in sex hygiene is the prolongation of the present awful wrongs and woes in the very vitals of civilization.

EDITORIAL GRIST

FATAL POSTAL ECONOMY

FLORENCE KELLEY

The federal government has undertaken the cost of maintenance in Washington, D. C., for five years of Albert Dewey Carter, a twelve-year-old boy whose parents live in Beaumont, Tex. The federal officials in the District of Columbia charged with caring for him during the years of adolescence seem to know nothing whatever of the boy's previous education or family history. He was brought to them from Beaumont by a police officer, at the expense of the government.

The cost of maintenance for five years of Albert Dewey Carter will not appear in the records of the Post Office. The burden is, however, placed upon the Federal Treasury by the action of the postal authorities in entrusting to this young child special delivery letters. He opened a letter and abstracted five dollars from it. His sentence is thus one year for each dollar entrusted to him.

The employment of a young child for the responsible task of delivering special letters containing money and other valuables was obviously for the purpose of saving money, which would have had to be paid as salary to an adult, uniformed letter carrier, duly appointed under the civil service requirements, at a salary fixed by law. Could anything have been more cruelly self-defeating?

The institution in which this twelve-year-old boy will spend the coming five years is the National Training School, made up of about 350 boys varying in age from this newest and youngest pupil to candidates for dismissal by reason of their approaching twenty-first birthday. The school receives offenders from any state which has no training school of its own, and from the District of Columbia, whence only those boys, white and black, are committed to it upon whom the beneficent resources of probation have been exhausted in vain by Judge de Lacy.

Such is the companionship into which this child is thrown in consequence of the attempted economy of the postal authorities.

The public is entitled to know whether other boys in this school are victims of the Post Office Department.

Every citizen who objects to having registered and special delivery mail thus treated with less respect than ordinary mail might well address a protest to Postmaster General Hitchcock. Every one who objects to this sacrifice of a child to a cruel experiment in false economy on the part of the richest government in the world should be heard from in unmistakable terms.

FRANCIS A. FOY: PRIEST PATRIOT, FRIEND[1]

HUGH F. FOX

What a baffling thing it is to try to picture such a man as Father Foy! Was it his training, his experience, his calling, or all combined, which made him so rounded and composite a character?

Father Foy began his career as a lawyer in South Jersey, and cut his political wisdom teeth as secretary to United States Senator Smith. The caution of the lawyer and the conservatism of the priest tempered wisely his discretion without checking his initiative. His wise head and warm heart balanced each other so thoroughly that sympathy and sanity were one with him, and though he was ever open-minded, his attitude was

[1]Father Foy died December 11, 1910, at the age of fifty-three.

eminently judicial. But he was an inscrutable sort of man. In spite of many years of close association and friendship with him, he remained something of a mystery. With all his good-fellowship in personal contact, he maintained a sort of detachment and reserve. I imagine that only those who came to him in deep sorrow, or great difficulty, really sounded the depths of his being.

Father Foy bore a personal part in so many matters of social welfare in New Jersey that it is difficult to find just the right niche for him. Perhaps he was most actively and constantly identified with the Catholic Children's Aid Society of New Jersey, which is doing the work of home-finding and child-placing for the Catholic institutions, and combines the functions of a Children's Aid Society and a Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. He served as secretary of the New Jersey State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association for four years, and was associate editor of the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Correction* which is its organ. He was the president of the New Jersey State Conference in 1908. Perhaps the trend of his mind is best indicated by the following passage from his address on The Value of the Conference:

> This conference is essentially a forum of the people, and as such it discusses questions of vital importance to the various communities and to the state. Social problems can be solved only by the social mind. The individual may help in these solutions, but his conclusions will be of no practical value until they have been incorporated into that community of thought which is ever striving for a clearer comprehension of social needs. And when this collective thinking has done its work—when the solution has been reached—there is no power in the world that can destroy the principle or proposition which embodies such a conclusion. Moreover, these solutions are dynamic in character, and will not rest until they have reached the stage of constructive reality. You will remember the years of debate and deliberation over the question of sheriffs' fees, the indeterminate sentence, and probation, juvenile courts, child-labor, and tenement house reform, and the supervision of charities. We cannot expect results without work, and time itself is an important factor in the solution of social problems.
>
> What we can all do is to apply ourselves to this work as opportunity may offer; and the object of these conference gatherings is to afford just such opportunities; for the expert who least of all is sure of his ground until it has been tramped on and tested by those who know conditions better than theories; for the worker whose methods must be brought to the test of a wider experience that they may gain in scientific value; for public officials and others whose duties in any wise touch on the safety and welfare of the people; and for the plain citizen whose routine of life must have many points of contact with the problems here discussed.

Father Foy stood for the spirit of research in such work, which he put upon the highest plane of humanitarian effort; and while he insisted upon economy and efficiency in the conduct of state institutions, he constantly urged that the state should make adequate provision for all of its wards, and that it should not merely build for this day and generation.

He was an active member of a number of the committees of the National Conference of Charities and Correction and of the American Prison Association, and was one of the leaders in the newly organized movement which resulted in the National Conference of Catholic Charities. He kept thoroughly abreast of the whole literature of social welfare and economics, but his attitude was that of a humble student who constantly seeks more light to guide his course. His wide knowledge and experience were recognized in his later years by the heads of the Catholic Church, who appointed him supervisor of catholic charities in the Newark diocese. While, however, he was a devout and faithful servant of his church, he was no less a servant of the whole community, for his sympathies were truly as broad as humanity itself. (Is it not a significant thing that the churches which are closest to the mass of the people, and which have the clearest understanding of human needs and weaknesses, should be so sane and tolerant in their views, and so particularly free from the theories of faddists or the vagaries of the cranks?)

The ministry of such a man as Father Foy has no end, for his works live after him.

UNEMPLOYED CROWD LODGING HOUSE

BAILEY B. BURRITT
Executive Secretary Committee on Criminal Courts

The Municipal Lodging House of New York was taxed beyond its capacity during the month of January for the first time since the opening of the new building in 1909. In many ways this is a model structure with accommodations for 700 persons. When the building was planned it was expected to accommodate for years to come all the persons in New York city in need of temporary shelter. During the last month, however, an average of about 125 persons each night have been turned away and accommodation has been given them in bare rooms on the Twenty-sixth street dock because there were no vacant beds in the lodging house. On January 15, of 982 persons provided with shelter, 286 were provided for on the dock. A comparison of the total census of the institution for the first twenty-one days of January for the last four years emphasizes the present overcrowded conditons. In 1908 this was 9,717; in 1909 it was 9,163; in 1910 it was 7,401; and in 1911 it was 16,995.

This high mark for 1911 is due in part to the Ashokam dam and other extensive public improvements which have attracted a large number of unskilled laborers, many of whom are without resources when work ceases for the winter; in part possibly to the increased cost of living, which is making it increasingly impossible for men to find a means of support whenever they are thrown temporarily out of work; and in part to the fact that the magistrates, for some reason, have committed to the workhouse as vagrants fewer than usual of the men taken to court by the lodging house authorities for refusing to work in the stoneyard maintained by the Department of Public Charities, and for giving fictitious names and addresses which make it impossible for the lodging house to investigate their need and eligibility. In the winter of 1909-10, 637 persons were taken to court, 443 of whom were committed as vagrants. During the present winter 724 persons were taken and only 374 were committed. Failure to commit such persons results necessarily in the breakdown of discipline at the institution, as lazy men soon realize that refusal to work involves no punishment.

The lodging house authorities are confronted with a baffling problem. Several needed changes, however, suggest themselves. First of all, it is evident that the municipal authorities must provide greater facilities for temporarily employing homeless men who are unemployed and without resources. When properly inmates of the municipal lodging house, such men should be required to do a fixed amount of work each day in return for the city's bed and simple meals. This work should not require more than a half day's labor by able-bodied men, which gives them an opportunity to seek employment during the other half of each day. At present the city provides a stoneyard where a limited number of men break stone. Such facilities should either be extended or other work provided. The feeling is growing that the city must soon provide more productive work than stone-breaking.

A second needed change is a more careful investigation of cases to determine the needs of persons applying to the institution. The real vagrant, who is interested chiefly in avoiding work, would then either avoid the lodging house or strong evidence could be produced to show that he is a vagrant. This would result in his commitment to a penal institution.

A third important needed change suggested by this condition of affairs is the establishment of colonies for inebriates and vagrants. Many of the men who appear at the lodging house are either habitual drunkards or vagrants who should be committed on indeterminate sentences to farm colonies. The successful operation of such a colony at Witzwil, Switzerland, was described in THE SURVEY for February 4 by Prof. Frank A. Fetter. Witzwil and other similar colonies demonstrate the practicability and utility of such institutions. A law passed by the Legislature of 1910 authorizes the establishment of a hospital and industrial colony for inebriates by the city of New

York. Such a colony should be established forthwith. Further, legislation and necessary appropriations should be secured during the present winter to establish a state colony for vagrants. Efforts have been made for the past two years to secure such legislation. The new Democratic Legislature has an opportunity which it cannot afford to ignore.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT
Contributing Editor

PUNISHMENT AND REFORMATION. By Frederick Howard Wines, LL.D. Thomas Y. Crowell. New York. 1910. Pp. 370. Price $1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.88.

On the cover this is called a "Revised Edition"; but the hopes aroused by that description and the publishers' announcements are not fulfilled. The book is a "new, enlarged edition", as is stated on the title-page, but the original text has apparently not been changed.

The additional material consists of a preface, in which Dr. Wines suggests that there is need for "a new and distinct foundation which should devote its energies exclusively to the solution of the problem of crime"; and two papers prepared in 1904, on the Treatment of the Criminal, and The New Criminology.

In the wealth (or flood, eruption, landslide, if you prefer) of literature on social problems which has been issuing in the last ten years, there has been curiously little of a general or historical nature. Punishment and Reformation has not been supplanted by any other book. In view of this fact a reprint was most desirable, if the first edition was exhausted. It must be matter for regret, however, that Dr. Wines could not have revised it by including an adequate treatment of the developments of the last fifteen years. Looking up Courts in the index (which has not been made to include the two additional papers, by the way), we find the sub-headings Assyrian, Ecclesiastical, Hebrew, Origin of; but not Domestic Relations, Juvenile, Night, Reforms in, and so on. Indeed, reading through the index and noting omissions gives a thrilling sense of the progress that has been made since 1895, and strengthens the conviction that it deserves a historian and interpreter.

BETTER TIMES. By David Lloyd George, M. P. Hodder and Stoughton. George H. Doran Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 326. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.08.

This collection of public speeches by the English chancellor of the exchequer gives the liberal policy of social and fiscal reform, with its underlying principle of taxing unearned increment, in such a form that he who runs may read. The treatment of various problems, notably unemployment, is, perhaps for this reason, inadequate. We are reminded, too, of the criticism made in the English newspapers of the accuracy of some of Mr. George's instances of untaxed land drawing a large income. But the strength of campaign speeches is ability to make telling points in a vivid, colloquial style that will catch the attention of an uncritical audience; and that strength these speeches have to a high degree.

In his introductory note Mr. George makes the point that his program of social reform dates back to long before 1909, that is, that the proposals in the first budget were not simply an electioneering expedient to catch votes for the Liberal Party. Evidence of this appears both in speeches as far back as 1903 and also in the tone of personal sincerity, at times hotspur enthusiasm, in some of the later speeches. In view of this personal sincerity it is disappointing to note those compromises of principle in later speeches which "practical politics" demanded. At Newcastle in 1903, for instance, Mr. George says that sixty-five years is too high a mimimum for the old age pension, because "large masses of the working people would not live long enough to benefit by it." In April, 1909, on the other hand, he combats the suggestion that the age limit should be reduced from the still higher minimum of seventy years on the ground not only that it is financially impracticable, but that many are still able to labor at that age.

By far the most interesting of the collection are the speeches on the budget.

SUGGESTIONS FOR SOCIAL HELPFULNESS. By Rev. D. J. Fleming, M.A., M.Sc. Nateson and Company. Madras, India. 1910.

The suggestions are intended for native students of the Christian colleges in India going back to their villages, and are "written with the conviction that intelligent and effective community life is one of the real aims of education." Much space is given to descriptions by students of attempts they have made to pass on to their families and neighbors what they have learned, "rehearsing before them the news of the scientific world," taking pains to make their words "stand on the same footing," replacing superstitious explanations of natural phenomena by scientific ones, spending days walking from village to village to get signatures to a petition for a primary school, loaning good books in the vernacular to the villagers who can read, showing magic lantern pictures, teaching games of skill to replace those of chance, distributing quinine and getting ponds filled up in malarial districts, starting a crusade against rats, creating a desire for drains and helping to dig them, getting sick children into the hospital in spite of parents' superstitious fears, and doing many other things familiar and unfamiliar to social workers of the new world.

Practical outlines are given for studies by individuals or groups of many social problems, adapted to the condition of the country and with references to obtainable literature.

It is pleasant to have the author's assur-

ance that THE SURVEY has been a real stimulus and help in getting out this little manual for the use of Indian students."

WHAT DIANTHA DID. By Charlotte Perkins Gilman. The Charlton Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 250. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

What she did was to solve the domestic service problem, for both mistress and maid, in a southern California town. Incidentally she released much genius which had been seemingly misplaced in household drudges, translating its possessors and their husbands and children from a state of discontent to one of happiness and efficiency; and she illustrated in her own life Mrs. Gilman's theory that a wife, mother, and housekeeper can easily be also a business man.

As a novel the book has slight merit. The personalities do not interest, in spite of the interesting emotions and ideas ascribed to them; and there are minor defects, such as changing the name of a character, which bespeak hasty writing.

The solution Mrs. Gilman proposes is "not that oft repeated, foredoomed failure called co-operative housekeeping"; for "the inefficiency of a dozen tottering households is not removed by combining them." She maintains, on the contrary, that "every family is a distinct unit . . . Its needs are separate and should be met separately." But "we are rapidly approaching an improved system of living in which the private home will no more want a cookshop on the premises than a blacksmith's shop or soap-factory. The necessary work of the kitchenless house will be done by the hour, with skilled labor; and we shall order our food cooked instead of raw. This will give to the employes a respectable, well-paid profession, with their own homes and families; and to the employers a saving of about two-thirds of the expense of living, as well as an end of all our difficulties with the servant question."

A saving certainly, but "two-thirds"?

COMMUNICATIONS

AN IMMIGRANT LABOR TARIFF

TO THE EDITOR:

From his breezy blitheness, from his ingenuous brushing aside of all "legal and administrative obstacles in the way," and from his vigorous, convincing suggestions of the terrible pressure of recent immigrant labor upon American wage standards, one is led to suspect the author of An Immigrant Labor Tariff (in your issue of January 7) of being either a gentle humorist or a trenchant advocate. Either he plays with us, or he disguisedly advocates a policy of complete exclusion of all alien labor.

He proposes a law compelling all corporations and contractors of corporations to pay $2.50 per day to each immigrant employe who has been in this country less than five years. Such a law, fairly administered, he seems to believe would both secure decent livelihood to immigrants then employed by corporations or contractors, and lead many more immigrants to seek country employment.

Hundreds of thousands of immigrant common laborers come into the United States yearly. The great majority of these are unprepared and unwilling to go to American farms. Further, American farms and farming communities prefer not to have most of these immigrants. On the other hand, the mass of these immigrants seek city employment and city corporations and contractors seek them. This has been so persistently true that corporate labor markets are already well supplied.

Taking labor conditions as they are in the United States, probably not 5,000 of the more than 500,000 alien common laborers annually entering this country would be employed at all by corporations or by contractors if they had to be paid $2.50 per day. This novel minimum wage plan, then, granting that its legal and administrative obstacles resolved themselves, would take away from immigrants the jobs they now seek, and would make it impossible for them to live here in city centers, which they wish to do. It would thus be virtually prohibitive of further alien common labor immigration.

Perhaps this conclusion may be more clearly demonstrated by assuming its opposite and then noting the *reductio ad absurdum* which follows. Grant that all legal and administrative obstacles were resolved and that the plan worked so that immigrant common laborers actually got their desired city jobs at $2.50 per day. More than half a million job-hungry immigrant common laborers enter yearly now. With assurance of $2.50 each per day, this number would double, treble, multiply indefinitely. But to assume a power to dictate almost doubled wages at the same time that a vastly increased labor supply is lured into the country is rather obviously to assume contradictories.

The plan, then, granting its feasibility, seems to promise practically complete restriction of all immigrant labor. But who cares to grant its feasibility? It is refreshing exercise for the imagination to endeavor to conjure up that social Sherlock Holmes who would suddenly and mysteriously appear among a thousand steel workers, point his shapely index at Jan Jansen, Olin Olsen or Luigo Palermi and say tragically: "You are an alien. You haven't been in this country five years. You are not getting two and a half per. Drop that billet and hike for Minnesota furrows or back to dull Europe for you." The federal government would have to subsidize a secret service big brother to shadow constantly each individual alien admitted after the passage of this law for minimum alien wage, or the law would be so dead a letter that even its fond parent could not recognize the remains.

Either the proposal is feasible or it is not feasible. If feasible, it effectually stops substantially all alien immigration of the present common labor class. If not feasible, it accomplishes nothing save to add to the gayety of nations by engrossing yet another wholly ornamental law. Its proposer certainly would not seriously advocate it in the latter case. If he believes it to be feasible and if he sees its then virtually prohibitive character, why does he wander after so strange gods? Why does he not favor the much simpler and readily feasible, even though sadly less original, plan of frankly prohibiting any further immigration of alien common laborers?

Possibly such a plan, rigidly enforced, would lift the blinding fog now enwrapping the American laborer and would give him chance again to locate his fixed stars and to get his industrial and social bearings. If common labor immigration were wholly stopped, even for a single decade, there might then be reason to discuss the desirability of legalizing a fairly high minimum wage for all American common labor—a hopeless ideal so long as the annual inflood of a near million job-seeking aliens continues.

The advocate of this novel panacea for industrial ills is resourceful and of infinite wit. Possibly he may insist that to get the full force and beauty of his scheme we must assume not only that "on analysis the legal and administrative obstacles in the way will resolve themselves," but that all economic obstacles will also considerately dissipate themselves and resign precipitately in favor of this "bristling idea." If thus he insists, let us withdraw quietly lest we disturb the Reformer's Dream.

WALTER E. CLARK.
Department of Political Science, College of the City of New York.

TO THE EDITOR:

The strongest paragraph in Mr. Kellogg's suggestive article, An Immigrant Labor Tariff, the one which all thinking men must endorse, is the assertion that cheap products are dearly bought by the nation if they are produced at the sacrifice of human happiness and decency. The various proposals for restricting immigration by tests have, as pointed out, distinct disadvantages from the standpoint of social justice—the immigrant who comes to us uneducated may never have enjoyed any educational opportunity. He may have qualities, pre-eminently character, which will make him a valuable citizen. Moreover, the children of such immigrants, under the advantages offered in America, do acquire education.

The proposition Mr. Kellogg advances, minimum wage for immigrants for the first five years of residence, is open to the objection that often it would prevent their getting work and would make of many such immigrants a public charge, involving serious hardships upon them before they appealed to public charity.

Is it not better to attack the whole problem from an entirely different side, *i. e.*, the side of numbers? Have we not a perfect right to determine how many immigrants we will receive each year and to designate specifically the number that may come from each country, giving preference to the hardiest races? Let us say, merely by way of illustration, that we will take only one-fifth of the number who came to us during 1910 and apportion that fifth not only to countries, but to specific sections of certain countries, such as the north, in preference to the south, of Italy.

The process of selection, by which we aim to receive only immigrants sound in mind and body as well as of good character, might well be revised from time to time in the light of experience. But superimposed upon all such selection should be the determination of the maximum number which we are willing to receive annually. The philosophy underlying such a proposition is that abundance of good land, other things being equal, makes for the happiness and welfare of the community more stoutly than any other single factor of economic activity. To continue to admit the present flood of immigrants is to hasten the day when our country shall be overcrowded. This means not only throwing away the inheritance of our children, but bringing measably nearer the trying social conditions which so many European countries are compelled to face.

THEODORE MARBURG.
Baltimore, Md.

CONVALESCENT MEN FOR NEWSBOYS

TO THE EDITOR:

The regulation of children in the street trades has been the subject of recent legislation in a few states and in several cities. Most important of the street trades, as far as children are concerned, is the sale of newspapers and periodicals. The dangers incurred in this occupation have been clearly demonstrated in your magazine. At present we are unable to control this type of work under our child labor laws, owing to a legal technicality which makes newsboys independent merchants. There is no reason why newspapers should have the privilege of virtually employing child labor, with slight restrictions, save that this work does not interfere with the child's school attendance, nor confine him indoors.

Our hospitals are continually turning out tuberculosis patients as "cured" or with "disease arrested." These men are sent home without means of support, though they are seldom capable of immediate self-maintenance. Occasionally there is temporary, outdoor relief from municipal, county, or private sources, but the ex-patients are expected to shift for themselves all too soon. The greater number of them return, logically, to their former occupations, where conditions so favorable to the disease as to have overcome healthy individuals in the first place, make short work of the convalescent.

Now the question I wish to raise is, why not do away with both of these evils at once, by letting the discharged tuberculosis patients take the place of the newsboys? Some such suggestion was made by Mrs. Florence Kelley at a meeting of the National Child Labor Committee, March, 1909, (see Supplementary Annals of the American Academy, p. 235, vol. 33.) but does not seem to have received further consideration. The outdoor work is just what the convalescents need to complete their recovery, and would not their substitution for the children solve the street trades problems as far as newspaper selling is concerned?

This program might be carried out by either a state or municipal licensing system, provided that the police power so exercised did not seriously interfere with individual or property rights. The jurisdiction of municipalities, as trustees for the public, varies with their charters. In most cases the fee to the property extends to the middle of the thoroughfare, and the public has an easement for traffic purposes. The decision has been rendered that "on the general question as to the rights of the public in a city street, we cannot see any material difference in the principle with regard to the extent of the rights, whether the fee is in the public, or in the adjacent landowner, or in some third person." (Barney *vs.* Keokuk, 94 U. S. 324, 1877, Dillon, Sects 689-99; quoted by Ernst Freund, Police Power p. 147.) The municipality has the right to regulate who shall sell on its thoroughfares. "It is not one of the purposes for which streets are established, to afford a convenient place to expose merchandise for sale" (Ibid p. 173 (*et seq.*) It has been held that peddling on the streets may be made dependent or licensed (Re. Nightingale, 11 Peck. 168) or entirely prohibited, (Commonwealth *vs.* Fenton, 139 Mass. 195; White *vs.* Kent, 11 Ohio, St. 550).

Surely property owners would have no ground for complaint as the pavement would not be blocked to any greater extent than at present. Indeed, instead of roaming youngsters, there would be responsible grown men at fixed stations.

The sales of newspapers would not be affected to a noticeable extent, as a remarkably small part of the street sales are made to transients, persons who do not buy from the same person, at the same corner, every day. The circulation managers estimate that only four per cent of the Milwaukee papers sold come under this head, and that most, if not all, of these would be sold to the same people at regular places, if no others were provided.

It would not be dangerous to the public health, for the patients dismissed from the hospitals would either be completely cured, or would have been taught how to protect the public from contagion if their recovery were not complete. Aside from these considerations, the open air would practically prevent danger of infection.

There are still some questions to be settled before this suggestion could be carried out. That licensing can be required is true, but would it be possible to add a restriction to the law favoring one class of applicants against another? This might be avoided if, without a specific clause in the law, the custom of licensing ex-patients were established. Is it justifiable, or even possible, to drive the present occupant of a corner out of business by refusing him a permit? Would it be possible for a state to protect such a monopoly? Would it not be manifestly unfair to give to one man a corner that would net him fifty dollars a week, and to another, a corner netting only fifteen dollars a week?

If these objections can be overcome and the plan is found to be feasible, two laws should be presented to the various legislatures in session this year: first, one forbidding children from engaging in street trades, at least in the business districts of cities; and second, one licensing this semi-dependent class. The public would receive better service, the children would be protected, and a large group of men made self-supporting.

Madison, Wis. ALEXANDER FLEISHER.

GIRLS AS NEWSBOYS

TO THE EDITOR:

In THE SURVEY for December 31, I find an account of the adoption in Hartford, at the instance of the Juvenile Commission, of an ordinance regulating street sales by children. From the last paragraph it might be inferred that the clause in the ordinance which requires the superintendent of schools to issue licenses regardless of the sex of the child was inserted by recommendation of the Juvenile Commission. This was not the case. The clause was put in by the committee on ordinances of the Common Council at the suggestion of the mayor.

The Juvenile Commission was unanimous in its judgment that no girl should be permitted to sell papers or other articles on the street. The commission was led to this judgment by a very careful investigation of the newsgirl conditions in Hartford made by Mary Graham Jones, a member of the commission and head worker of the Hartford Social Settlement, a close personal friend of many newsgirls for the last twenty years. Her investigation revealed facts so vile and revolting as to the demoralizing effect of newspaper peddling upon girls that the commission without hesitation took its position as opposed to this practice.

(Rev.) ROCKWELL HARMON POTTER,
President, Juvenile Commission,
Hartford, Conn.

WHOSE ARE THE STREETS?

TO THE EDITOR:

Your illustration of lower Fifth avenue at the noon hour, brings to mind all the foolish things that have been said and written about the invasion of this high-priced quarter by the garment workers.

Was it not plainly to be seen, when the new buildings east and west of Fifth avenue and on the avenue itself, at such streets as Eighteenth, were built, that they would be occupied in just such a manner? Then the factory law forbidding the eating of meals where the garments were made drove them out of the shops. Where were they to go? What provision was made to see that they had proper restaurants, rest rooms, or shelters? "Nowhere to go but out!" The street is their promenade as well as yours or mine, ladies and gentlemen. Under heaven, what law could prevent them using it?

If the great landowners did not want these harmless, hard-working people to wander in droves up and down this wide thoroughfare, crowding the fine ladies off the sidewalk and "killing" the avenue for retail trade, why did they not take steps to provide them with restaurants, reading-rooms, roof gardens (all these new buildings have flat roofs), and so on?

They have only themselves to blame. By illegal, repressive measures they have tried to drive these people off the streets, without giving them an alternative. And dearly have they paid for it in loss of trade and property values.

It is a wonderful sight to see them on a fine day, clear out to Broadway and Union Square. All are about of a size and mostly of one type. Little, flat-brimmed derby hats (where do they get them—you never see the like for sale?) Neatly dressed; starched shirts and collars, black coats. Many of them will be proprietors of shops in a year or two. They make wages that would seem fabulous at home, in Poland or Lithuania. Many of the rich men in the women's garment trades were journeymen only a few years ago.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

TEACHING PRISONERS

TO THE EDITOR:

Much more effective than correspondence courses for the inmates of prisons would be an extension of school work within the prisons to include all the inmates who wish to avail themselves of it. The prisons of New York have well organized schools, but for lack of room they are limited to the most needy men. Their work might be enlarged to include all men in prisons.

All the prisons have large libraries which might be utilized for educational purposes along various lines.

The educational work needed in the prisons cannot be done by correspondence. It must be largely personal and adapted to the special conditions. It must be done under the direction of expert and sympathetic teachers, fired with an altruistic spirit.

There is no more potent factor for social hygiene in the prisons than the schools. Their work should be extended until it reaches practically all the men.

There is probably no better school system to be found in penal institutions in any country than the one in operation in the New York prisons at Sing Sing, Auburn, and Clinton. The defect is in its limitation to less than one-third of the inmates.

A. C. HILL.

Albany.

DENTISTS AS SOCIAL WORKERS

TO THE EDITOR:

I note in your issue of THE SURVEY for December 31 a short article entitled Mouth Hygiene Mass Meeting. In this connection it may be of interest for you to know that the National Dental Association has a permanent committee upon this subject, of which Dr. W. G. Ebersole, of Cleveland, is chairman. For several years the association has been attempting to stimulate interest along these lines with some considerable degree of success.

In Cleveland there are clinics maintained in five or six schools, volunteers doing the work. In Cincinnati we have a clinic which is operated by paid workers, employing two graduate dentists and a woman who investigates cases, etc. In Dayton, Toledo and several other cities in Ohio, clinics are either operated or will be in a short time.

In addition, permanent "lecture committees" are at the disposal of the public. We address the school children and teachers, and hold exhibits similar in nature to those of the anti-tuberculosis movement.

I direct your attention to these facts in order that the public may know that this is a stable movement, which we expect to grow until free clinics are maintained as part of either the health department or public schools system of all municipalities.

SIDNEY J. RAUH.

Cincinnati.

REPORTING VENEREAL DISEASES

TO THE EDITOR:

Noticing in THE SURVEY for January 14 your article headed Responsibility Put up to the Department of Health, we beg to remind you that the organizations of women allied under the title at the head of this letter (The Women's Prison Association and Societies, Allied), at their meeting of October 14, 1910, passed the following resolution:

"Resolved, That health boards should place the venereal diseases upon the same status as all other contagious, infectious, and communicable diseases; should take the same measures against them, irrespective of class or sex, as are applied in the prevention of all other contagious, infectious, or communicable diseases, and should conduct in respect to them the same policy of instruction of the public as to the preventability of these diseases as is now conducted in respect to others." This resolution was followed by one demanding full and sufficient free, voluntary treatment of patients suffering from these disorders.

A printed account of the meeting referred to, with a full statement of the resolutions, was

sent to THE SURVEY immediately afterward, but no reference has been made to it, although it contained also reports of the workings of Clause 79 which were the first to be made public and were later substantiated by a SURVEY article; nor were the resolutions noticed. Assuming that you have not intentionally ignored the actions and resolutions which preceded the discussions at the December meeting of the American Society for Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, we ask you to print this letter for the sake of historical accuracy and completeness of record.

The Publicity Committee,
M. C. Walker, Alice L. Woodbridge, Jane D. Berry, M.D., L. L. Dock, R.N.

HOSPITAL AND UNIVERSITY[1]

ROBERT W. DE FOREST, ESQ.,
Chairman of the Building Committee
of the Presbyterian Hospital.

It has recently come to my attention that a basis of alliance has been suggested between the Presbyterian Hospital and the College of Physicians and Surgeons, the medical school of Columbia University, by prominent members of both institutions, subject to the settlement of details and to the approval of the governing boards of these institutions. This alliance is singularly in line with my own conception of the proper relations between hospital and medical school, and I should be glad to further it.

I have long been interested in that form of charity which has to do with the treatment of human ills, and latterly have become more and more impressed with the extent of the work that a hospital must do on the broadest scientific and practical lines, if it at all adequately uses its resources.

The scientific development of medicine has especially interested me recently, and I have become convinced that its real underlying province and mission to humanity lies more particularly in preventing disease than in merely curing it. All this has increased a growing desire I have had to contribute something which will materially increase the usefulness of a great hospital.

I am convinced that this scientific development can best be accomplished in the hospital and the medical school, and that the two are interdependent, the one on the other. The medical school constantly supplies the physicians and surgeons of the future, who in their early training must have every facility for practical experience and application, which they can only obtain at a hospital where they are taught by the practicing physicians and scientific men. The hospital supplies a vast amount of material for study and research, and should realize that, besides caring for the sick, it has a great obligation towards humanity to use this material both in the training of the younger men and in furthering discoveries in preventive medicine.

I believe that the visiting staff of a hospital does better work for its patients and that its members are kept more up to date, if they include teaching in conjunction with their duties than otherwise; that the hospital and patients directly benefit thereby, the former through attracting a better class of internes and attendants because of the teaching facilities, the latter through receiving more careful attention and the latest methods of treatment.

I realize that one of the Presbyterian Hospital's greatest needs in its new hospital plant is a surgical pavilion supplying ample bed facilities and embodying modern appliances.

With these needs in mind, I shall be glad to provide the cost of the erection, upon a site belonging to the hospital, of a surgical pavilion containing 150 beds, and equipped with modern appliances; and, conveniently accessible to this pavilion, a complete laboratory for advanced research work.

It also gives me pleasure to offer to the hospital, on behalf of a donor whose name I am not at liberty to mention, money and securities which I estimate to be of the value of $1,300,000, in trust for endowment, the principal to be kept separate from other funds and the income to be used exclusively toward the support of the scientific and educational work connected with the hospital and referred to in this letter. As I withhold the name of the donor, I guarantee the payment or transfer of this endowment fund to the hospital.

This donor and I would like the privilege of placing appropriate tablets in the new pavilion stating in whose memory the building is erected and the work endowed, and I should wish the privilege of approving any building plans that may be determined upon and to have a voice in the selection of an architect, although I do not urge this last point.

Both of the offers above contained are made on the following understanding and conditions:

1. That the hospital shall admit to the wards students of the medical school to the extent and in the manner permitted by the most approved practice.

2. That the educational institution concerned may make nominations to all positions on the hospital staff, medical, surgical, and special.

3. That the persons occupying for the time being the ranking or foremost professorships in medicine and surgery in the educational institution concerned shall always be nominated to appropriate positions on the staff of the hospital, and that so long as they hold such offices in the hospital they shall have no official connection with any other hospital, to the intent that under this arrangement the hospital will secure in the treatment of its patients the greatest degree of medical and surgical skill which can be furnished by the school.

4. That the physicians and surgeons of various ranks and their assistants shall have as full privileges as reasonably possible, consistent always with the welfare of patients, of

[1]For editorial comment see Social Forces, page 793.

instructing their students in the public wards and the various laboratories of the hospital.

5. That the departments of pathology and bacteriology may give teaching to students in the hospital.

6. That there shall be a director of the surgical research laboratory who shall teach in the hospital, and who shall always be on the active teaching staff of the school.

7. That the surgical department at the hospital shall publish an annual report of the scientific and clinical work of the year.

8. That the College of Physicians and Surgeons, the medical department of Columbia University, be the medical school with which the hospital makes this arrangement, so long as it is in a position to carry out its share of these conditions and complies therewith. Should it not be in such a position, or fail to comply therewith, another medical school of the first rank may be selected by the hospital.

9. That if the hospital shall not comply with the conditions named in this letter, and should such non-compliance continue after notice and reasonable opportunity to fulfill the same, the hospital shall forthwith pay and transfer to me, or to the donor whom I represent, as I may request, the whole of the endowment fund herein referred to. If this non-compliance should occur after my death, the repayment shall be made to any person or institution designated for that purpose in my will. After such default and until such payment, the endowment fund shall be held by the hospital in trust solely to make such payment.

The conditions imposed by this letter may from time to time be changed by mutual agreement. My own consent, if living, and that of the hospital shall be necessary to such a change; after my death the person or corporation thereto authorized by my will may consent in my place.

While the medical school will benefit from the gifts herein made, and this is expected and desired, its only right to such benefit must come through agreement with the hospital, the school itself having no right hereunder.

Should any of the details of this offer be inconsistent with the necessary basis of the management of this hospital, or should there be other details which in your opinion should be considered by me, I shall be glad to confer with you with respect thereto.

EDWARD S. HARKNESS.

New York.

JOTTINGS

Lincoln's Birthday Conference.—The annual Lincoln's Birthday Conference for Social Workers at Union Theological Seminary, Broadway and 120th street, New York, will be held on February 13. The general topic is Aspects of Religion and the Religious Life. In the morning Prof. George W. Knox will speak on What is the Religious Attitude; Prof. William A. Brown on What Has Religion Contributed to the Life of the Individual; and Prof. Thomas C. Hall on What has Religion Contributed to the Life of Society. All three of these speakers are members of the faculty of Union Seminary. In the afternoon, Jane Addams of Hull House, Chicago, will speak on the Religious Aspects of the Social Ideal; the Rev. Harry E. Fosdick of the First Baptist Church, Montclair, on the Social Workers' Need of Religion; and the Rev. Henry S. Coffin, of Madison Avenue Presbyterian Church on Unitas, Veritas, Caritas, which is the seminary motto. Luncheon will be served at noon.

Child Labor Traveling Exhibit.—The collection of original photographs, charts and other material which the National Child Labor Committee has exhibited from time to time at national and state conferences is being prepared for constant field use. Elizabeth M. Dinwiddie, who will have charge of the exhibit, is prepared to fill engagements with women's clubs, churches, public libraries, public schools or other institutions in any city.

The material has been gathered at great expense, and is being thus prepared for wider public use in response to many urgent requests from those who believe that an ocular demonstration of the extent, nature, and effects of child labor will awaken the people of their city to an intelligent interest in the subject both locally and nationally. Inquiries should be addressed to Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d street, New York.

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In the last half century the men who fought in the Civil War have grown old and many of them have died. The torn-up battlefields are covered with cotton and wheat. The guns have rusted, the fortifications have rotted away, the ruined cities have come back to more vigorous life; even the bitter feelings that caused brother to fight brother have faded away.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

HEREDITY AND SOCIAL WORK

For now these many years social workers have been putting ever increasing emphasis on the social value of environmental changes. The typical and essential features of all well-considered programs of social work have been improved housing, the control of infectious disease, recreational facilities, a shortening of the working day, and a high standard of living. We have put our faith in organized industry, organized charity, organized education, and organized religion.

Has the time now come to shift the emphasis? Must we learn again old proverbs? Blood will tell; Like begets like: You cannot make a silken purse out of a sow's ear. Is there wisdom for our generation in the two-hundred-and-fifty-year-old saying of Sir Thomas Browne, quoted in a modern book on heredity?

> Bless not thyself that thou wert born in Athens; but among thy multiplied acknowledgments, lift up one hand to heaven that thou wert born of honest parents, that modesty, humility, and veracity lay in the same egg, and came into the world with thee.

Heredity in the modern view appears to be a collective name for that which the individual has in common with his ancestry and his posterity, because of his relationship to them. The child, we are told, is not so much produced by his parents as by the common stock of which they and he are alike offspring. These common elements which make up the heredity are now believed not to be modified by the life of the individual. That is to say, individual life may be profoundly modified by environmental influences, but these changes do not, so far as positive proof has been adduced, affect the heredity of the offspring. What parents give to their children is a three-fold heritage:—first, a definite character which they have themselves inherited; second, a social tradition beginning in earliest infancy; and third, an economic environment determined by income, by place of residence, by judgment in the selection of occupations, and by other similar factors within their control.

The controversy as to whether the progress which is achieved by an individual as the result of his own experiences and the influences operating upon him is or is not transmissible to posterity by direct heredity, is in one sense merely academic, since it is admitted that such modifications, if not directly inherited, are at any rate passed on by what we may call a social inheritance. "Unlike the beasts that perish," says J. Arthur Thompson, "man has a lasting external heritage, capable of endless modification for the better." Thus the doctrine that acquired characters are not transmissible is by no means necessarily pessimistic. Confidence in the possibility of enduring social progress may even be strengthened by the reflection that in the stream of inheritance degeneration and abnormality must be at least as perishable as any hardly acquired virtue or increase of normal capacity. Shortness in Mendel's pea stalks is no more dominant in the nature of things than tallness, and all the potentialities of progress persist where there is nourishment on which they may feed. When we add to this that in the external herit-

age—the social tradition and the economic environment—there are two excellent fighting chances to relieve the individual from the terrors of his individual heredity, we find ample basis for that militant optimism which underlies the philosophy of all social work.

These academic aspects of the problem, however, interesting as they are, concern us less than certain practical issues which it involves. Modern humanitarianism undoubtedly keeps alive many weak individuals who in an unmitigated struggle for existence would perish. It may be argued that insane and feeble-minded, alcoholic and syphilitic, congenital criminal and pauperized parasite, are more numerous in our modern communities than they would be if public relief were less developed and private generosity were less lavish than they are among us. Are we in this way perpetuating the grievous social burdens of disease, alcoholism, criminality, and pauperism? Are we breeding from the unfit as no stock breeder would think of doing, and interfering with the normal processes of social evolution?

These are not new questions, but they gain new significance from current scientific discussions and experiments. An eminent psychiatrist expresses the opinion that much the greater number of the pronouncedly insane brought the seed of their malady with them into the world. Their insanity, to adopt Weissmann's distinction, lay in the germ-plasm and not in the body-plasm of their bodily structure. An entirely favorable environment might have prevented its development in them, but if they had become parents there would have been in the heredity of their descendants an identical danger which another equally favorable environment might or might not overcome. This is not the place to promulgate or to reject such doctrines. It is a place to consider social policies in the light even of their possible truth.

This persistence of heredity for which biologists contend is the more worthy of attention because it but fortifies the common sense view of the ages, which social workers have perhaps of late tended to ignore. This is the view that mental and moral character as well as physical character is inherited; that some children are born good just as some are born strong. It is Heine's dictum that a man should be very careful in the selection of his parents. This might be confused with the saying of Oliver Wendell Holmes that the education of a child must begin with his grandfather. Modern biology gives more support to the first paradox than to the second. The selection of parents determines heredity. The education of grandparents influences the external heritage. Both are important, but if Heine's advice is followed then it may not matter so much whether it is your own grandparents that are educated or some other grandparents whom you adopt. Foster homes of the second anterior generation cannot guard your heredity, but they may be competent custodians of your external heritage.

Society must care for the insane, the diseased, the criminal, and the pauper. Society must improve the economic and social environment of those whose lives are narrow and whose environment is but a denial of opportunity. The assumption of these responsibilities carries with it the obligation to guard against every foreseeable evil consequence. We do well to proceed cautiously where experts are divided; but we cannot long refuse the challenge of those who warn us that heredity also is a social fact.

THE COMMON WELFARE

THREE STATES CONSIDER MINIMUM WAGE BOARDS

All but simultaneously bills are being introduced in three states, looking toward adapting the Australian minimum wage idea to American industrial law. They come from three fairly distinct sources. Early this month, the Massachusetts State Federation of Labor introduced a bill providing for a state commission to investigate the subject. At the meeting of the National Consumers' League in Pittsburgh last week, the Rev. John A. Ryan of St. Paul's Seminary announced a measure shortly to be introduced in the Minnesota Legislature to establish "industrial boards for the protection of wage-earning women and minors"; and on Tuesday of this week, Representative Carl Stern of Milwaukee, a republican, at the instigation of the State Consumers' League, introduced a bill to create minimum wage boards, the provisions of which are not yet to hand.

Like the boards which for eighteen years have been in operation in New Zealand, the Minnesota bill would provide in each trade a joint wage board representing the employers, the workers, and the public. This is to be empowered to fix minimum time and piece rates which shall be compulsory upon all employers alike within the trade. The bill has been drafted at the instance of Father Ryan, whose book, The Living Wage, created a profound impression on its publication several years ago and whose paper before the National Conference of Charities and Correction at St. Louis last May[1] was described by a non-believer in minimum wage boards as "so fair minded and showing such a candid appreciation of the opposing argument as to make converts if anything can, and incidentally to do the more immediate service of raising the whole plane of the discussion."

The immediate object sought by the proposed legislation is such public control of the depressed trades as shall prevent any establishment or group of workers from continuing at a level below that of subsistence or self-dependent well-being, or sinking to such level, and thus sucking down, like an undertow, the standards of all competing establishments and all employes in the trade group. In 1910 the National Consumers' League adopted wage board legislation as its slogan throughout the United States for the next ten years. As result of an enactment of the British Parliament which went into effect January 1, minimum wage boards have been created in four English trades.

The minimum wage board is doubtless the most striking invention in governmental forms which has come to us from the new commonwealths of the South Pacific since the Australian ballot. The reaction of American public opinion upon it will be watched with interest. The outlook is that these measures will be regarded as more radical than was child labor legislation ten years ago, will be considered a more serious departure from customary law and contract relations by many who would favor attempting to secure the same ends by other methods. They apparently lack the sentimental appeal to public spirit of the child labor campaign, but are likely to find compensating support among unions of women workers (whereas child labor laws were at the earliest stages sometimes opposed by the men's unions); among women's clubs and suffrage organizations generally. They will, on the other hand, doubtless provoke an even stronger commercial resistance because of the vaster bulk of underpaid labor involved.

The Minnesota bill would empower the State Board of Arbitration to establish industrial boards for "any trade or branch of work in a trade employing women or minors," either on its own initiative or when requested by twenty-five persons affected. The boards are to consist of representative members (three to ten persons representing the employers and an equal number representing the workers—women and minors), and

[1] See THE SURVEY for September 3, 1910. Price 25 cents.

appointed members, not exceeding one-third of the total, appointed at large by the Board of Arbitration. At least one appointed member and at least twenty-five per cent of the full membership shall be women. The board may on its own initiative investigate and consider industrial conditions in the trade which it represents, and shall report on any pertinent matter referred to it by the governor the Legislature, or the State Board of Arbitration. Its powers with respect to wages are given at length on page 866.

Other provisions in the Minnesota bill would enable the State Board of Arbitration to make regulations as to the compensation, organization, meetings, and proceedings of the industrial boards. The representative members of the latter are, so far as practicable, to be "elected by the respective classes (employers and workers in the trades) that they represent;" the State Board of Arbitration may nominate representative members from the respective groups where there is failure to elect; and if these refuse to serve, may nominate outsiders; it also appoints the chairman and secretary of the industrial boards.

The industrial boards may themselves create district boards (the representative character of which is safeguarded by further provisions), may refer to them matters for report and recommendation, or delegate to them powers or duties other than that of fixing minimum time rates or piece rates. The district industrial committee may, however, recommend such minimum rates, and no variation or cancellation shall have effect in the area of the district committee unless it has been so recommended, or unless an opportunity has been given it to report and for its report to be considered. The law would empower the state Bureau of Labor Industries and Commerce, to investigate all complaints concerning the observance of orders issued by the State Board of Arbitration and take necessary steps to secure their enforcement. The bill provides $2,000 annually for expenditures.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU BILL PASSED BY THE SENATE

The Senate on February 14 passed the bill creating a federal children's bureau. It is now before the House and the National Child Labor Committee is urging every person in the country who is interested in the welfare of children to telegraph or write his congressman in favor of it. But two weeks remain before adjournment and only prompt action can hope to secure favorable action in the House.

It was most appropriate, therefore, that the Child Welfare Exhibit in New York closed last Saturday with a final constructive demand for the children's bureau.

The National Child Labor Committee, aided and abetted by every important children's organization in the country, and by many others, including the national bodies of club women and organized labor, has kept the matter constantly before Congress for four years. During that time its special agent, A. J. McKelway, has rallied an encouraging body of supporters in both houses. Probably the bill creating the bureau has a clear majority today, but it has been impossible to get it to a vote. Last session it died on the calendar. But there have been enough powerful opponents to prevent its passage. Some of them fear results which might follow the investigations the bureau is expected to make. Others object to the creation of any new government bureaus. Still others take a stand for economy, urging that the proposed initial appropriation of $25,000 will be but the first small drop in a very large bucket. The combination of all these elements has kept the bill from having a chance.

The campaign for the children's bureau, as brought out at the Child Welfare Exhibit by the chairman, Owen R. Lovejoy, Senator Robert L. Owen of Oklahoma, Mrs. Florence Kelley, and A. J. McKelway, is based on the theory that the federal government should give the country adequate, unbiased facts upon which, when needed, state and local legislation may be based. It should, it has been suggested, study infant mortality, child labor, delinquency, dependence and allied subjects on a national basis, and prove an extremely valuable extension in child life of what the census does for the whole population, and what other departments, notably the Department of Agriculture, do for busi-

ness of various sorts. If government investigations and reports have business value there is little question nowadays of the propriety of making them; but if they have only the remoter elements of mere human values they must be established against the opposition of many who have not yet learned their importance.

On motion of the chairman, Owen R. Lovejoy, a rising vote for the bureau was taken, which proved to be unanimous.

COURTS AND PROBATION INADEQUATE IN NEW YORK

The final week of the exhibit opened Sunday night with an address by Prof. George W. Kirchwey of Columbia, on the principles—protection and prevention not punishment—underlying the juvenile court system, and the inadequate equipment of the New York court for carrying out those principles. At the Monday session Chief Justice Russell told of the extension of the New York Children's Court under the provisions of the Page law. Judge Franklin C. Hoyt read a paper on juvenile court work and the lines of probable development in the future, urging, with Professor Kirchwey, the need of numerous branch courts throughout the city. Judge Robert J. Wilkin spoke of some aspects of the work of the Brooklyn court and urged that the public keep itself informed of conditions in courts and prisons.

The work of the Washington Juvenile Court was described by Judge William H. deLacy, who brought out the need of infinite patience on the part of the judge and probation officer who desire to make a good citizen of a delinquent child, a task in which the Washington court is greatly helped by the power given it to deal with delinquent parents. Judge Harvey H. Baker of Boston gave a thoughtful account of the work of the juvenile court in a city community of medium size, urging the importance of constant co-operation between judge and probation officer.

The workings of the probation system in New York were clearly outlined by Arthur W. Towne, secretary of the State Probation Commission. He dwelt also upon the excessive use of the fining system in New York city, which, he held, simply penalizes poverty, and which is due in great part to the inadequacy of the city's probation system. Homer Folks, president of the commission, spoke still more vigorously of the lack of proper probation in New York and urged that with a little more economy along other lines of expenditure—for instance, cutting out ten of the eighty-five automobiles now used by city departments—the city would have little difficulty in replacing the two probation officers now employed, by the fifty that should be employed to look after the 12,000 children brought annually before the Children's Court.

A study of juvenile criminality made by Dr. M. G. Schlapp showed an increase within the last twenty-five years. Figures taken from several reformatories indicated that a large majority of their inmates are subnormal, and from this fact Dr. Schlapp reasoned that pre-

Carter in New York American.

THE HOPE OF THE FUTURE.

The *American* holds that "the abuses that have crept up through the ages, under the influence of isolation and individual selfishness, can be corrected and wiped out only by the power of co-operation and intelligent organized philanthropy," which were demonstrated in the Child Welfare Exhibit.

ventive medical and psychopathic work in home and school, beginning with the compulsory registration of the feeble-minded, would in time lessen the number of children brought to the court.

REFORMATORIES MORE SCHOOLS THAN PRISONS

At the evening session the subject was reformatories. Mrs. Joseph Allen of the Hudson Training School for Girls spoke of the greater need for commitment in the case of girls on account of the greater moral danger to them than to boys of bad environment.

Hastings H. Hart showed how since the Children's Court had taken the reproach of criminality from the child, the reformatory had become a school instead of a prison—a point which was also brought out by Rabbi Schulman in his description of the Hawthorne School of the Jewish Protectory, to whose alumni boys are proud to belong. Dr. Hart's subject was reformatory construction, and he showed by an interesting series of slides how the cottage system everywhere is tending to displace the old congregate institution.

Philanthropy and the Child was the subject of the Thursday conferences. Some light on the institutional life of dependent children was thrown by Ludwig Bernstein, superintendent of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, in his account of the new educational system about to be adopted in their home. In contrast to the institutional system, Charles Loring Brace told of the widespread work of the Children's Aid Society in the fifty years of its existence in providing homes of adoption for 26,000 destitute children. Under the subject of Home Relief both Secretary Robert W. Hebberd of the State Board of Charities and Mrs. William Einstein of the Widowed Mothers' Association, pointed out that the support of private relief societies by the public is inadequate, and urged that power be given the city to pension widows, the pension money to be administered by private relief societies.

THE LAST OF PHOSSY JAW"

At the suggestion of President Taft the Diamond Match Company gives to the nation the free use of the most widely used substitute for white phosphorus. This is the last step in a long and successful effort to remove most of the possible objections to a law prohibiting matches made of poisonous phosphorus.

Two years ago the United States, as now, was almost the only country of commercial importance which allowed the use of this worse than deadly poison to the match workers.

Through the efforts of the American Association for Labor Legislation, agents of the government visited the match factories in 1909 and found many cases of the dread necrosis or "phossy jaw," which rots the teeth and jawbones and requires mutilating operations. The report of the investigation, which was written by John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, enlisted the interest of President Taft who asked that a bill to stop the danger be prepared.

As it happened, a single company, big enough to be known as the match trust, owned in this country a patent that robs phosphorus of its perils.[1] Therefore the passage of such an act seemed to give that company a monopoly control, to which there was strong objection. The smaller companies, though anxious to do away with white phosphorus after the recent disclosures had enlightened the public of its dangers, were slow to come to terms with the Diamond Match Company when it offered to license companies to use sesquisulphide. The original terms suggested were such as almost to make it impossible for all the companies to agree. Objections were made to limitations upon the number of matches to be packed in a box, to a requirement that all the companies petition for a revision of the tariff on matches, and to provisions which tended to limit the number of matches each licensee could produce. These objections were finally met, and eight companies executed stipulations giving to them the right to use the patented process. This, however, did not still the objections of all, and as a result the Dia-

[1] "Making all Matches Safeties, by James P. Heaton, THE SURVEY for December 3.

mond Company transferred its title to the patent to three trustees.

Even this concession did not remove all the objections. The president then wrote to the trustees suggesting that the use of the patent be made free to all. The owner of the patent agreed to do this. The Diamond Match Company gave up its title and submitted to its licensees the alternative of either joining with it in presenting the patent to the nation or of having the sums they had paid for their rights in the process refunded. Some have united in making the present and some have asked to have their money back. This act marks the end of a long campaign. The Diamond Match Company, by successive steps in response to publicity, has at last made every possible concession since it has nothing more to give. It remains to be seen what further objections will be made to the Esch bill, which proposes to make all matches safeties, and to add the United States to the ranks of the nations which have joined hands in a worldwide fight against poisonous phosphorus. The bill is now before a sub-committee of the Ways and Means Committee of which Congressman Dalzell is chairman. He is being urged from all sides to report it promptly in order that action may be taken at this session.

"LET THERE BE LIGHT" IN BROOKLYN TENEMENTS

A carefully planned campaign to bring more light and better ventilation into Brooklyn tenements opened Monday evening with a mass meeting at the Academy of Music, at which addresses were made by John J. Murphy, tenement house commissioner; Frank H. Mann, deputy commissioner for Brooklyn; Chief Magistrate Otto Kempner; Lawrence Veiller, secretary of the National Housing Association; Jacob A. Riis, and Frederick B. Pratt. Theodore Roosevelt, who as governor of New York signed the present tenement law for New York city, has agreed to help in the campaign.

The movement was initiated by the Tenement House Committee and the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. A large number of Brooklyn organizations have endorsed the movement and agreed to help. These include the Central Labor Union, the District Visiting Nurse Association, the Woman's Municipal League, a number of churches and settlements, several political organizations, and many others.

Dean in New Orleans Times-Democrat.

UNDESIRABLE CITIZENS.

The New Orleans Board of Health has proposed measures to exterminate the house fly, which Dr. Woods Hutchinson has called the most dangerous of wild beasts. The mosquito which carries yellow fever has been ostracized in New Orleans, and if the house fly is successfully sent about its business the city may achieve something of much greater value than the Panama Canal Exposition which it lost to San Francisco.

The committee announces that there are 49,000 absolutely dark interior bedrooms, and 123,000 illegally lighted rooms in Brooklyn tenements.

Its plan of procedure, following the publicity given by the mass meeting, is to cut the city into small districts, each of which will be given to some neighborhood organization to make visits and report to the owners of tenements. The owners will thus be urged by their neighbors and associates to make improvements, and it is believed that the publicity which the committee hopes to secure will act as a strong moral impetus toward improvement. The joint committee in charge has adopted as its slogan, "Let there be light."

THE DISTRICT LEADERS' BILL

The committee on criminal courts of the New York Charity Organization Society has called upon all individuals and organizations interested to help in defeating Senate bill 79, introduced in the

Legislature by Senator Christopher D. Sullivan. The bill is held by the committee to be a direct attack for sinister political purposes on the important reforms effected in the minor courts of New York city by the Page law.[1]

Senator Sullivan's bill threatens to throw the magistrates' courts into the hands of the political district leaders by abolishing the Page law provision by which magistrates are appointed by the mayor and making the office elective by districts. The committee finds it difficult to see how judges who must look to their district leaders for their first nomination as well as for subsequent nominations can be free from political influence in their work. Furthermore, this bill would operate indirectly to abolish the Domestic Relations Court, the night courts, and any other specialized court, for the higher courts have held that a judge elected by a district cannot sit in courts outside of that district.

The bill appears to the committee a bold attack upon the courts by dissatisfied politicians whose interests have suffered by the reforms of the Page law.

As one step in an organized movement to fight this bill and other similar attacks against the Page law which perhaps may be expected with the regularity of similar attempts to amend the tenement-house law, the committee has voted to take no steps to defend the constitutionality of clause 79 of the Page law, and not to oppose any bill for the repeal of this clause which may be introduced in the Legislature. Clause 79 (regarding prostitutes) is the only portion of the Page law on which social workers and agencies have held differing opinions. The committee hopes by this action to avoid further controversy over a single clause and to unite all interested in the integrity of the minor courts in a solid front of opposition to bills which would injure their administration.

VILLAGE CONFERENCE ON RURAL SOCIAL ADVANCE

A social conference was held at the opening of winter in the little township of Rowe, Mass., representatives of whose five hundred inhabitants, scattered over twenty-six miles of farm lands, met to consider the special problems of a rural community. The grange, the library, the school, and the church all took part in the conference, which was opened by an address from the minister of the Unitarian Church, Margaret B. Barnard, who preached on the general subject of the Social Problems of the Country Town. She pointed out the need of greater co-operation, of more careful study of economic conditions in an agricultural community, and of clean, safe amusements for young people. At the regular opening session Prof. Roland W. Guss urged the introduction of agricultural courses into country schools, "not so much that the school shall make farmers as that it shall stop unmaking them."

A special effort was made to interest the Italian settlers, for whom a separate meeting was held.

At the supper which closed the conference the Rev. Elmer S. Forbes, secretary of the Department of Social Service of the Unitarian Association, urged that a plan of organization for social improvement should follow as a consequence of the enthusiasm awakened by the conference. Such an organization should concern itself with the details of material improvement of the village, such as good roads, watering troughs, and clean streets. It should plan recreation fitted to teach good manners and good morals to the young people. It should further concern itself with improving education and health, devoting especial attention to the elimination of tuberculosis. Charles M. Gardner, master of the State Grange, closed the meeting with a speech congratulating Rowe for inaugurating from within its own group of citizens a social movement which ought to be taken up by the two hundred rural towns of Massachusetts at this time, as the movement back to the soil is making the country districts of constantly increasing importance.

[1] See THE SURVEY for January 21.

CHRISTMAS RUSH LESS THIS YEAR

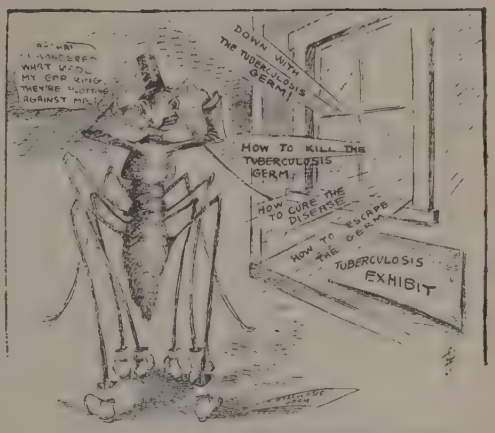
The large attendance at the recent annual meeting of the Consumers' League of the City of New York indicated the growing influence which this body has with the shopping public.

That this influence has made itself widely felt in the betterment of mercantile conditions was shown by two specific statements in the annual report of the president, Mrs. Frederick Nathan: first, that a careful investigation of the New York department stores during the last Christmas season revealed the fact that the ten years' campaign for early Christmas shopping had been effective to such an extent that there was a marked decrease in the number of shoppers in the evenings of the week before Christmas; second, that the principle of the consumers' responsibility for and interest in the conditions under which merchandise is made and sold has become so firmly established that during the past year New York firms, in order to draw shoppers to their stores, advertised in one case that no sweatshop made goods or products of child labor were sold in the store, and in another that the firm's interest in the welfare of its employes was so great that when obliged to keep open evenings before Christmas two shifts of workers were employed.

In view of the fact that investigators have found inadequate arrangements for fire-escapes in many department stores, the league is interesting itself in this phase of the protection of working women.

The president's report pointed out forcefully the necessity for legislation providing for a limited working week of six days for women in mercantile establishments. The common occurrence of Sunday work during rush seasons in all departments, and in the auditing departments throughout the year, has led the league to a realization of the need of securing one day of rest to department store women.

An incident of the meeting was Mrs. Nathan's frank announcement that actual violations of the labor law are common in many of the best known department stores, and that the Department of Labor has found it necessary to bring prosecutions against one-half of the members of so respectable a body as the New York Retail Drygoods Association.


DOWN WITH THE TUBERCULOSIS GERM!
HOW TO KILL THE TUBERCULOSIS GERM!
HOW TO CURE THE DISEASE
HOW TO ESCAPE GERM
TUBERCULOSIS EXHIBIT

Salt Lake City Tribune.

MAKING HIS LARS BURN.

The *tubercle bacillus* (here presented in masquerade costume) was found by the cartoonist peeping in at a tuberculosis exhibit and hearing no good of himself.

SOCIAL SERVICE COMMISSION FOR WISCONSIN CHURCHES

The Wisconsin Federation of Churches and Christian Workers has decided to create a social service commission to consist of fifteen members. Those already named are the Rev. W. G. Humphrey, Charles J. Galpin, Prof. S. W. Gilman, Prof. R. C. Chapin, Pres. W. O. Carrier, Rev. R. H. Edwards, J. G. Rosebush, and M. S. Dudgeon. These nine members are empowered to elect the remaining six.

The functions of the commission are to increase the acquaintance of the people of the churches with the facts of the leading social problems, to serve as an advisory committee in matters of the relationship between the churches and social betterment movements, to investigate any moral, social, and industrial conditions of an aggravated nature, to represent the federation at hearings of legislative committees in support of, or opposition to, proposed legislation. This is the first state social service commission in the United States.

EDITORIAL GRIST

COMPULSORY PLAY-GROUNDS

WILLIAM E. HARMON
New York

A bill has been introduced in the Legislature of the state of Washington entitled House bill No. 81, providing for the inclusion of small parks and playgrounds in all future land sub-divisions within or adjoining the limits of cities of the first, second, and third classes.

According to the best available information, this is the first attempt based on sound economics, arbitrarily to combine parks and playgrounds with street plans in private real estate development. It is based on the theory that as streets of liberal width give correspondingly greater value to abutting land, so do parks and similar open spaces give increased value to contiguous property. That there must be some municipal restriction put upon land sub-divisions destined to become a permanent part of the city in which they are located is an already accepted principle in many sections of the country, but it remained for this progressive western state to carry along its logical lines of development.

It is highly important, from the point of view of true economics, that no undue burden be placed upon practical work in the field of realty development, or home building on a large scale, for in the end this burden must be borne by the buyer. Under the provisions of this bill, land can be laid out and permanent open spaces established without taking a penny out of the pockets of the operator, or adding a penny cost to the ultimate consumer of the land.

If the areas of land segregated are properly distributed, so that the adjacent lots have either a front or rear exposure upon the open space, the added value to such lots will compensate for the land given up to public use. This can be demonstrated by reference to an article on the subject published in THE SURVEY for December 11, 1909.

If further proof be required, it will be only necessary to note the excess prices asked for lands fronting on parks in growing sections of the city over neighboring lot prices. Then compare this excess with the original, or wholesale, cost per square foot of such land, and in the average instance it will more than equal the original, or wholesale, cost of the property. If the park area opposite the lot be only equal to the lot itself, it is self-evident that such land could have been taken from the owner without any loss to him.

In sub-dividing real estate, the private operator always assumes an important financial responsibility, and in the fear of failure usually skimps his open spaces in order to have as much land as possible to offer the public. Had he large experience in this work, he would realize this policy is not profitable to him, while very injurious to the community. Most realty developments are in charge of men of limited experience, and the operator

Cruft in Kansas City Post.

"WHY NOT?"

The *Post* puts the pertinent inquiry as to why women's hours of work should not be limited to nine. The Kansas City branch of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae has joined other Missouri organizations in petitioning the Legislature to set up nine hours as a maximum working day for all wage-earning women.

is not to be condemned from the fact that his primary responsibility to his financial constituency obscures the more remote responsibility to the community.

Even if the Washington bill operated as a handicap to speculative or land-operative profits, it might well be justified from the point of view of the public weal, but with this commendable bill no such problem is encountered.

The present method of acquiring parks and playgrounds by condemnation entails enormous waste of public funds. Under this law the extension of cities can proceed with a normal relationship established between housings and open areas, without cost to the taxpayer, the land operator, or the home buyer.

It is to be hoped that House bill No. 81 will be speedily incorporated into the statutes of the state of Washington, where it may stand as an example of a legal enactment in which private rights and public welfare are both conserved.

IF THE RED CROSS RAN OUR PENSIONS

FREDERIC ALMY
Secretary Buffalo Charity Organization Society

The United States government can do large things well. It can build a great canal or a great dam with economy and efficiency; but its chief relief work is so poor that it would be a disgrace to a modern relief society. Our government undertook to pension all disabled veterans of the Civil War who were in need. Through wholesale methods, and the exploitation of politicians, it has spent for these veterans sums that seem literally beyond the dreams of avarice, and yet everywhere we see on the one hand, brave soldiers in want, and on the other hand, thousands of men and girls who never saw a battle but are drawing pensions. The pension appetite hath "grown by what it fed on."

In 1866 there were 126,722 pensioners; in 1909, forty-four years after the war, there were 946,194, although at least three-quarters of the soldiers of the Civil War were dead. Those who give doles to many have never enough for any. Is it strange that the relief is still inadequate, and that a bill for vast increases has just passed the House of Representatives? Our pensions have risen prodigiously from $28,000,000 in 1878 (thirteen years after the war) to $165,000,000 or more than three million dollars a week, in 1908. Can we believe that the great increase which is now contemplated will give more relief or will it only give more pensions? Can the government show now a single veteran who receives generous, intelligent aid such as is being given, for example, to the victims of the Cherry Mine disaster? Would that the National Red Cross, which administered the aid there, could be put in charge of our pension relief also. Nothing could be more fitting, or more effective.

At the Cherry Mine, as elsewhere where the Red Cross has been in charge, many women would claim aid as the widows of one man, and all the other fakes, so successful in the Pension Bureau, were attempted, but through vigorous inquiry a limited fund was made to yield relief averaging $3,540[1] for the family of each victim. This relief, moreover, is being most intelligently administered. If the Red Cross had followed the rules of war pensions at the Cherry Mine, the result would have been as inadequate as with our war pensions. Incredible as it seems, pensions are paid to all who served ninety days in the war, whether they are rich or poor, stalwart or disabled; and as young widows of old soldiers get pensions for life it is almost necessary to put a guard around the Soldiers Homes to keep the women out. Women have made old soldiers drunk in order to marry them, and this a grateful country rewards.

It is the old story of the abuses of rule-of-thumb relief without the "insulting stigma" of investigation. Although the pension roll is presumably a roll of honor its records are not open to public inspection! A reform on this point is one of the three demands made by the *Worlds Work* in its current articles on the Pension Bureau. We have often seen public outdoor relief reduced two-thirds

[1] THE SURVEY, Vol. 24, p. 796.

in a single year by the investigations of a charity organization society, to the confusion of politicians and willing paupers, but to the great advantage of disabled families who were starving on meager aid. A similar reforming of our war pensions is badly needed.

The contagion of relief is also familiar to students of this subject; especially where the appeal is to the public treasury, which to the imagination of the poor seems inexhaustible. Men who have never thought of public aid ask for it because their neighbors do.

The theory of the pension lobbyist is that if anyone does not get enough all should get more. That way madness lies, with national dishonor and national bankruptcy, and this madness is already very near. We are paying a pension roll which amounts to ten dollars a year from every family in the country, with wretched results; but to oppose a vast increase is "unpatriotic." The present system is giving us a roll of cowards in our legislatures rather than a roll of heroes on our pension lists. Is there any more stigma in a protective investigation for heroes of the Civil War than for Carnegie medal heroes, or for the innocent victims of the San Francisco earthquake who receive Red Cross aid? We boast of our national generosity and forget that "he does not give best who gives most, but he gives most who gives best." When relief is extensive rather than intensive it becomes expensive and also inefficient. Deserters, and widows who were born long after the war, are stealing aid from living veterans who have a too scanty pittance for old age. The dollar-a-day bill, which is now proposed, would give thirty dollars a month for life to every veteran, rich or poor, sick or well, and would give the pension agents another lease of life. It would do this at the cost of the indigent disabled veterans, and of every good cause in the country. To vote for such a bill is cowardice.

It is not amiss to quote here three great sayings of Grover Cleveland, who as president reformed many pension abuses:

"Public office is a public trust."

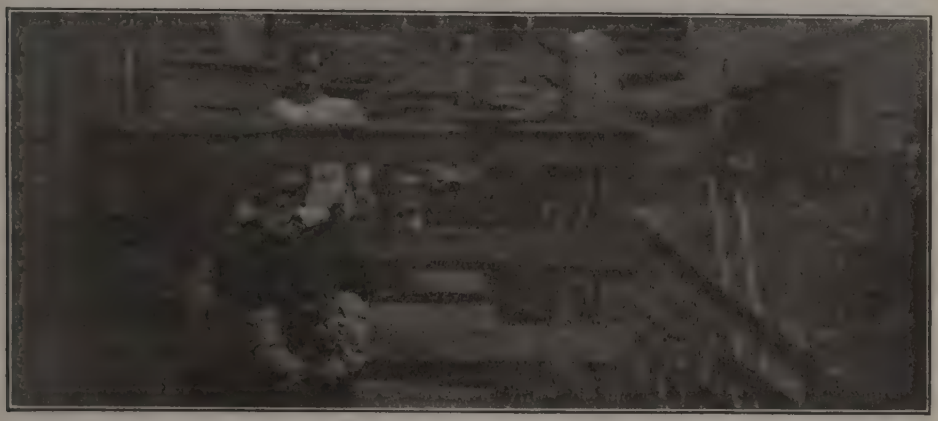
"I had thought that the pension roll was a roll of honor."

"It is a condition and not a theory that confronts us."

DR. JANEWAY

Edward G. Janeway, who died on February 10 in his seventieth year, was both a great physician and a public-spirited citizen. He has been best known perhaps as one of the foremost diagnosticians of our time, and that in itself is a public service. In this character, moreover, his wonderful skill and insight were at the disposal of uncounted individuals who could not have paid for expert medical advice. During the nearly fifty years of his professional life in New York city he held many hospital appointments, being connected at different times with the Charity, Mt. Sinai, and Presbyterian Hospitals and the Hospital for Ruptured and Crippled. Until very recent years he gave time also to teaching, leaving his last position, as dean and professor of medicine of University and Bellevue Hospital Medical College, only in 1905. From 1875 to 1882 he was health commissioner of the city, and he served on various special boards concerned with the public health, such as the advisory committee of the Chamber of Commerce during the cholera of 1892.

With the social movements for the prevention of disease which he saw develop in his later years he had the greatest sympathy, and was often ready to help particular measures of social importance by giving them his endorsement. He was intimately identified with the tuberculosis movement from its beginning. He had rarely missed a meeting of the New York Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis in the eight years since it was organized, and he served on many of its sub-committees. He was a member of the executive committee of the last International Tuberculosis Congress, and was president of the National Association last year.



HAPPY DESPITE THE SLOP-SINK.

THE HOUSING AWAKENING[1]

VI.

NEW TENANTS AND OLD SHACKS

ROGER N. BALDWIN
SECRETARY, ST. LOUIS CIVIC LEAGUE

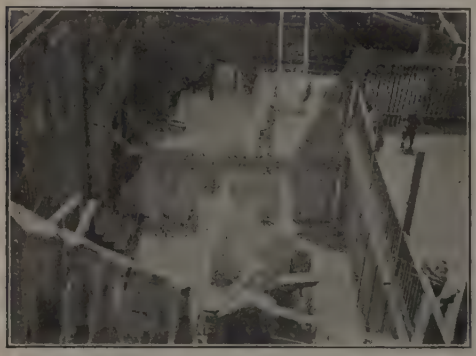
So far as the housing problem of decent living is concerned, St. Louis was quite asleep until very recent years. We had been told by an eastern authority that we had no tenement-house evil, for we had no tenements over three stories high, we had regular streets, an alley through every block, and plenty of vacant lots, and sunlight, and air (and smoke). We were flattered by the distinction of an almost unique type of one-story three- or four-room brick dwelling with its neat little yard, quite characteristic of thrifty German South St. Louis.

Some people disagreed, however. They inspected our east end, particularly the tenements occupied by immigrant peoples. They found a sea of frame shacks and brick houses, two and sometimes three on a lot and one or two on the alley rear—flimsy structures of one and one-half to three stories, poorly lighted, without plumbing, all served by yard vaults (many unsewered), and many of them crowded around the four sides of a court, entered only by covered passageways from the street or alley. The surface-drained yards were filled with garbage piled against rotting fences, heaps of ashes, and flying waste paper. There was no city collection of ashes or paper, and the garbage-wagon irregularly picked up only the garbage placed in receptacles convenient to the driver's fancy.

The investigation made by the Civic League in 1907, as a result of the agitation on housing, disclosed the facts that in a selected, but typical, district of forty-eight blocks, in which lived 13,223 individuals, there were only sixty-six bath-tubs and 204 water-closets, and that so few tenements got city water from anywhere except the common yard hydrant that they could be counted on the fingers.

The storage of decaying fruit and rags, and bakeries in rear rooms was a common feature in a district which knew no regulation, no

[1] A series of articles describing housing conditions in typical American cities, large and small, East and West, and the efforts being made to improve these conditions. Published with the co-operation of the National Housing Association. I. Introduction, by Lawrence Veiller, THE SURVEY, November 19, 1910, price 10 cents: II. Socialists and Slums—Milwaukee, by Carl D. Thompson, December 3, 1910, price 25 cents: III. The Awakening of a State—Indiana, by Albion Fellows Bacon, December 17, 1910, price 10 cents: IV. Housing Reform in Cold Storage—Boston, by Edward T. Hartman, January 21, 1911, price 10 cents: IV. The Huddled Poles of Buffalo, by Frederic Almy, February 4, 1911, price 25 cents.



SOME TYPICAL BACKYARDS.

education in the decencies of living, nothing but the chaos of a helter-skelter construction of frame and brick shacks, renting monthly at an average of $3.50 a room, largely to the foreign-born families living in overcrowded two- to three-room "apartments."

The Civic League made a careful study and a most readable report, widely distributed. It recommended definite remedies: abolition of all privy vaults, exterior toilets and sinks; general reconstruction of old tenement houses by simple plumbing, proper and accessible water supply, and condemnation of unsafe and insanitary structures; a general ordinance covering new construction and the maintenance of tenements; prohibition of bakeries, butcher-shops, sweat-shops, and the storage of fruit and rags in stables and tenements; a bill and an appropriation for the collection of ashes and rubbish by the Street Department.

That was two and one-half years ago. The law governing the construction and maintenance of new tenements has been passed, and on the whole is working well in apartment houses as well as in the few new east end structures.

But that is all. All other efforts have met either determined opposition or ineffective action. The bill to abolish privies and substitute water-closets, interior or exterior, so aroused the real estate men and landlords, that at one of a series of public hearings before the House of Delegates in the winter of 1910 the house chamber was packed to the doors with seven or eight hundred landlords—largely Jewish immigrants—who attempted to hoot down the advocates of the bill. The labor unions and social workers were on one side, the real estate men and reactionaries on the other. "Privy vaults could not be abolished." It was an unreasonable and confiscating cost, an impossibility to secure a non-freezing water-closet for use in yard compartments—and it hurt the pocket! The newspapers, for the most part, declined to print material on the agitation, and only the fact that the overcrowded public hearing broke up in a riot secured any effective publicity.

The bill to promote the reconstruction of old tenements with water on each floor, lights in the halls, prohibition of the use of cellars for living, stipulation of the number of windows per room, etc.—all of this much-needed regulation still slumbers in the pigeon-holes of a reform Assembly.

But the leaven works. Following the agitation for legislation came the National Conference of Charities and Correction and more publicity. One newspaper waged war in the cause of the bills. Housing experts viewed the littered alleys and filthy courts, the few, but unique, rear sheds on the alley, choked with heaps of week-old garbage, the stench of which of a summer's night permeates the entire east end of the city. Housing experts crawled through dark passageways into foul cellars, damp with yard drainage, yet half filled with stored fruit. No inspection, no regulation—a mere living for the benefit of landlords.

And experts heard the interesting tale that the worst district of town was the property of the Board of Education! Inquiry brought out the facts of a peculiar system of land tenure by which the board (and many other owners) for years has rented its property on leases forever renewable, to persons who in turn rent it out, and whose advantage it is to make no improvements, since a revaluation every ten years is the basis of the price paid

RUBBISH DUMPS: COMMON IN CROWDED SECTIONS.

OLD DWELLINGS.

St. Louis slums are of every kind. The outside drain in the picture in the lower right corner is found in most tenements.

on the renewed lease. What these experts thought and what they freely said was boldly published.

Interest in improved housing is belated, but it is acute. Settlement workers who do not see a health inspector from one month's end to another, whose pleading with public officials has brought nothing but excuses, but who insist earnestly and continuously on the relation of their own efforts to the larger work of the city's obligation, know that a solution must be near at hand.

We are to be congratulated on our street and alley arrangements, on our new tenement law, on our lack of high dwellings, but we still have our 10,000 privy vaults and our acres of shacks—a vast deal to be rid of—and an aggregation of new tenants from across the sea who will need, for the art of decent living, more than the ministrations of the gar-

bage-man and the health inspector, even were they to visit daily.

This educational work for a cleaner city and a more wholesome home life must be based, however, on a comprehensive code of regulation, which will show the city's appreciation of a standard of decent living.

WHERE THEY HOARD GARBAGE.

GRAND RAPIDS GETS RESULTS

JOHN IHLDER

The progressive element among the people of Grand Rapids, Mich., has found a way to get results. For years progressives and even conservatives, knew that the city needed important improvements. But the very fact that there were several needed stood in the way of getting any of them; for each had its special advocates who feared that if any other were put through the cost would be used as an argument against the adoption of theirs for years to come. So year after year proposals which would have commanded a majority of votes, if put before the people purely on their merits, were defeated by the combined strength of those who are against every improvement that costs public money, with those who wished something else to come first.

The municipal affairs committee of the Board of Trade made the first attempt at solving this problem three years ago, when it induced the government to appropriate money for a city plan. A commission appointed by the mayor, aided by John M. Carrère and Arnold W. Brunner, prepared a report which made a careful survey of the city's needs and indicated the best way to meet these needs. With this as a guide, the municipal affairs committee called a conference of officials and representative citizens as the climax of its second civic revival—the first had secured the appropriation for the city plan report. At the conference the committee proposed that all efforts should be concentrated on securing one improvement, that when this had been placed fairly before the people and adopted or rejected, another conference should be called and another improvement decided upon which should receive united support. This proposal received the unanimous endorsement of the conference. The committee then presented a list of needed improvements, and after debate the conference decided unanimously (only one man not voting) to concentrate all efforts on securing a bond issue for a water filtration plant.

The campaign ended in victory at the municipal election last spring. There had been two previous attempts to secure pure water for Grand Rapids, which had ended in failure. Four days after the election the committee called another conference, to which it invited officers of the district or neighborhood associations, the trades and labor council, and the real estate board. This conference decided unanimously to concentrate all efforts on securing at the fall election a bond issue for an extension of the park and playground system, as recommended in the city plan report. The campaign began immediately. The Park Board, which had with difficulty been restrained from putting the proposal before the people at the spring election, took an active part. During the summer Grand Rapids has long had band concerts in present parks. Last year many of the concerts were given in districts which have no parks, and between numbers park and other officials and citizens made addresses advocating the bond issue, illustrated with lantern slides which emphasized their points. All the organizations which had been represented at the conference, with one exception, formally endorsed the proposal. A number of business and professional men subscribed money for the equipment and supervision of a playground as an earnest of their desire to help, and the city government was induced to provide money for the equipment and supervision of three other playgrounds.

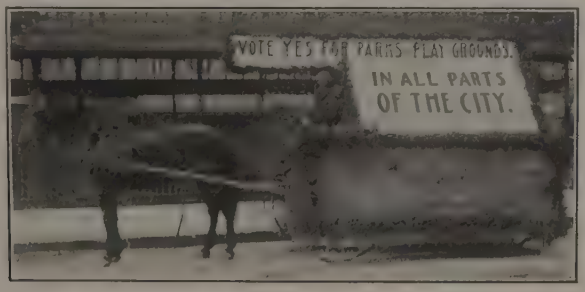
As election drew near the Park Board became even more active. It had in its superintendent, Eugene Goebel, a man who had already commended himself to the people by the results he had achieved on a small appro-

priation. Mr. Goebel showed that he is a persuasive campaigner as well as an efficient park superintendent. Upon him in the last weeks fell the burden of the detail work. He conducted meetings, secured endorsements from organizations in every part of the city, and waged a continuous publicity campaign through the newspapers, by means of a wagon which constantly traversed the streets, and by great posters on the billboards.

Meanwhile the municipal affairs committee had reorganized the Grand Rapids Playground Association so that through its dollar memberships it might reach every corner of the town, had assisted in getting out literature, and had secured options on a considerable part of the land recommended by the city plan report, so that if the bond issue carried there might be no danger of prices taking a sudden boom. Aid from without was given by Graham Romeyn Taylor, who made three addresses just before the election.

In all this campaign there was only one serious setback. The district organization in that part of the town which most needs parks and playgrounds, and which has now its last opportunity to get playgrounds without destroying buildings, listened to an alderman who advised against the bond issue, and recalled its endorsement. In this district, which contains over 12,000 inhabitants, there remains only one tract of seven acres which is perfectly suited to playground purposes. This is almost in the center of the district and has already been platted for building. After several rebuffs the municipal affairs committee finally secured an option on it. Then the district organization voted against the bond issue and the owner, who had been treated in the same way by the aldermen the year before, withdrew the option. This set-back lost the ward, but at the election the bond issue carried by a large majority.

The municipal affairs committee has issued a call for a third conference, which shall decide upon the next step to take in making Grand Rapids all that the city plan report says it may be.



CAMPAIGNING FOR PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS IN GRAND RAPIDS.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

TOWN PLANNING BY CHARTER

The pending new charter for the city of St. Louis makes provision for city planning. It creates a Board of Public Improvements, to consist of five members appointed by the mayor, which is to select the heads of the Departments of Engineering, Construction, Streets, Water, Buildings, Parks and Public Utilities. Besides the general duties under the old charter, various powers are given the board, including that "to make a plan for the harmonious development of the city." It is interesting, with this authority in mind, to read over again the list of departments which would be called upon to co-operate in the preparation of such a plan.

A CALL TO THE ART IMPULSE

In the *Village Magazine* there is an editorial addressed to the "Art Student who has Returned to the Village." It contains these words that are widely applicable "Oh, all you students that I have loved, whose work I have enviously admired, who are now back home grubbing at portraits, though they are not your specialty; or designing billboards, though they are not your divine call; or acting on the committee to paper the church and buying bad paper to please them; or back on the home newspaper that will not often print your short novels; or singing in the old choir for no salary at all; or composing advertisements in the real estate office and neglecting your

lyrics; or taking charge of the Sunday school orchestra and curing them of the Moody-Sankey habit—Greeting, and God-speed to you! If you have any cherished beauty-enterprise, undertake it where you are. You will find no better place in all America."

SMOKE CLOSED THE SCHOOLS

The Women's Organization for Smoke Abatement in St. Louis, backed by the Civic League, has been making a carefully planned crusade since the opening of the new year against those industrial plants, which by belching forth thick clouds of black smoke make life uncomfortable. Six hundred pupils in one of the public schools had to be dismissed at 11 o'clock on one of the darkest days, while at other schools within the smoke belt pupils were entertained with stories by their teachers during the time it was too dark to study.

The city was divided into 160 inspection districts each of which was patrolled daily by two women together, who watched all offenders twenty minutes to be sure that the condition observed was not merely temporary. The papers day after day published smoke pictures. The president of the board of public improvements created a special temporary force of 200 smoke inspectors. In the period between December 6 and January 14 the inspector of boilers and elevators took up almost as many cases as it had in the previous seven months.

NEW JERSEY TRIES COMMISSION

The commission government idea has struck New Jersey. The climax of the campaign was reached on January 24 when a state convention assembled at Trenton. Over 100 delegates from twenty cities, six of which were represented by their mayors in person, attended. A committee composed of one representative from each city in the state interested in the problem will meet shortly to draft a bill which the Legislature will be requested to pass. Much of the interest created is due to the addresses which John MacVicar of Des Moines has been delivering throughout the state.

ALUMNI SOCIETIES AS CIVIC CLUBS

Since local university alumni associations are often more interested in having a good time themselves than in community recreation, it is well to note how much the Harvard Club has done for Syracuse. Under its auspices Sunday band concerts in the parks were started, which were later taken over by the city. The club initiated the indoor Sunday concert now held with much success in the Central High School, and this winter it suggested a new form of municipal recreation which has been promptly put into effect by the officials. This is a public skating rink on the Erie Canal. The city has provided a cloak room and an attendant and has strung large arc lights over the canal for several blocks. Thus the people have, in the very center of the city, a free skating rink of much greater length than is usual in rinks to which admission is charged. This work is the more interesting because it is the first which Syracuse has undertaken, at least in recent years, in the direction of winter playgrounds.

AN EFFECTIVE SOCIETY

A pamphlet sent out by the American Scenic and Historic Preservation Society, describing its objects and accomplishments, is of interest for the remarkable record which it contains. The society is not very much in public evidence; but in doing its work quietly it seems to have performed it none the less effectively. It is always ready to co-operate with other agencies to secure things which it believes are desirable, without seeking to appropriate all the credit. During the last decade members of the society have made personal gifts aggregating $2,347,200 for public parks, statues, tablets, and the preservation and restoration of historic buildings. The society has been chiefly instrumental in the creation of seven state parks and largely responsible for an eighth. It has done much to secure appropriations for these parks, is the custodian of five state properties, and was the leading factor in establishing Washington's Headquarters Park in New York city at a cost of $235,000. The list of old buildings it has saved or restored, and of historical sites it has secured and marked, is very long.

AKRON'S CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

The Chamber of Commerce of Akron, O., is representative of that type of commercial organization which takes a broad civic interest in the community's progress. Its year book contains reports of committees, among which that on city improvement tells what it has done to secure a park for the city. It co-operated with the Park Commission in bringing to Akron Howard Evarts Weed, the Chicago landscape architect, to make city plans. It has interested itself in securing additional land around the new high school, in the care of shade trees of the city, in a yard improvement contest, and in various other matters for the betterment of Akron. The housing committee shows that it is largely responsible for an increase of eighty-three per cent in building permits issued during the last year, and in the effort to provide houses for the rapidly growing working population. There is also a municipal committee which has prepared a building code and concerned itself with questions of street paving, traffic congestion, flood control, and street lighting. There is no more encouraging sign than the evidence given by such reports as that from Akron of the broadening interest of business men in civic progress.

SUCCESS IN VILLAGE IMPROVEMENT

In the annual report of the Massachusetts Civic League, the statement of the committee on Village Improvement is included, which is signed by Parris T. Farwell, chairman. It attempts to answer the important question as

to what is the secret of success in village improvement work. The answer of the committee may be summarized as follows: First, the organization that would maintain a useful and permanent existence must be democratic. Second, the range of activities should be as comprehensive as possible. Third, the improvement society should never think that its work is done. Societies "that have charge of playgrounds, schools, and home gardens will find work each year to do, progress and improvement to make, new groups of children to provide with instruction and guidance. Even in the matter of trees, streets, and parks, it is not likely that in any town, as yet, there remains nothing to be done. Moreover, there are always likely to be unexpected events needing the attention of such organizations. A society on the watch can deal at once with unexpected forces, unforeseen enemies that threaten the beauty or comfort of a community. It can also take advantage of unforeseen opportunities. In growing communities, also, it is possible for an improvement society to study the development of the town and plan for its proper laying out, for some system, instead of the haphazard method too often employed in the location of public buildings, and in the mapping out of streets. It can enlist the interest of the whole community in planning for the development of the town under expert guidance, and can follow the working of the plan for years to come. In fact there is no end to the work of a society of this kind. And there will be no question of the continuance of a society which realizes that however good a town is it can be better still, and however beautiful it is it can become even more beautiful. It should also realize that if care is not taken the community will become speedily less beautiful."

PLAYGROUND SUGGESTIONS

Rochester, N. Y., has a pretty good playground system. Some of the grounds are under the jurisdiction of the Park Board, and some are controlled by the Board of Education. In addition there is a Children's Playground League, which has existed in recent years for the express purpose of maintaining a playground in a congested area. The space, surrounded on all sides but one by tall buildings, is very small, but it is crowded with children. It made a great impression on the visitors to the Playground Conference held in Rochester last spring. The directors of the league, in sending out their appeals for subscriptions this winter, have issued the reports of the supervisors of this ground in the form of a little leaflet. The reports contain interesting statements that may be suggestive in other places. In putting the grounds in order in the spring, when on account of the national convention it was desired that they should be even more spic and span than usual, the boys of the playground did all the necessary painting of the apparatus, fences, and shelter, inside and out. The girls washed the windows, made new curtains, and dusted all the books, with the result that a number of the delegates to the convention said that the playground was the neatest they had ever seen. Fridays during the summer were celebrated as flower days. Friends sent fresh blossoms, cut from their gardens, and the little poor children of the nearby tenements stood in line for a long time awaiting their turn to receive the bouquets, which were taken home and cherished as few flowers are. The great annual event is a band concert given by the park band. For this occasion the bare walls of the surrounding buildings are hung with flags and bunting, while hundreds of Japanese lanterns are strung from wires overhead. The children sing the songs they know, and there is dancing and a grand time. Last summer some women who had not forgotten their own childhood sent dolls to the playground. The first ones, says one of the supervisors, "were kept as playground dolls, and their time was fully taken up until they succumbed to the attention given them." After that unfortunate event a circle of King's Daughters prepared dozens of dressed dolls, so that the yearnings of the playground's little girls were more than satisfied.

PARK SYSTEM OF KANSAS CITY

The latest report of the park commissioners of Kansas City is a beautifully illustrated and unusually interesting pamphlet. Its excellence is due to the fact that it marks the closing of an era in the development of the remarkably complete park and boulevard system of Kansas City. Nearly twenty years ago, following a study of local conditions, the commissioners presented a plan which seemed to the community stupendous, and in the judgment of many good residents impossible of accomplishment. The year 1910, says the latest report, sees "the realization of that plan, in general and in detail, to a degree that is perhaps without precedent in such public work." As a matter of fact, the first plan has been augmented and elaborated to an extraordinary extent. In this respect the following figures are striking: The boulevards designed in the plans of 1893 totaled 9.85 miles; in 1910 28.64 miles have been built. The parks designed in 1893 covered 323.45 acres. Those accomplished in 1910 total 2,118.23 acres. With these statistics before one, it is interesting to read that the park and boulevard system "met with strong opposition" in the first few years. "Legal obstacles blocked the way. Enactment by state Legislature, which was expected to give power, did not stand in the Supreme Court. Charter amendment was found necessary, and that had to be decided in the courts." The large taxpayers did much to oppose, but the people as a whole were interested and the work went on. In sharp contrast to the early opposition to parks and boulevards has been the later approval. The greater part of the park land as it exists in 1910 cost nothing. So complete and elaborate, however, is the Kansas City

EDWARD J. WARD.
In charge of social center extension in the University of Wisconsin.

park and boulevard system, that it represents an expenditure of ten millions of dollars. But conservative real estate men, in formal estimate, have computed that the increase in value given to property by the creation of boulevards is a quarter of a million dollars more than the entire cost to the taxpayers of the entire system. Now the city is acquiring miles of boulevards which cost the park commmission nothing for original dedication and construction. Another interesting effect, the report claims, has been the elimination of the problem of congestion. "There is no present indication that the next generation will have to deal with that problem. Centers of congested population, growing more aggravated yearly, were abolished to make room for parks and boulevards. It is a notable fact that other centers of the same character did not take the places of those thus removed. The marked influence of the park and boulevard movement has been to scatter our population." Finally, the report points out that the population of Kansas City increased 51.7 per cent in the decade 1900-10. Among the twenty-five cities of one hundred thousand or more population, it was third in this respect. The two cities which surpassed it were Detroit and Denver, and the deduction is advanced that "the cities which have done most to improve conditions of living have gained most in numbers." Indeed, the report claims for Kansas City that "probably no other city in the country can show so large a proportion of its population, so many of its people of moderate means, living in such attractive environments."

SOCIAL CENTERS IN WISCONSIN

The noteworthy extension service through which the University of Wisconsin brings its advantages to the very doorsteps of the people received additional value last summer, when Edward J. Ward was secured from Rochester to undertake the work of social center promotion in Wisconsin. In the extension division of the university, of which Prof. Louis E. Reber is director, a department of civic and social center development was created. Through this Mr. Ward's work as adviser reaches local communities. Among those which have already been stirred by his efforts are Oshkosh, LaCrosse, Stoughton, Stanley, Madison, and Whitewater. But naturally a large part of his time has been devoted to Milwaukee, where conditions and cooperation were opportune for rapid progress.

Previous experience has well qualified Mr. Ward for the position which he now occupies. His former work as supervisor of playgrounds and social centers under the Rochester Board of Education is well known to readers of THE SURVEY.[1] Under his leadership the school buildings were put to use as evening social centers; and recreational gatherings, lectures, discussions, civic clubs, free motion picture entertainments, and other occasions revived, under modern city conditions, the social spirit of the "little red school house."

The social center idea, however, is far bigger than the school buildings. It brings into wider use any public place or building—park, playground, city hall, library—which may serve to spread the "get together" democratic spirit among all the people. In Rochester the Common Council chamber in the city hall has been used by a non-partisan organization whose Sunday afternoon meetings have done much to foster civic intelligence and public spirit. Similarly, a meeting recently took place in the council chamber of the St. Paul city hall, at which Mr. Ward was the principal speaker, instituting a series of discussions of municipal topics under the auspices of the City Club, the Social Service Club and the Women's Civic League. Milwaukee has perhaps gone a step beyond other cities by housing the Institute of Municipal and Social Service in the council chamber.

MILWAUKEE'S RECREATION MOVEMENT

Broad social spirit characterizes the demand for public recreation in Milwaukee. Instead of waiting to secure more playgrounds, the people realize that the spirit of play and rec-

[1] THE SURVEY for August 7, 1909.

reation may find expression in many occasions and places of which playgrounds are only one type. To develop the municipal, civic, social, and recreational resources, including the use of schools and other public buildings; to establish adequate and well supervised playgrounds; to extend the organized observance of civic holidays and festivals; to increase the public library service, and to foster public musical and dramatic expression, the Milwaukee Association for Public Play and Social Education was formed last fall.

First the school board adopted rules granting to adult citizens the use of their public school buildings as meeting places for non-partisan, non-sectarian organizations having as their purpose the development of intelligent public spirit by the open presentation and free discussion of public questions; or for such other social activities as would not interfere with the prime function of the buildings. Provision was also made to meet the request of such organizations for directors and equipment for boys' and girls' clubs, gymnasium classes, branch public libraries, lectures, and entertainments. These regulations were modeled upon those in use in Rochester and approved by a majority of the committee on school extension of the National Municipal League. Seventy-five leading men and women of Milwaukee, representing all political, religious, and social viewpoints, consented to give their services as speakers before neighborhood civic clubs. A list of the names and topics was printed in a leaflet, explaining the use of the school buildings and pointing out that the real government of the city—its citizenship—at last had a chance to make itself felt directly and quickly.

Ten motion picture shows in as many school buildings, open to all, were contributed by the Milwaukee *Journal*. The success of this series showed that the people gladly avail themselves of such opportunities—numbers were turned away on account of lack of room at each show—and that a large assembly hall on the ground floor is needed in every school building.

Branch public libraries in the public schools are a part of the announced policy of the new librarian, who brings to his work an especial appreciation of this need, because of his previous service as principal of the West Side High School.

Festivals are expected to play an important part in the recreation program. A fine beginning was made on Labor Day when the first Milwaukee play festival was held in Lake Park. A "sane" Hallowe'en came next, to replace the nuisance which the celebration of this evening usually entails. At Lapham Park the children gathered in the afternoon. From there, dressed in witches' capes and hats and carrying transparencies and torches, they marched behind a brass band to a point where all gathered around a bonfire, whose flames were marvelously colored by "witch powder."

A department of public recreation, to carry out through municipal authority the activities and policies now unofficially urged by the Milwaukee Association for Public Play and Social Education, has been proposed. This accords with the recommendations of the Playground Association of America. It is suggested that the department be under a board on which should serve the mayor and a representative of the school, park, police, and library boards. A director of public recreation, with district or neighborhood directors, should organize and supervise recreational activities. Public sentiment seems favorable to the creation of such a department, as evidenced by enthusiastic mass meetings, and the city administration and the various existing boards have also given their approval. The way is expected to be smoothed by the insertion of home rule provisions in the city charter—which seem likely to be secured.

A series of large public dances, with a small admission fee, have been conducted by the Association for Public Play and Social Education. These have attracted attention through newspaper accounts throughout the country. Their purpose was not only to provide dances in good surroundings and under good auspices, but to afford a few big occasions which should focus the thought of the city upon the need for a thorough dealing with the problem of public recreation. The dances were held in the splendid new Milwaukee Auditorium, of which the city is half owner. About 2,000 people attended the first, which used but one of the halls in the building. The price of admission was twenty cents and the profit amounted to over $300. The grand march was led by an octogenarian dancing master of early Milwaukee with the wife of the city treasurer as partner. Every nationality and degree of economic condition among the people was represented. The floor committee was led by the head resident of the University Settlement, who had as assistants six young men from the settlement and six from the University Club. The hour of closing was 11.30. At subsequent dances the admission was lowered to fifteen cents and the crowds were so numerous that three large halls in the auditorium had to be used. During intermissions there were a few brief talks by prominent officials, and folk dancing in costume by groups of various nationalities added picturesqueness to the scene. Non-alcoholic drinks were served at popular prices. While these dances were pronounced a great success, it is thought by some that they should serve as the stimulus for smaller neighborhood dances. While the big dances make for civic spirit in the city as a whole, they are open to the objection that young people are taken away from home neighborhoods, where in smaller dances, attended by parents, a more wholesome, restraining influence prevails.

UTILITY LAWS IN PENNSYLVANIA

It will be interesting to watch the development and possible passage of a public utilities commission bill at the present session of the Pennsylvania Legislature.

A State Railroad Commission was established during the session of 1907, which had powers of recommendation only. Its attempts to remedy the lack of proper service of the traction system in Pittsburgh is an example of the ineffectiveness of such a body without power to enforce its decrees. Two years ago Mayor W. A. Magee of Pittsburgh attempted to secure amendments to this law which would make the commission more effective, but these were never passed. Mayor Magee still desires such legislation and among the many bills he has had prepared are some to give sufficient power to some body to compel reasonable, safe, and adequate traction service in Pittsburgh. It is stated that he intends to have one or more of these bills introduced in the Legislature. Governor Tener, in his inaugural address, declared himself to be in favor of legislation, which should provide for a commission to cover public utilities generally, and which should have power to enforce its orders.

The Pittsburgh Civic Commission, through its committees on rapid transit and legislation, has likewise been much interested in favoring this movement, not only on account of the local situation, but because it is believed that general regulation of all public utilities will be helpful to the user and to the investor. Certain representatives of the people in the communities surrounding Philadelphia are also actively interested in this question, primarily aroused because of a dispute with a large water company regarding rates charged which have recently been increased. They are, however, broad minded and see the advantage of considering the problem from the better point of view of regulating public service and rates in all lines of activity.

A conference was called in Philadelphia January 23, in which drafts of a public utilities bill, as suggested by eastern and by western representatives, were considered. Another conference took place in Harrisburg January 25, at which the mayor of Pittsburgh and the state senators and representatives of Allegheny county were present. This meeting resulted in the appointment of a committee to confer with the governor and atorney-general and aid in the drafting of a just bill, which will meet the crying needs of the people and at the same time guarantee security to investment and freedom from foolish attempts upon such corporations are doing their best.

This committee consists of George M. Alter, member of House from Allegheny county, chairman; Elmer C. Bown, assistant city solicitor, Pittsburgh; William Righter Fisher, attorney, Philadelphia; George Wharton Pepper, attorney, Philadelphia, and V. Gilpin Robinson, member of House from Chester City.

The personnel of the committee insures a comprehensive study of the problem. It is understood that the membership is in touch with Attorney-General John C. Bell, and that thus, when finally prepared and presented to the Legislature, it will appear as an administration measure with all the force and backing which this means.

A SURVEY FOR LAWRENCE

Lawrence, Mass., is in for a "survey." This New England city was planned as a "model town" in the fifties. It has broad streets and centrally located parks. But these aspects have been less in the limelight recently than the fact that the mayor elected last year is now serving a three-year sentence in the county jail, and the chief of the Fire Department, selected by him and confirmed by the aldermen, is serving a term in state prison. The survey, which is to be paid for by the trustees of the White Fund, was undertaken solely in order to get a comprehensive knowledge of social conditions in the community. The work will go forward under several heads, such as industries, education, charities, amusements, parks, etc. It will be of value in enabling the individuals and organizations interested in helping Lawrence to do so without groping in the dark.

SUBWAY FRANCHISE IN PARIS

In the *Engineering News* for January 19, Robert H. Whitten, librarian statistician for the New York Public Service Commission, First District, makes an analysis of the Paris subway system with special reference to franchise terms and conditions. Paris adopted the system of municipal construction with private operation. With one exception the city has held to the plan of owning the entire system and leasing it to one operating company. It exacts universal free transfers. The franchise term for each of the three sub-systems is thirty-five years from the time of its completion. At the expiration of the time the property reverts to the city, but the municipality may purchase seven years after the entire system is in operation. The company pays to the city approximately one-third of its revenue from passenger traffic on terms very favorable to the city as compared to those obtaining in New York.

The most interesting provisions imposed on the operators are those in favor of the employes of the road, which is a matter to which this country has paid little attention. The company is required to create a special fund for the relief and insurance of employes in case of sickness or accident. Free medical and dispensary service is given; employes are insured against accident; the wages of an employe in case of duly authenticated sickness are continued for a year, and in case of temporary incapacity due to an accident, until complete recovery without prejudice to any indemnity that may be due to him. The company contributes seven-eighths of the cost of insuring its employes in the National Pension Fund, payments to which must equal eight per cent of the total payroll.

HOSPITAL COMMITMENT OF THE INSANE

JULIA C. LATHROP
HULL HOUSE, CHICAGO

In the last three months I have seen something of the commitment service for the insane in three European cities, Copenhagen, Munich, and Florence. The manner in which an individual believed to be insane is first taken care of by the authorities and sent to the proper hospital is much alike in these three very unlike towns. It is of interest to us because it shows practicable expedients for treating the insane from the beginning as sick people who are to be put in charge of doctors and nurses, without unnecessary police intervention and without detention in police stations or jails. The system is nowhere perfect, nor even as good as we might have with a little effort, but it is far better than the system we have in most American towns.

Copenhagen has a communal hospital which has been noted for many years for its excellent wards for the insane. For almost fifty years its insane patients, men and women, have been nursed by the women nurses, as patients sick with other ailments are nursed in the other wards of the hospital. This ward has two floors with forty-five beds each, one for men and one for women, and though it is too small for its work, it is yet large enough to receive, for the most part, the insane or presumably insane persons who are sent to hospitals in Copenhagen. Patients are brought by friends, often consenting to come to the hospital, or doubtless by police authority if it is impossible to persuade them. The physician in charge of this service decides upon the cases after suitable observation and his directions are carried out; he can send to an asylum or discharge. There is no detention in a jail or police station. An instance of the method was seen during the International Congress of Charities last August. One morning during the speeches an elderly woman quietly came forward, and standing between the speaker and the chairman began to demand a hearing. When no attention was given her she attacked the speaker, inflicting a slight dagger wound. She was at once overpowered and the audience dismissed. In the Parliamentary Building where the sessions were held was a Red Cross First Aid Station with a nurse, physician, and orderly. After some soothing talk the woman yielded to the nurse and agreed to go to the hospital, being taken there peaceably in a carriage. She was obviously insane, with some fancied grievance which she desired to relate to the congress. It may not be amiss to add, as illustrating the fear of the insane which still governs so much our dealings with them, that while the nurse was trying to persuade the patient to go to the hospital, a gentleman prominent in the congress was credibly reported to have advanced—evidently quite hysterical with alarm—and to have shaken the patient violently, thus certainly confirming any idea of ill-treatment which she had previously entertained, and of course adding to the difficulties of the nurse, who, however, by gentle firmness succeeded in her task.

In Munich, if a person becomes insane, in a boarding house, for example, every effort is made to persuade him to go voluntarily to the hospital known as the University-Clinic, which is under the direction of the distinguished Dr. Kraepelin. If the patient refuses, then a municipal doctor and the police are sent for. If the doctor states that the patient is dangerous to himself or to others, the police are responsible for his conveyance to the hospital, but the patient is conveyed directly there, not in a police conveyance, but in a private carriage or ambulance; and the police, after the German manner, are responsible for ascertaining if the patient or his friends can pay for his care. In this hospital patients are nursed and studied, the cases, after a stay usually of three weeks or less, being discharged or sent to other institutions by the medical head.

In Florence, if a person becomes suddenly insane and uncontrollable, any doctor's statement believing him insane is enough to secure his admission to the University Hospital on the edge of the city. If the patient's friends cannot take him there, the police may do so, but they use a private carriage—never a

police conveyance. They never conduct the patient to a police station, but always to this hospital clinic maintained by the University of Florence. All insane patients pass through this hospital, remaining not more than one month and usually much less, where they are studied and the cases disposed of by the medical officer in charge.

The significant features of these plans are that the insane are treated as patients from the start with as little police intervention as possible; and that in each one of these cities there is a special hospital for receiving insane patients. These hospitals are connected with the university schools of medicine, and have at their head distinguished physicians who are also teachers, and whose presence insures for patients the benefit of whatever wisdom exists, at the same time drawing students of medicine who may in time popularize a better attitude toward the insane and the newer ideas as to the preservation of healthy minds as well as healthy bodies. It is significant, further, that all these hospitals treat their patients like other sick persons, put them to bed, give them doctors and nurses, abundance of good food, and no mechanical restraint. In the Munich Hospital Dr. Kraepelin has gathered a small museum of appliances for restraint, and old prints illustrating many ingeniously disagreeable or painful methods of dealing with the insane. Dr. Zeller of Illinois has a similar collection, and in common with many other American superintendents has likewise abandoned mechanical restraint in his institution. I wish it could be said of all the hospitals in America, as it is said of the fifty-two public hospitals in Italy, that like the University Hospital of Florence, they have all "practically abandoned mechanical restraint."

Nowhere in Europe, I believe, is the actual nursing care of patients better than in those American hospitals which have put trained nurses in charge. Personally I have seen no hospital, save the one in Copenhagen, which seemed to a non-professional eye to approximate our best hospitals in this regard.

It is in that critical moment of commitment, of withdrawing from the patient—often reluctant or suspicious or violent—his most precious possession,—his own right of self-direction, that we need most of all to emphasize the doctor and the nurse, and to substitute instantly the hospital for the prison. Here our American methods can be improved, and by the use of the public health officers in both city and country we can eliminate entirely the need of even such employment of the police as still prevails in the cities I have mentioned. The new law of the state of New York, placing health officers in charge of commitment of the insane, is a splendid beginning.

CALIFORNIA COMMITMENTS

In its fourth biennial report, just published, the California State Board of Charities and Corrections recommends treatment of the insane very much in line with that observed in Europe by Miss Lathrop, and described in her article above. Following the board's recommendation in 1906, that its insane hospitals no longer be conducted as places for detention of the chronic insane, but as places for the treatment of insanity as a disease, "all of the state hospitals were provided with cottages equipped," the report states, "with the best apparatus known to medical science for the treatment of insanity." The last cottage was completed lately and the board now gives its attention to a new advance step, the matter of commitments. It has this to say:

> We strongly recommend, however, that a law be enacted providing for the voluntary admission of insane patients into our treatment buildings, the necessity for such treatment to be decided by the medical staff of the hospital. This will do away with all expense of commitment and save the patient from the stigma of a judgment of insanity in a court of record. It cannot be denied that there is a feeling that a commitment for insanity is a kind of criminal conviction. The patients would be saved this, and for that reason many would come in the earlier stages of the disease, when the chance of cure is much better. These cases would be voluntary and could not be kept by force, but we have faith to believe that if such a law were enacted it would be but a few years when most cases would come in this way, and it might in time lead to the breaking down of the constitutional bars which now make a quasi-criminal procedure for the commitment of insane necessary.

A CITY'S BEST ASSETS

"The opening of the Panama Canal, the development of waterways and railroads, ore and coal mines, metal and fabric industries, means much in wealth production and material prosperity; but," says Morris Knowles, the sanitary engineer who supervised the erection of the great Pittsburgh filtration plant, in a recent article in the *Manufacturers Record* on the Development of Municipal Utilities in the

South, "it will be unfortunate if the people of the South do not profit by some of the mistakes of the North and do some of their planning before what is now realized to be an error in many communities." Mr. Knowles points out one of these mistakes to be the short-sighted rush in many northern cities to build up "one big live industry, without care for housing, decent living, health, comfort, and the pleasure of its working classes." The broad gauge, far-seeing, statesmanlike policy that will lead one industrial community to out-distance another, must take human as well as mechanical development into account. Mr. Knowles continues:

We hear a great deal about attracting industrial and manufacturing concerns to a community by all sorts of inducements, free water and free power for a time; free sites, low or no taxation, and for a while even cash bonuses. I wonder if, when doing this, the promoters think of the old adage: "You cannot get something for nothing." It is quite likely to be true that the concern that needs and must have such careful coddling is not worth the effort and has not enough capital or stability to build for the future. But there is a higher, better, and more certain standard determining the desirability of location. The careful, conservative business man or manufacturer will look further than the short-time effect of the above-named conditions; he will ask not only what are your natural facilities and what are the inducements you will offer for a period of time, as above, but more important still, what are your provisions for public utilities, what of the methods and efficiency and honesty of your governmental forces as they affect the life of your community, and are they actuated by honest, right living, efficient effort? Are you planning for commodious, sanitary, and safe housing facilities and a proper building code? Are you planning for the health of the community by a clear and pure water supply and sanitary disposal of sewage, household refuse, and waste? Are you planning for proper transit and traffic facilities that the people can get about to and from work and to the shopping districts comfortably and easily? Are you planning for good, well-administered schools, playgrounds, small open-air spaces, and larger parks, with plenty of opportunities for the children to grow up in a normal, open-air, healthful existence? We are fast coming to the time, if it is not already here, when the manufacturer, for his own advantage and his own pocketbook, because his help will thus stay with him, as well as because of his broad humanitarian viewpoint, will ask these last questions largely, rather than how much power, water, or land can I get free or how many years of freedom from taxation.

The article concludes with a discussion of the resources and liabilities of southern cities in conserving public health, and points the way toward improving the water supply and sewer system by intelligent conservation of forest, construction of river barriers and reservoirs, filtration, curtailing the extravagant waste of water by installing meters, and wise forethought and careful planning of both sewer and water systems far ahead and beyond present corporate limits, in order to provide for future development and to obviate complications when new territory is annexed.

SITE FOR CHICAGO SANITARIUM

With the vote of the Chicago City Council on January 30, authorizing the purchase of the site for the Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium, the long fight in which the directors sought to secure land within the city limits is terminated. The tract is 160 acres and the cost $158,000. Located in the northwestern part of the city, the site is double the area and better suited for the purpose than the tract submitted last fall, and abandoned because of neighborhood objections and clouded title. It is undoubtedly one of the best sites that could be found inside the city.

Bordered on the south and west by 540 acres of partly wooded cemetery property, precluding the possibility of smoke producing factories in this direction; and on the north and west by unimproved prairie, the land itself has shrubbery, selected nursery stock, and over 5,000 trees growing upon it. Drainage and sewerage possibilities are good. It is three and one-half miles from Lake Michigan, about nine miles from the downtown district, and it can be reached from any part of the city by a five cent fare.

Developments in the dispensary department of the sanitarium have also been rapid. A night clinic has been opened at the Gads Hill dispensary; a downtown day and night dispensary, calculated to reach the lodging house population and the people employed in the factories and business houses in the loop district, is about to be opened in the Iroquois Memorial Emergency Hospital, recently turned over to the Health Department, and preparations are under way for the opening of a clinic for colored people at the Provident Hospital, as well as a dispensary in the northwest section. The nursing staff has been doubled and the entire salaried service placed under the provisions of the municipal civil service. The Visiting Nurse Association, which has heretofore handled cases of tuberculosis, has transferred 500 of its ambulatory cases, and as soon as practicable will relinquish all tuberculous patients who can go to the dispensaries.

The 1911 tax appropriation budget contains a tax levy for the Municipal Sanatarium of one-half mill for 1912. This will yield $142,000 and bids fair to be passed by the City Council.

Stimulating the public through educational work, investigating and reporting on conditions tending to spread tuberculosis, and advising existing agencies for the care of the tuberculous, figure prominently in the immediate work before the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute.

HANDBOOK ON OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS

The buoyant air of optimism which swells deeper and stronger with every fresh advance of the tuberculosis campaigners rarely affords a more stimulating breadth than is to be found in Open-Air Crusaders. This book of 107 pages tells the story of the Elizabeth McCormick Open-Air School, which the United Charities of Chicago has maintained since October, 1909. THE SURVEY, in its issue for March 5, 1910, called attention to the school and to the beginning of its wider influence in opening the windows of Chicago school houses. The great progress which has followed and the co-operation which has rallied are detailed in this attractively illustrated report.

The United Charities found in studying two hundred families, in each of which there was one or more cases of tuberculosis, that the average income was about six dollars a week and the average number of rooms occupied was a little over three. With the feeling that "the poor cannot afford it and the community cannot afford it" the organization decided to supplement the direct warfare on the white plague by a flank movement. By increasing resistance and bodily vigor among children whose sub-normal physical condition renders them susceptible, it is hoped to limit the territory which the disease finds easy to conquer. What the school accomplished in building up these pallid little ones is stated in a table which shows that forty-nine children were in the aggregate 609 pounds below normal. These children gained 178 pounds; the greatest individual gain was fourteen pounds in seven weeks.

Of significance, however, for all Chicago's school children is the gain in ability to learn. The report says: "They were listless, inattentive, uninterested and uninteresting. There was not enough energy created in the body to light the mind." Yet, although the time given to instruction was decreased by the exercise, feeding, and rest periods, the children soon reached a normal standard of alertness and interest in their school work. It is put tersely in a "schoolgram", asking, "What shall it profit a child if he gain the whole curriculum and lose his health?"

The book is edited by Sherman C. Kingsley, superintendent of the United Charities. The stories of the children are told by Alice Bunker and Mabel B. Ellis. Chapters on the details of management and on statistics are contributed by the physician in charge, Dr. James A. Britton. Frank E. Wing, superintendent of the Chicago Municipal Tuberculosis Sanitarium, writes of the first open-air school in Chicago, and points the need for making such schooling available for the 4,700 tuberculous children in Chicago. The experience and good results of opening the windows in the average school room are discussed by William E. Watts, and Health Commissioner William A. Evans states convincingly the scientific aspects of the problem of school room ventilation. As a handbook for people who are contemplating open-air schools, its value can hardly be over-emphasized.

Through the generosity of the trustees of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, the United Charities is enabled to place the book before the public free of charge to those interested in open-air schools, and copies may be obtained by addressing the United Charities, 51 LaSalle street, Chicago.

WRETCHEDNESS A CAUSE OF POLITICAL UNREST

Dr. Ronald Ross, whose explanations in regard to the propagation of malaria have given him high rank as a sanitary authority, contributes the following very interesting letter to the London *Times*, on the completion of a series of articles from a special correspondent on the subject of Unrest in India. It would be difficult to find a more succinct statement of the new sort of constructive statesmanship or a better illustration to give point of the statement.

"TO THE EDITOR OF THE TIMES:

"In your admirable series of articles on Indian Unrest little stress seems to have been laid (though I may have overlooked references) to what must be one of the principal causes of that unrest, the extreme wretchedness in which the vast masses of the Indian people live—I mean particularly what may be called the mechanical causes of that condition, bad housing and insanitary surroundings.

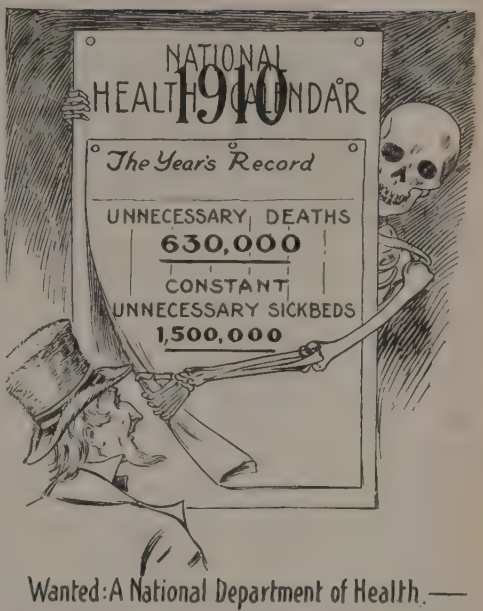
"Probably the only class of British officials in India who ever really penetrate into these mysteries of misery are the medical, and especially the sanitary, officers—a class to which I had the honor of belonging for many years. One has actually to see the interior of the houses, in which each family is often compelled to live in a single small cell, made of mud walls and with a mud floor; containing small yards littered with rubbish, often crowded with cattle; possessing wells permeated by rain soaking through this filthy surface; and frequently jumbled together in inchoate masses called towns and cities. The sanitary condition may be inferred from the fact that the total death rate in India is nearly double the British death rate. Taking merely a government report which happens to be lying on my table, I see that in the five years 1902-6

the mean annual death rate was nearly 34 per thousand, and in 1907 the death rate was more than 37 per thousand on an average for the total population in British India of 225,921,260 —rising to as many as 144.31 in the town of Dinga, and to as many as 106.67 in the Gujrat district of the Punjab. The industry, thriftiness, and patience of the Indian people are proverbial; and yet here surely there is enough to make them somewhat restless at times.

"It will of course be said at once that these conditions have existed in India from time immemorial and are no more likely to cause unrest now than previously; but in my opinion the unrest has always existed there in a subterranean form. Moreover, in the old days the populace could scarcely make any comparisons between their own condition and that of more fortunate people; now they can compare their own slums and terrrible 'native quarters' with the much better ordered cantonments, stations, and houses of the British officials and even of their own wealthier brethren. So far as I can see such misery is always the fundamental cause of all popular unrest; I have always understood that it produced the French Revolution, and I think that it causes the unrest which occurs in Ireland and even in England. Seditious meetings, political chatter, and 'aspirations' of babus and demagogs are only the surface manifestation of the deeper disturbance—a manifestation which occurs only when the strong hand is relaxed.

"It will be said at once that all this misery is merely the result of unavoidable economical causes; but this is much open to doubt. I fear it must be confessed that the slum is largely a condition found only in certain nations. It has been almost entirely banished from Germany, Sweden, and I believe several other nations; but it abounds not only in India, but in Britain, most of our colonies, and in the United States. If it can be banished from some countries why cannot it be banished from all? Surely there is here something else besides unconquerable natural causes.

"Much of what has been said in the *Times* regarding our future policy in India is absolutely true, but I think that much has been left unsaid. It is quite correct that in connection with our great work in India the British people must be true to its highest and oldest ideals; but times are changing and we must also adopt some new and still more fruitful ideals. I think that we are not sufficiently scientific in the way in which we deal with these immense questions of town management and sanitation—fundamental subjects of administration which are all too often relegated to the background of affairs. We are too fond of endless talk about the mere machinery of governments, the formation and powers of committees, and so-called representation of the people in them. Experience is beginning to show that all this really produces little effect on the mass of the people—the slum abounds almost as much in British towns as in Constantinople. Great stress is laid upon character in the rulers; but they require knowledge as well. To place a man of the greatest integrity at the head of a large municipality or district is not enough—he must also possess a full knowledge of how to deal with such problems as I mention. It is just there where I think we fail. Town management and sanitation are difficult arts, requiring much training and thought; and it is not disrespectful to say that most of our greatest officials are extremely ignorant of them.



January Bulletin, Committee of One Hundred on National Health.

THE COMMITTEE ADVOCATES CONSERVATION OF HEALTH AS A NATIONAL RESOURCE.

"It is a commonplace with sanitary men in India and elsewhere that they can often obtain no serious or intelligent hearing of their pleas. I need quote only a single example, which I have often referred to in the *Times*. Malaria alone causes, according to official estimate, more than one million deaths per annum in India. Eleven years ago we found how the disease is produced, and I suggested a simple and inexpensive method for reducing it—a method which has been carried out successfully in many parts of the world. And yet it is only quite recently that any organized attempt has been commenced in India to act upon this suggestion. To me it seems that the construction of a really efficient sanitary service for India, and closer attention to the housing and town-managing problems and to allied questions, would confer a much greater benefit on the Indian people than mere political adjustments and readjustments. For this sanitarians have been crying for years, but they have always cried in the wilderness; and

the conclusion of your series of articles seems to be an appropriate moment for reiterating opinions so often stated by all of us and so often forgotten.

"I am, Sir, yours faithfully,

"RONALD ROSS.

"Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine.
"September 20."

HOW $25,000 SAVED $225,000

If it costs $25,000 to restore to life and health 161 men and women whose combined lives, even at the paltry value of $1,500 each, are worth over $225,000, what is the net gain to the community?

This is a problem answered in a report of three and one-half years' work of the Edward Sanatorium, written by Dr. Theodore B. Sachs and issued by the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute. Dr. Sachs shows by a series of carefully prepared tables that of the 176 patients admitted to the sanatorium in the incipient stage of tuberculosis, 161, or 91.5 per cent, who were discharged as either apparently cured, improved, or arrested, are still maintaining their condition and enjoy their full working capacity. "These cured patients," says Dr. Sachs, "at the end of periods ranging from six months to three and one-half years since their discharge, may be found in various homes, offices, and mercantile and manufacturing establishments of Chicago and other cities." Of the moderately advanced cases treated at the sanatorium during the same period, 35 per cent are at present in possession of full working capacity. The average period of treatment of the incipient cases was 15.6 weeks, and of the moderately advanced, 19.7 weeks. On this basis, at an average cost of about ten dollars per week per patient, it has cost the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute about $25,000 to save the lives of the 161 incipient cases, or an average of about $160 per life.

Another significant part of the work of the Edward Sanatorium is that it submits again incontrovertible figures showing that the treatment of tuberculosis is not a question of climate or altitude, but one of fresh air, rest, good food, and rigid medical supervision.

WITHOUT A BIRTH RATE

"Talk about registration of births in the United States! Why, for not more than one-half (55.3 per cent) of the total population of this country is there even fairly accurate registrations of deaths alone. No other civilized nation on the face of the earth so neglects its duty in this respect, or holds the vital records of its people of such low esteem." This is quoted from the recent report by the census committee on the registration of births. An interesting statement regarding the establishment by the Census Bureau of a provisional birth registration area in the United States, for the purpose of compiling statistics enabling the scientific study and prevention of infantile mortality, has been submitted to Census Director Durand by Dr. C. L. Wilbur, chief statistician for vital statistics. The statement notes that America is far behind most foreign nations in regard to vital statistics, and that there is not a single state, nor even a single city, in the entire United States which possesses a complete registration of births. Boston claims to have the best, but is only ninety-six per cent complete, while probably the most worthless registration of births among all the cities of the entire world, it is stated, may be claimed by Baltimore, Chicago, and New Orleans.

The accurate collection, tabulation, and analysis of records of births, deaths, stillbirths, marriage, divorces, and sickness may be said to constitute the bookkeeping of humanity. Acting on the principle that vital statistics are the foundation of scientific public health work, Dr. Wilbur began in 1908 the collection of statistics of births, with a view to establishing a provisional birth registration area. This work has steadily progressed until at the present time the tentative area includes the New England States, Pennsylvania, Michigan, and the District of Columbia, although the latter does not register all its births. In fact Pennsylvania is the only state in which a determined effort has been made to enforce thoroughly the registration of births, as the law provides, where the state has such a law. But the bureau wishes records kept in other states, better records in all states, and not only records of births, but of all other vital facts. At present there is a bill before Congress providing for better registration of births in the District of Columbia. Owing to the fact that, with the exception of the district and the territories, all laws governing vital statistics are state enactments, the bill before Congress is aimed to be something of a model and standard for similar bills in the states, in order that as much uniformity in methods as possible may be secured. Meanwhile, the bureau is waging an active campaign to arouse public interest in the registration of births, with the special object of reducing infantile mortality.

DEATH RATE FOR 1910

Although complete returns for 1910 have not been received, enough were in hand at the end of January to enable Dr. C. L. Wilbur, chief statistician for vital statistics of the Census Bureau, to make an approximate provisional estimate (the earliest statement of the kind, by the way, ever given out by the Census Bureau), of mortality in the registration area. This area comprises about one-half of the total population of the United States. "If the returns not yet received for 1910 for certain areas prove to be substantially the same as those for the corresponding months of the previous year," states Dr. Wilbur, "then the total number of deaths that will be reported from the registration area (the registration states and certain cities in non-registration states) for 1910 will be about 780,000, and for the registration states, 667,-

000." These give a death rate of 15.0 for the larger area and of 14.8 for the registration states. The death rate for the registration area in 1909, revised on the basis of recent population returns, was 14.4 per 1,000, and this was the lowest in the history of the United States. Thus, though the death rates for both areas in 1910 are slightly greater than for the preceding year, the Census Bureau considers the showing remarkably favorable. In view of the very low rates, actual and relative, reported from California, Indiana, Michigan, and especially Wisconsin (11.8), it may reasonably be questioned whether the actual death rate is not appreciably above 14.8, the registered death rate. A tendency to inflate population figures, slackness in reporting deaths, or both, if found in one or several state, would lower the registered rate for the whole area below the actual number of deaths in each thousand of the population.

FOR THE MENTALLY DISEASED

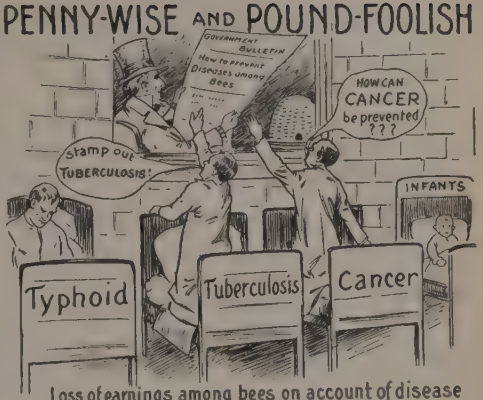
Massachusetts is investing $500,000 in the erection of a state Psychopathic Hospital which will be a center for receiving, classifying, and distributing patients with mental diseases. The institution expects to be able to receive 1,500 patients, the wards accommodating 100, and the remainder being sent elsewhere for treatment according to their individual needs. Boston gets the hospital, and it is to be completed in about a year.

RESULTS IN CLEVELAND

The report of the Anti-Tuberculosis League of Cleveland shows a remarkable extension of preventive work within the last year. New features of the year are appropriations by the municipality for a sanatorium and hospital and for general investigation and care of the sick, dispensary extension under a director, a day camp, open-air schools, visiting nurses, school inspection, and the starting of a school in a tent colony already established.

HEALTH DAY IN SCHOOLS

Booklets No. 22 and 23 of the Health Education League, 113 Devonshire street, Boston, are on Typhoid Fever, Its Infection and Prevention, by Mary Hinman Abel; and The Observance of Health Day in Schools, by Dr. Thomas F. Harrington, director of school hygiene in the Boston public schools. The


PENNY-WISE AND POUND-FOOLISH
GOVERNMENT BULLETIN
How to prevent Diseases among Bees
HOW CAN CANCER be prevented ???
Stamp out TUBERCULOSIS!
INFANTS
Typhoid
Tuberculosis
Cancer
Loss of earnings among bees on account of disease $1,000,000 - annually.
Loss of earnings among people on account of disease $3,000,000,000 - annually.

January Bulletin, Committee of One Hundred on National Health.

ANOTHER REASON FOR A FEDERAL DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

latter booklet, which the league is planning to spread widely among school superintendents, contains the arguments for setting aside a school day for teaching the elements of hygiene, together with outlines of lessons on health given in the Boston schools, where the first annual Health Day (October 7) was established two years ago.

AN EAST BOSTON SHOWING

The first annual report of the Warwick Dispensary of East Boston shows over 5,000 visits by patients through the year, with an average daily attendance of twenty-five in the month of September, the latter representing a gain of over 100 per cent over the first month of the year. Though still in its beginnings and hampered by lack of funds, the dispensary has justified its existence by its first year's work. More than half the patients are Jewish and Italian children brought by school nurses from the public schools of the district, and to these, as to the older patients, an effort is made to give education in the principles of health, besides medical treatment. East Boston is a district of longshoremen and teamsters working along the wharves, and has been until lately overlooked by charity.

INDUSTRY

WORK-POISONS

THE REPORT OF THE ILLINOIS COMMISSION ON OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

What lead, arsenic, zinc, cyanide of potash, hydrofluoric acid mean, not as re-agents on a chemist's shelves, but as factors in the every-day life of many American work people, is brought out in the report of the Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases, which was sent to Governor Deneen at the convening of the Legislature in January. In this report, primarily on the poisons, Illinois thus leads the American commonwealths in the accurate and comprehensive study of work processes from the standpoint of industrial hygiene; and even more significant than any of the striking facts which the commission brought to light in the scant year at its disposal, is its vigorous recommendation to the Legislature that the study of occupational diseases be continued.

This commission, which began its work last March, consisted of the following persons:

George W. Webster, M.D., president Illinois State Board of Health.
James A. Egan, M.D., secretary, Illinois State Board of Health.
David Ross, secretary, Bureau of Labor Statistics.
Edgar T. Davies, chief, Department of Factory Inspection.
Ludwig Hektoen, M.D., Memorial Institute for Infectious Diseases.
Walter S. Haines, M.D., Rush Medical College.
W. H. Allport, M.D., surgeon to St. Luke's Hospital.
James Simpson, vice-president, Marshall Field and Company.
Charles R. Henderson, University of Chicago, secretary.

Dr. Hektoen is one of the foremost pathologists of the country. Dr. Haines is a chemist and toxicologist of national reputation. Both are on the faculty of Rush Medical College. Dr. Allport had shown his interest in the social aspect of medicine by a series of articles in the *Illinois Medical Journal* dealing with workmen's compensation. Mr. Simpson was the representative of the employers, and Professor Henderson, to whose efforts was due the appointment of the commission, served as its secretary,—altogether a group of men from whom could be expected a careful and valuable piece of work.

The report, which covers some 200 pages, opens with an introduction by Dr. Henderson giving a history of the work of the commission, a summary of the problem of industrial hygiene and of the principals of effective legislation, a short review of the subject of trade risk and sickness insurance, and closes with the recommendation to the Legislature to continue the study. Then follow the reports on the special investigations.

The reason for selecting for the most part those trades in which there are industrial poisons rather than the dusty trades which are numerically so much more important, is probably to be found in the fact that the poisonous trades cause definite lesions which can be clearly traced to the poison itself, while the connection between the dusty trades and respiratory diseases is harder to establish. As the commission had only a little over nine months in which to make investigations, it wisely decided to select one restricted field of work for an intensive study, rather than to make a general survey of the whole subject.

The appropriation granted to the commission seems to have been expended entirely upon the investigation itself, for office room was donated by the university and the medical men in the commission gave the use of their laboratories. Consequently a large force of investigators could be put to work. The list includes eleven physicians and ten laymen, the former taking up the hygiene of the different trades and the physical condition of the work people, the latter investigating factories and examining records of hospitals, dispensaries, and sick benefit societies.

The poisons studied were lead, arsenic, brass, zinc, turpentine, carbon monoxide (gas), cyanide of potash, nitrate of silver, hydrofluoric acid, metol, platinum, the chromates, and chromic acid. In addition there was a study of caisson, or compressed air disease, one of boilermakers' deafness, and one of miners' nystagmus (oscillation of the eye).

The general impression gained from a perusal of these reports is that industrial poisoning is a common thing in this country, unless

conditions in Illinois are different from those in other states—a far more common thing than has been supposed. Lead poisoning, brass chills, "gassing," inflammation of mucous membranes from acid fumes, cyanide poisoning, turpentine poisoning, seem all to be of frequent occurrence among the workers engaged in handling these poisons—so frequent, in fact, that one wonders why such conditions have not been more conspicuous, why it has needed a painstaking search to unearth them.

LEAD POISONING

We have always supposed that in the matter of lead poisoning, for instance, conditions in America were far better than in the older countries and that the elaborate precautions enforced over there would be absurd and out of place here, but Dr. Alice Hamilton's report on the Lead Trades of Illinois shows that the contrary is true, and that the evils which have led to restrictive legislation in England and on the continent exist among us today.

Lead is stated to be the most important of the industrial poisons, because of its wide use. About twenty-eight trades were studied in the course of this investigation, in all of which lead is used and in all of which lead poisoning was found. The most dangerous trades appear to be lead smelting, the white lead trades and paint factories, the painting trade, and the making of storage batteries. The investigation found that workmen in these trades do not receive the protection which European laws provide for them, and that in addition the methods of work peculiar to American industry are more dangerous than those in use abroad. So that the American workman is not only exposed to more danger than is the English or German workman, but he is not protected by careful hygienic regulations as are the latter. A comparison of the results of European control and American *"laissez-faire"* is made in two trades. For the white lead industry Dr. Hamilton states that

> in one English white lead factory employing 182 men careful medical inspection failed to disclose one case of lead poisoning in the years 1909-1910. In an Illinois factory employing 142 men partial inspection revealed 25 men suffering from lead poisoning last year. In another English factory employing 90 men no case was discovered for five successive years. In an Illinois factory employing 94 men 28 per cent of all employes have had lead poisoning and 40 per cent of all employed in the dustier work.

The contrast between English storage battery works and those in Illinois is just as striking:

> At the Hart Accumulator Works, in London, 80 to 100 men are employed, and there has been no case of lead poisoning for over a year. On the other hand, one small plant in Chicago belonging to one of the railroads employs only 15 men, but had two known cases of lead poisoning in a period of nine months.

Perhaps the most important section of this lead report is the one dealing with the painter's trade, because it employs such a large number of men. Here, too, it appears that American methods are fraught with great danger to the workmen, and that the painter cannot protect himself against lead poisoning if he is obliged to do the dusty part of the work.

The report emphasizes the fact that the lead trades employ large numbers of unskilled foreigners who are ignorant of the dangers, or perhaps aware that the work is dangerous but quite at a loss how to protect themselves. Instances are cited of newly arrived foreigners being put to work without instructions and contracting severe lead poisoning in a few weeks' time. The investigators found "almost no effort in the lead works to instruct foreigners in the care of their persons and in the avoidance of danger." These foreigners tend to drop out of the work as soon as they feel ill or see a comrade taken ill, and "there is therefore in Illinois a large army of men who are continually moving in and out of the lead trades," a condition which "is productive of far more poisoning than would occur among a permanent force of men."

The tabulated list of 578 individual cases of lead poisoning has a column devoted to Compensation from Employers, which is interesting reading, because there is practically nothing there to read.

BRASS POISONING

Dr. Hayhurst's report of brass poisoning should be of great interest to foreign authorities on industrial hygiene, because the condition known as "brass founders' ague" is regarded by some of them as a myth, while others believe it exists, but have great trouble in tracking down instances. Dr. Hayhurst seems to have found no difficulty in this respect. His description of the brass trade is worth careful reading, but in this review a few details will have to suffice.

The workmen are poisoned by fumes, and

the most important part of Dr. Hayhurst's report is that which shows that the production of fumes is controllable and "brass founders' ague" a preventable evil:

Brass is an alloy of copper and zinc, and as the latter is the cheaper ingredient the poorer varieties of brass have the largest proportion of zinc. "Brass founders' ague" is probably caused by the sublimation products of zinc, and therefore the foundries making the cheaper grades are more dangerous to work in than those making better grades. In large foundries with good ventilation, either natural or artificial, brass chills are practically never seen. As for actual conditions in Chicago, Dr. Hayhurst finds that only 4 of the 89 foundries visited could be classed as well equipped and free from trade sickness; 63 were acknowledged as the centers of trade sickness; 7 more were suspected of being equally bad.

A physical examination of 187 men, representing 78 foundries, showed that 146 complained of some trade sickness, 45 of brass chills. As brass founders handle lead, arsenic, antimony, phosphorus, and the cyanides, chills are not the only form of illness to which they are subject. The recently employed men are more susceptible to brass chills than the old employes, who gain a sort of tolerance after a while; but these men often show the effects of chronic brass poisoning on the lungs, digestive tract, nervous system, and kidneys. The effect on longevity is shown by the fact that out of 1,761 foundry men only 17 were over fifty years of age, a very striking record.

CARBON MONOXIDE

Carbon monoxide poisoning in the steel works was studied by Dr. Matthew Karasek and Dr. George Apfelbach, who found ample material among the 20,000 men employed in the great steel plants in South Chicago and Joliet, where the gas is produced during the smelting of the iron ore with coke and lime. When a workman is sufficiently exposed to this gas he develops symptoms very like those of ether anaesthesia, and if he is not removed promptly to the fresh air the poisoning may result fatally. Of course, such accidents as falling from a height or against hot metal are not uncommon, because unconsciousness comes with great suddenness.

The investigators found that "gassing" was of frequent occurrence, but that it was supposed to cause no lasting injury to health. To settle this point they examined carefully 240 workers who were frequently exposed to the gas and found that very few of them were in good physical condition. The only way to prove that the exposure to gas was responsible for their ill health was to make a comparative study of men in similar work, with similar home conditions, of the same nationalities, but not exposed to gas. Such a comparison of 400 carefully selected cases showed that the men exposed to gas had a deficient muscular power, as indicated by the hand dynamometer—that is, that their strength was less than that of the men not exposed to gas. If this should prove to be actually due to gas inhalation "it means a large economic loss in the numerous industries where workers are exposed to CO."

Sluggish mentality was noted in most of these men, but the physicians were not willing to say positively that the gas is responsible for this condition, although they report four cases of insanity produced by severe "gassing."

COMPRESSED AIR

The article on compressed air disease by Dr. Peter Bassoe is very exhaustive, but the following extract will give the chief points of interest to the non-medical reader.

Work in compressed air is necessitated wherever excavations are made near water or in water-laden soil. Thus, in Illinois, the building of bridges, especially those for heavy railroad traffic, the diggings of tunnels, and the laying of deep foundations near a body of water must all be done in compressed air, which prevents caving in and keeps the water out. The workman must be more or less rapidly "compressed"—that is, subjected to increased atmospheric pressure—by forcible pumping in of air. This stage is disagreeable, but seldom attended with serious results except on the ears. The ear drum is often ruptured by the great pressure of air. After he has been "compressed" the workman is fairly comfortable until the time comes for decompression, for a return to the normal atmosphere. This is the hazardous stage, and unless it is very carefully managed it is attended with, or followed by, great suffering, and even death.

Dr. Bassoe gives some statistics showing the dangerous nature of this work before proper precautions were used:

Of the 3,500 men employed in the Hudson tunnels 1,419 suffered from caisson disease. Of the first 45 to 50 employed, 12 died, a mortality of 25 per cent, which, toward the end of the work, was reduced to 1 per cent by the introduction of a proper system of de-compression. In building the St. Louis bridge 600 men worked in compressed air, 119 had caisson disease and 14 died.

The report of conditions in Illinois is largely historical, as no important work in compressed air was being carried on at the time of writing, except the construction of the Mississippi iron bridge at East St. Louis.

Dr. Bassoe interviewed 161 men who had at some time worked in compressed air, and he gives the results in carefully constructed tables; 141 had had the so-called "bends," pains in the limbs; 6 had had the "blind staggers"—vertigo, and 2 the most dangerous form, dyspnoea, known as "the chokes"—87 had had some affection of the ear. As for permanent results, he found 65 with impaired hearing, 12 with symptoms of spinal cord disease, 11 with pain and stiffness in bones and point, and 5 with partial paralysis. Three fatal cases were reported as occurring during the construction of one bridge at East St. Louis and one from another, all having occurred during this year. Two more were reported from Rockford, none from Chicago.

Dr. Bassoe's paper contains most interesting matter on the history, pathology, and prevention of caisson disease.

PROPOSED LAW

Short articles follow on miners' nystagmus and boilermakers' deafness, and the report concludes with suggestions as to cards of instructions for employers and employes in the lead trades and with two proposed bills, one for the control of the poisonous trades and the other for the protection of workers in caisson disease:

The bill would make the employer responsible for trade diseases in his employes—that is, for diseases peculiar to the work or process carried on. The trades specified as involving danger of disease are those in which poisons are handled or used—such as sugar of lead, white, yellow, or red lead, arsenate of lead, Paris green—also the manufacture of brass and the smelting of lead and zinc. In such trades the employer is required to provide and maintain working clothes and see that his employes wear them. Where dust or fumes are produced respirators must be furnished and used. Medical inspection once a month is required, and the report of the inspecting physician must be sent to the State Board of Health, which must transmit a copy to the Department of Factory Inspection.

The law also provides for adequately equipped lavatories, for lunch rooms, and for wholesome drinking water. There are other sections devoted to the removal of fumes and the prevention of dust, a section empowering the Department of Factory Inspection to carry out the provisions of the law, and one requiring the posting of simple instructions for employes as to the mode of avoiding diseases, these instructions to be in whatever language is necessary to make them intelligible to the employes.

A fine of fifty to one hundred dollars for the first offence, doubled for the second, is the penalty for violation of any provision in the act. And in addition, any injury to the health of any employe, caused by wilful violation or failure to comply, may be made the ground for action for direct damages, and in case of death, a right of action accrues to the legal heirs.

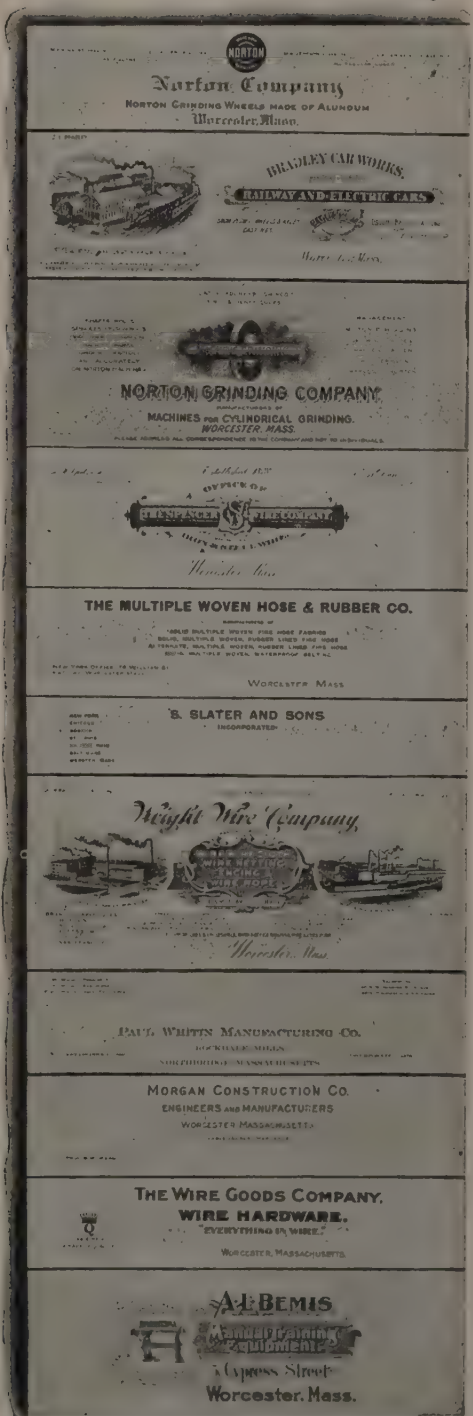
The Illinois commission has thus made a contribution to the practical literature of industrial diseases in America, comparable to the reports made on work-accidents and their prevention. It has shown what can be accomplished in nine months' work, and affords a basis for judging the immense increase in our knowledge of the human waste in industry and of ways to prevent it, which will follow if the Illinois Legislature decides to carry to completion this valuable inquiry, and if the Legislatures of other states decide to take up similar studies of the dangerous trades within their borders.

TWO YEARS OF THE "WORCESTER PLAN"

JOHN L. SEWALL
"Boston—1915"

A recent mass meeting of citizens of Worcester, which crowded the city's largest auditorium on a Sunday afternoon, is noteworthy as a waymark of progress in the effective battle of a great industrial center against

M. G. OVERLOCK, M.D.



Some of the Worcester firms co-operating in the tuberculosis agreement. Dr. Overlock states that 1,200 firms in New England have fallen into line.

the ravages of tuberculosis. Its immediate object was to honor Dr. Melvin G. Overlock, the state factory inspector for the eleventh district, from whom came the suggestion of what has since been known as the "Worcester Plan," and who was presented with a series of engrossed resolutions, signed by nearly 15,000 of his fellow citizens.

In 1902 Dr. Overlock began a vigorous campaign for better municipal provision for tuberculosis patients than the poor farm. The trustees of the city hospital, while making provision for all other maladies, including an isolation retreat for contagious diseases, professed themselves helpless when asked to care for sufferers from consumption. With the co-operation of Edward F. Fletcher, then mayor, Dr. Overlock started a campaign of agitation and education, which, aided by many other like-minded citizens, has gone steadily forward. In these years the sanatorium at Rutland, twelve miles distant—the first state sanatorium built in the United States—has been enlarged and developed, and places have been found there for many Worcester patients, pending the time when the city itself, or some of the health associations in it, shall provide a local institution.

It was a little more than two years ago that in the course of his work as state factory inspector Dr. Overlock found among the employes of the Royal Worcester Corset Company an incipient case of consumption. He warned the patient that she must at once leave her work and go to Rutland, but this, she told him, was a financial impossibility. Knowing well the spirit of the man who stood at the head of this establishment, the state physician presented the case to him, assuring him that with relief the girl could recover, but that without it her doom was certain. A few days later he received the following letter, dated November 14, 1908:

Dr. M. G. Overlock.

Dear Sir—Referring to my conversation with you a few days since, I desire to say that should any of the employes of the Royal Worcester Corset Company be so unfortunate as to contract tuberculosis our company will pay the expenses at Rutland Sanitarium for a period of three months, or longer, if necessary.

Very truly yours,

"David H. Fanning, President."

Such a letter, instead of being accepted as the satisfying conclusion of a single problem,

instantly opened the vision of an ever broadening movement of practical sympathy between employers and employes. That letter, which Dr. Overlock cherishes as one of his most valued treasures, is the first in a goodly collection, bearing the firm names of all the leading industrial concerns in Worcester and in neighboring towns, in which the first generous pledge has been taken up and duplicated, until not alone scores and hundreds, but thousands of wage-earners have been brought under its terms.

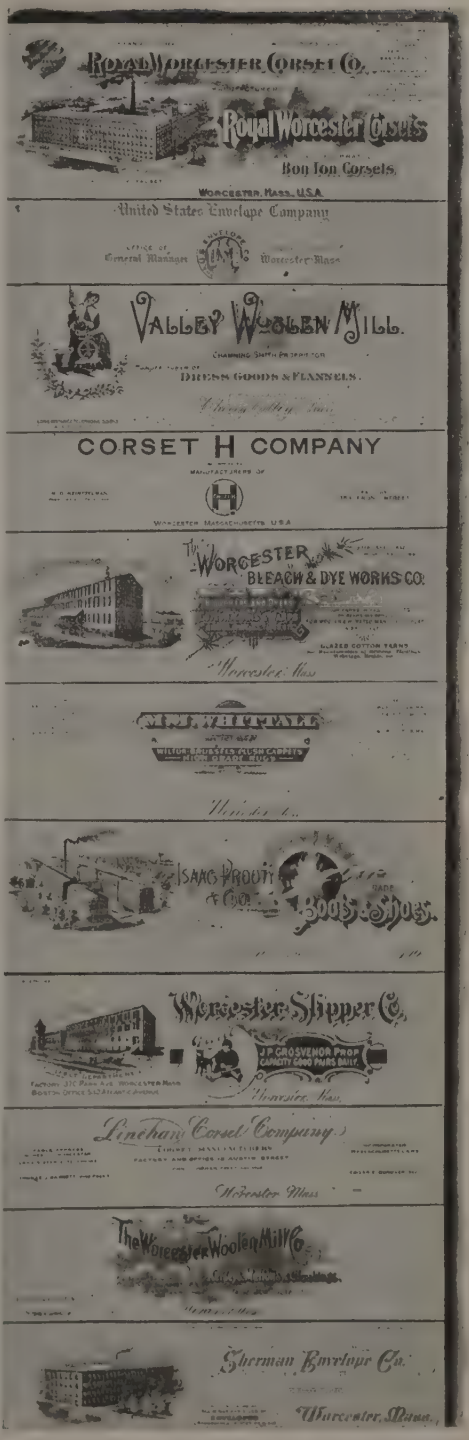
Naturally a work of this kind could not well limit itself to the boundaries of the city where it started. Boston early became interested in the plan; its Chamber of Commerce has given it a hearty endorsement and initial impetus among the factories and stores of that city; and Boston-1915has included this as one of the features in the program of its health conference. The initiation of like efforts in other cities, together with a constant stream of inquiries from nearly every state in the Union, and from foreign countries as far distant as Bulgaria and Japan, is a cheering prophecy of its future possibilities.

Prompted by the suggestion of a working man whose daughter had benefited by the agreement, resolutions were circulated in the shops of Worcester early in the winter for the testimonial meeting. Mayor Logan presided.

In accepting the testimonial Dr. Overlock paid a tribute to all the manufacturers and merchants whose co-operation had made the "Worcester Plan" practicable:

> This movement is sending out into the community an army of trained sanatorians to preach the gospel of fresh air, cleanliness, sunshine, exercise, which is a potent factor in warding off not only tuberculosis, but all other diseases.
>
> No simpler, saner, surer plan for keeping the American workman supreme, physically and mechanically, has ever been devised. In the long run, in a commercial civilization such as the twentieth century boasts, the absolutely healthy nation will win.
>
> I claim nothing for this contribution to modern economics other than the desire to make it known. To the Worcester manufacturers and merchants belongs the credit for its launching. And especially to David H. Fanning, this vigorous old man, who, on August 4 celebrated his eightieth birthday, carrying on his shoulders at forescore years a burden that might stagger a man at half his age.

Veritably Mr. Fanning's letter started what proved to be in more senses than one a "great white" snowball.



It was David H. Fanning, the aged president of the Royal Worcester Corset Company, who started the ball rolling.

PLATE I.

PLATE II.

SAFETY DEVICES FOR PREVENTING INJURIES TO THE EYE

Used in Plants of the American Steel and Wire Company

DAVID S. BEYER, Chief Safety Inspector

Water gauge tubes on boilers are liable to break, and the flying glass and steam might injure the eyes of anyone who happened to be near. The shield which is back of the glass in plate I can be revolved to the front, as shown in plate II for the protection of men when turning steam and water in a new glass, or when working in a position near enough to be injured; once through with their duties in this locality, the guard is revolved to the rear again, so that it does not interfere with a view of the height of the water.

Plate III. The use of emery wheels is common in all shops and manufacturing plants, for grinding and finishing castings, tools, dies, etc. In doing such work it is a frequent occurrence for an operator to get particles which are thrown off the wheel into his eyes—and sometimes a wheel bursts or "explodes" so that large pieces are thrown outward with great force. Plate III illustrates a row of such grinding wheels, each of which has a steel hood and a plate glass shield. The hood is heavy enough to retain a bursting wheel, and the glass shield effectively protects the eyes of the operator from dust, even though he must view the work at close range. Each hood is connected at the rear to a forced draft pipe, which will be noted in the picture, and this combination of safeguards practically eliminates eye injuries of the kind in question. Shaded electric lights provide the necessary illumination without any annoying glare.

The canvas screen in plate IV is used for protecting men from flying particles of steel when castings are being chipped. It not only safeguards anyone who may be passing by, but also prevents the chips from rebounding and striking the chippers, as they either stick in the canvas or fall "dead."

Plate V shows a man who chips or cuts rough projections from castings, wearing goggles. It is difficult to get workmen to wear them constantly on account of the discomfort and a certain necessary interference with their vision.

PLATES VI, VII, VIII.

A prolific source of eye injury is the use of hammering tools which have burred or "mushroomed" edges, from which spawls of steel break and fly under the impact of a blow.

Plate VI shows a hammer with roughened edges from which some pieces have already been crushed off: plate VII a similar tool which has been properly dressed. All the American Steel and Mine company's shops are inspected weekly, and a constant endeavor is being made to keep these tools dressed up in good condition.

Plate VIII is a photograph of a man whose duties require him to work close to the blooming mill rolls; his eyes are protected from flying scale by a mask of wire gauze.

Plate IX.

"Pulpit" or platform upon which the men who operate a blooming mill stand. The framework in front of them contains a heavy sheet of plate glass, which protects their eyes from the scale and cinder that fly from an ingot when it goes through the rolls.

NOTE: A further line of eye protection, especially designed for wire mills, was illustrated in an article by Mr. Byer in THE SURVEY for May 7, 1910. The article referred to Safety Provisions in the United States Steel Corporation) dealt with the general range of accidents occurring in mill work and manufacture, and the systematic program of the Steel Corporation towards prevention. Mr. Beyers's study of eye hazards is an example of the specific way in which causes of injury are classified and treated as part of this program. The article was republished in full as an appendix to Miss Eastman's Work-Accidents and The Law, one of the volumes of the

LABOR LEGISLATION

JOHN B. ANDREWS

Secretary American Association for Labor Legislation

MINNESOTA COMMISSION REPORTS

The Minnesota Employes' Compensation Commission, the earliest appointed of the nine or ten state committees of the active period of the past two years, has submitted its report to the Legislature. No commission has been more active in attempting to reach a liberal interpretation in the economic and legal facts involved in the industrial accident problem.

The concise story of its activities fills a volume of about 300 pages. It is unfortunate that after two years of hard work the employer member of the commission, Mr. Gillette, and the other two members, Commissioner McEwen of the State Bureau of Labor and the chairman, Attorney H. V. Mercer, find themselves in disagreement over the three important topics: (1) contributions by employes, (2) constitutionality, and (3) cost. The majority report recommends a compulsory, noncontributory system of compensation covering all occupations, in substitution for all other legal rights and remedies.

INTERNATIONAL COMPETITION

The Italian Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce has instituted an international prize competition for the invention of improved methods and appliances for preventing industrial accidents and for protecting the health of work people. This is in accordance with the progressive spirit of Italy in establishing the first clinic for industrial diseases.[1]

INTEREST IN FACTORY INSPECTION

Important bills on factory inspection are receiving close attention in several states. The Massachusetts Commission on Factory Inspection, which has prepared a valuable report, will make recommendations to the Legislature. In Missouri, where factory inspection has heretofore been limited to towns of 10,000 or over, the last census shows a remarkable increase in the number of factories established in the smaller towns. A new bill provides for inspection throughout the state, and a regular appropriation for the expenses of the department, heretofore supported by fees.

In California it is proposed to abolish the present Bureau of Labor and to establish separate bureaus, including free employment offices, in three of the largest cities of the state.

In Pennsylvania quarry-workers are not included in the present inspection system, but a new bill provides for their protection similar to that afforded mine workers. Another Pennsylvania proposal is to make the office of factory inspector elective. In Michigan attempts are being made to place inspectors under civil service regulation.

OHIO LAW IN OPERATION

Notices are being posted in Ohio factories requiring employes to report defects in machinery to the employer. According to one provision of the Norris employers' liability act passed last year, if the employer has failed to comply with the law respecting safeguards, the employe, even though he knew of the unsafe condition and continued at work, shall not be deemed to have assumed the risk of his employment, nor to have been guilty of contributory negligence, "unless by the terms of his employment it was expressly made the duty of such employe to report such neglect, or such defective or unsafe condition to the employer, and the evidence discloses that such employe failed so to report, and that the employer was not otherwise possessed of knowledge of such negligent, unsafe, or defective condition." Failure to report defects thus leaves the employe practically in the same position as to his rights to recover damages as existed before the enactment of the new law.

MINIMUM WAGE BOARDS

Among the bills "to protect women and minors as wage-earners" in Massachusetts, is one establishing a commission to investigate and report on the wages of women and children with reference to the advisability of establishing minimum wages boards.

In England, in accordance with the Board of Trade's regulations issued last July, a trade board is now established for the men's ready-made wholesale clothing industry. The board consists of thirty-one members, representing owners of factories, occupiers, employes, and five "appointed members." Trade boards have now been established by the English act, which came into effect January 1, 1910, for the four trades authorized—chainmaking, certain processes in lace making, cardboard box making, and ready-made tailoring.

HOURS OF LABOR FOR MEN

The Wisconsin socialists have introduced two bills limiting hours of work. One provides for thirty-six continuous hours of rest out of every seven days. The other limits the hours of work in bakeries to sixty-one a week—the one hour being added to the time limit set by the New York act (which was declared unconstitutional in the famous Lochner case), in order that the law might again come before the courts.

[1] THE SURVEY for November 12, 1910.

CRIME AND ITS CURE

ISABEL C. BARROWS, Contributing Editor

THE NEW YORK STATE REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN

KATHARINE BEMENT DAVIS

SUPERINTENDENT NEW YORK STATE REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN

The question which was most frequently asked by the foreign delegates to the International Prison Congress on their trip of inspection to the reformatory institutions of this country was, "What are your results?" "You have splendidly equipped plants", they said, "apparently well officered and well managed. What success do you have in the work of reform?" They were disappointed when they found how little there was in the way of statistics to show what the reformatories had accomplished.

Each institution can show the number paroled and what proportion have broken parole, but in most cases that is about all. There is no legal machinery for following up the career of those discharged from parole, and whatever is known must be learned through the friendly relations of the institution with the individual. Simply through press of work, touch is often lost with many who would be glad to continue their friendly relations. This is the weak point of our reformatory system. Of course, when former inmates are re-arrested and re-sentenced for crime, the reformatory officials may or may not know it; the matter is largely accidental.

At Bedford we began to be asked about our results before we were a year old. Now there is nothing quite so difficult to measure in figures as change in character. We can say how many have kept their parole; how many we know have been re-arrested; of how many we know the whereabouts and believe them to be doing well; but the changes in character, the establishment of higher ideals, the doing of more efficient work as a result of the training received, these things can never be measured.

We said at Bedford we would attempt to give no statistics of results until we had handled a thousand cases. The first commitment to the institution was received May 11, 1901, the thousandth commitment November 26, 1909. In the year that is past, we have put together such information as we have concerning these one thousand cases. The entire amount of information is considerable and will be published later. Just now we will concern ourselves with some of the results.

HOW WE GET OUR INFORMATION

First, we have the record of conviction forwarded from the committing judge. Often this information is supplemented by a history of the case so far as known to the probation officer who investigated it; or the court and prison officials courteously put their information at the disposal of our marshal. As complete a history of the case as possible is obtained from the girl herself by the superintendent or assistant superintendent, immediately upon her arrival. An examination is made by the resident physician, and the medical history is recorded.

These histories are added to as time goes on. The girls are always "chaperoned" when they receive visits. The members of their family are interviewed by the superintendent or a deputy, and special visits are made by the parole officers when desirable. The outgoing and incoming correspondence is read by the assistant superintendent. From these and similar sources much of the family and social history of the girls is obtained. While on parole their is a regular system of letters, reports, and visits by our parole officers and others.

Of the thousand cases, 739 have been sent to us from New York city. Our parole officers are constantly going about New York and meeting our old girls. On the visits of the marshals to the various prisons in New York and Brooklyn they see the prison officials and make a point of inquiring whether any of the former inmates of Bedford have been re-arrested. Knowing we desire information, the officials have been most courteous in remembering to give it. We keep in touch with a number of the most efficient probation agencies in New York city, including the court and volunteer probation officers; they also give us information. In addition to our own two officers, our Jewish instructor does much visiting among the Jewish girls. The Church Mission of Help of the Protestant Episcopal Church is undertaking to supply volunteer visitors for the girls of that faith; a lady appointed by the Society of St. Vincent de Paul is looking after some of the Catholic girls. All these make reports to us. Our old girls

have always been encouraged to write us freely and to visit us when possible. Correspondence is kept up, not only with the superintendent, but with many of the teachers and matrons, who are asked to write on a slip of paper and put on a spindle on the parole officer's desk any trustworthy information they may receive about former inmates, on whose parole record cards all this information is entered. During the past year, the parole officers have taken special pains, so far as their duties permitted, to visit the old girls whose whereabouts we knew.

The statistics which follow are up to a date one year later than that on which we received the one thousandth commitment.

Of the first thousand commitments there were

Foreign born	29.1 per cent
Born in United States.....white	52.7 per cent
Born in United States....colored	18.2 per cent

The nativity of their parents was as follows:

Both parents born in United States:		
White	207	
Colored	153	
		360
Both parents foreign born	490	
Mixed parentage—one born in U. S., one foreign	94	
		584
Nativity of both parents unknown:		
White	26	
Colored	19	
		45
Nativity of one parent unknown:		
White	10	
Colored	1	
		11
		1,000

The thousand commitments were as follows:

Misdemeanors	22.1 per cent
Felonies	26.4 per cent
Other offences	51.5 per cent

"Other offences" means being a common prostitute, frequenting disorderly houses, and in danger of becoming morally depraved, habitual drunkards, soliciting on the public streets, etc. It should be said that out of the one thousand the number who have led sexually regular lives is almost negligible.

The average age of the one thousand was twenty-nine years, nine months. Eighty-nine could not read or write, 68 could read a foreign language but not English, and 12 could read a little but could not write; 276 had the barest elements of reading and writing. Forty-seven per cent were Protestants, 42 per cent Catholics, 11 per cent Jews. Of the thousand girls, 691 were single, 209 married. So far as is known, 180 of the married women had had children and 120 of the single women had had illegitimate children. Of the married women, 41 were widows, 8 were divorced and 125 were separated from their husbands; 5 were bigamists and the husbands of 22 were in prison.

As to occupation, the complete list is a long one. Four hundred and thirty registered as general house workers. (This means neither skilled nor continuous occupation in domestic service.) One hundred and twenty-one had no occupation at all at the time of arrest; 135 were factory operatives.

So far as we can ascertain, the number who had been in other institutions for delinquents previous to their commitment here was 314. Seventy-six had served more than one term previous to commitment to Bedford. Eighty-seven acknowledged repeated arrests, but had previously got off with fine or suspended sentence.

We are not prepared at this time to give complete statistics as to the physical condition of the thousand girls.

We were interested to compare our one thousand cases with a thousand cases of girls entering two collegiate institutions, Cornell University and Mt. Holyoke College. The comparison is as follows:

RESULTS OF 1000 MEASUREMENTS.

	Cornell University	*Mt. Holyoke College*	*State Reformatory—Bedford*
Age	20 yrs. 8.2 mo.	19	20 yrs. 9 mo.
Height	5 ft. 3.2 in.	5 ft. 2.7 in.	5 ft. 1.68 in.
Weight	123 lbs.	117 lbs.	121.8 lbs.

Among our thousand cases, it was necessary to treat for:

Alcoholism	112
(Of these only 44 were committed as habitual drunkards or for public intoxication. A very large proportion of the women who live irregular lives use alcohol and smoke cigarettes to some extent.)	
Venereal diseases	140
(In the acute stage. There can be no question but that a very much larger number had had the disease, but no external symptoms were discoverable; and the Wasserman reaction has not been used on account of lack of laboratory facilities.)	
Drug habit (treated)	33
Epilepsy	13
Tuberculosis	22

On the basis solely of observation, we have no hesitancy in pronouncing 157 of the total number feeble-minded. There is no question but that a proper mental test would show a much higher percentage of mentally sub-normal. It is generally believed that tattooing is common among criminals. We have found only eight in a thousand cases so marked.

DISPOSITION OF THESE CASES

In November, 1910, the disposition which had been made of these cases was as follows:

Paroled	668	
Still in institution	111	
Escaped	3	
Died in institution	12	
Transferred	47	
Deported	16	
Served entire term	80	
Discharged by court	63	
		1,000

It will be observed that 111 of the cases have not yet gone out from the institution. Eighty who served their entire time in the institution were kept for bad conduct or because it was so impossible to place them in any way satisfactorily that it seemed the social good would be best served by keeping them under our direct care as long as possible. Of the eighty so kept, thirty-nine belong to the unmistakably feeble-minded class. At the end of their three years we were able directly to arrange for the custodial care of five, and four were turned over to the county authorities to await their turn for admission to a custodial institution. The sixty-three discharged by court were without exception commitments from magistrates courts, and a large percentage of these were discharged under the so-called "Gaynor decision" in the years 1902, 1903, 1904. Since the amendment of the law in 1904 we have had almost no trouble with discharges under writ. For the most part, such writs were secured by the people from whom it was absolutely necessary to separate the young women, if there was to be any hope of their salvation. Among these sixty-three were three who were obviously feeble-minded.

Of the one thousand, thirty-three are known to be dead. Of these twelve died while in the institution; eight while on parole; twelve are known to have died after their discharge from parole. Of the eighty who served their entire time in the institution, one is known to be dead.

Of the forty-seven transferred to other institutions twenty-eight have been transferred to Matteawan State Asylum for the Insane.

RESULTS

It will be noted that 668 out of the thousand cases have been paroled. The status of these 668 in November, 1910, was as follows:

On parole	110	
Discharged, having done well	393	
Violated parole, not found	52	
Broke parole and returned	102	
Transferred to Auburn Prison while on parole	1	
Discharged by court while on parole	2	
Died on parole	8	
		668

Our statistics of parole show that while the average age of those committed to the institution has been twenty years and nine months, the average age of those paroled has been twenty years and eight months, and the average age of those who have violated their parole, twenty-one years and four months. The average length of stay in the institution of all of those paroled was two years. Inasmuch as in all cases we exercise supervision over the girl on parole until the expiration of the three years for which she was sentenced, the average period of supervision on parole has been one year.

As to the causes of violation of parole, the largest single cause has been immorality. The records show that twenty per cent of the violations were for intoxication, ten per cent for immorality at the place where the girl was working, eight per cent for dishonesty; in fifty-three per cent of these cases the girl left her place without permission, the immediate reason for such leaving being in almost every instance a man in the case. A comparison of those placed with their families and those placed in positions at the time of their parole, shows that the proportionate percentage who violate their paroles under the two conditions is twice as great when the girl is in her own home. This is to be expected, for, as a rule, if home conditions had been what they should be in the first place, the girl would not have come to the reformatory; yet where a family is respectable and there seems to be real need of the girl in the home, it sometimes seems wise to give her a chance there.

The following table shows the present status of the 393 girls who did well on parole and received their discharges:

Known to be doing well	127
Known to have criminal record	38
Known to have been immoral	53
Known to drink	9
Dead	12
Whereabouts unknown	154

Of the 127 who are doing well, 58 are married women; 44 have married with my consent while they were on parole or since that time without it. Of the 127, 24 girls are colored, 67 are white, of American parentage, and 36 are white, foreign born. The percentages conform almost exactly to the percentages of commitments in each class, although the statistics of parole show that of the total receiving it the percentage keeping it has been highest among colored girls and next among foreign born.

The occupation of those who are doing well is as follows:

Married (44 since leaving here)	58	
Dressmakers	3	
Keep house for members of family	3	
Assist at home	6	
Nurse	1	
Office clerks	2	
Salvation Army officer	1	
Laundry	1	
In sanatorium in poor health	1	
Attendant Institution	1	
Piano accompanist	1	
Factory operatives	6	
Saleswomen	5	
Domestic service	38	
		127

Among the girls who spent their entire time in the institution, we know of four who have had a criminal record; two who are leading immoral lives, and five whom we know to be

JESSIE D. HODDER.

Mrs. Hodder, after eighteen months service at the Lancaster State Industrial School, where she was in charge of feeble-minded girls, has just been appointed superintendent of the Massachusetts Reformatory Prison for Women.

doing well and with whom we are still in touch.

Among the fifty-two women who are listed as "known to have been immoral or known to drink since their discharge from parole," there are a good many who are earning their living and who are by no means leading continuously immoral lives. In some cases a woman has an illegitimate child which she is supporting.

As a result of our nearly ten years of experience, we wish to call attention to a very weak point in our law. We have legal charge of a girl either in the institution or out of it, for the maximum of three years. If a woman is sent to us who is an accidental criminal, who is physically well, fairly intelligent, and fairly efficient industrially, it may be necessary to keep her not over a year or even less, as has happened in a few instances. After she leaves us, according to the law, we may supervise her, if we wish, for the remainder of her term. In other words, we can keep her on parole for a period of two years or longer. On the other hand, a woman is sentenced to us who has for years led an immoral life, who is illiterate, vicious, inefficient industrially, depraved morally, and broken down physically. It may take us two years to begin to get hold of her. We have to choose between paroling her when we know she is not ready, or having no supervision over her after her discharge from the institution. This is the type of woman who needs the most careful supervision after leaving the institution. The large percentage of failures is due to just this fact. We are gradually building up a relationship with other organizations whereby we can secure friendly visitation for these women after we discharge them. The weak point here is that in many cases nothing but authority has any effect on the girl. Some day the law will be changed, authorizing a minimum period of parole of at least one year no matter what the length of stay at the institution.

A NEW SUPERINTENDENT

FRANCES G. CURTIS
Boston

An event of importance to all interested in prison problems in Massachusetts is the appointment by the Board of Prison Commissioners of Jessie D. Hodder to be superintendent of the Massachusetts Reformatory Prison for Women at Sherborn, in the place of Frances Morton, resigned from ill-health.

Mrs. Hodder leaves the social service department of the Massachusetts General Hospital, where for more than three years she had done wonderful work in the interest of young women in trouble of various kinds,—those about to become mothers, or suffering from the effects of vice and drink. Before entering this social service she was for eighteen months in charge of the cottage for feeble-minded girls at the Lancaster State Industrial School. Mrs. Hodder therefore goes to her new work at Sherborn with a mind well prepared, and with a heart keenly sensitive to the dangers, the weaknesses, and the temperaments of those whose welfare is in her hands. She combines to an unusual degree the power of analyzing and generalizing cases, with the sympathy that wells up in understanding each case. Large humanity, wide knowledge, and singleness of purpose mark Mrs. Hodder's work. Careful to keep herself abreast of what is being done elsewhere for these girls, she is not hampered by the methods of others, and does not fit her work into preconceived theories, but is open-minded and ready to receive new ideas.

The fact that this girl problem is only a part of the greater sex-problem, and that lack of education in sex hygiene is so often largely responsible, has made her feel deeply that every one should join in combating this ignorance. She herself has studied the question thoroughly, and has questioned the methods of all sorts of agencies, visiting societies, rescue homes, hospitals, schools for feeble-mind-

ed, before feeling qualified to use the resources of the community to the best advantage.

For the International Prison Congress, which was held in Washington last October, Mrs. Hodder was appointed one of the reviewers. She prepared a digest of the papers on bastardy which had been written for that meeting, and drew up, based on them, the resolutions with reference to illegitimate children which were adopted by the congress.

A short extract from a letter of hers on a common enough case shows the spirit, the freshness, the vividness of her management of a girl's case. Spiritual insight is the secret of her power.

"I do not agree with you that this girl cannot keep her baby; she can take care of it I am perfectly sure, and she will be a bigger, braver woman if she does, as you realize. I can imagine no more horrible fate than to feel that my baby—my own flesh and blood—was somewhere around in the world, I knew not where. Take this girl's life so far, add this experience, then add the experience of giving birth to her baby, plus the care she will have had of it so far; then subtract the baby, put it selfishly, brutally, out of her life, and what is there left? You see we stop being twenty and come to be forty, and we care a lot if our feelings are worth having. Life ceases to mean existence, and comes to mean soul and all that goes to make it richer, more worth while.

"How about the chance to develop the man morally? What bigger debt has he contracted in this world than his debt to his own child? Say it to him—make him feel that his baby, illegitimately born, is just as human a being, just as sensitive, just as ambitious, as a baby born in wedlock.

"I cannot feel that the community has any growth so long as its members are shirkers, and turn and run from any evidence of self-indulgence or wrongdoing."

REFORMATORIES FOR WOMEN

There are few state reformatories for women in this country. Massachusetts has one, Indiana one, and New York two. These have all proved benefits to the states which maintain them. There is ample opportunity for other states to imitate this method of caring for criminal women, and New Jersey, Connecticut, and perhaps some others may soon fall into line. In the meantime it is of extreme value to ascertain actual facts about what has been accomplished by the reformatory system.

We are fortunate in being able to give the results, so far as figures can do so, of the care of a thousand girls who have passed through the reformatory for women at Bedford, N. Y. Katharine B. Davis, who has been in charge of this excellent institution from the time of its organization, is making a comprehensive study of these figures, and her article in this department is suggestive of further work in this direction. Of this reformatory one of the leading prison experts of the International Prison Congress said: "Had I returned without seeing it I should have missed the best institution I saw in America."

The Massachusetts Reformatory Prison for Women is taking a new lease of life under the hands of Mrs. Hodder, the recently appointed superintendent. Though we have no very full statistics of what has been accomplished there in the past, we may look forward to more exact information in future.

It would be useful, in trying to cure criminality among girls and women, to find out how many there are in each state of the union who are at present subjected to the old soulless and dull routine of dealing with criminals. New Jersey has taken such a census. The total number of women in the state prison, county penitentiaries and jails, including those over sixteen in the Trenton state home for girls, is 336. There are 210 under thirty and of these 79 are in county institutions. No wonder the public-spirited men and women of New Jersey demand a reformatory for women.

No matter how humane the physical care they are now receiving, probably none of these younger women is in the least benefited morally by her term in a county institution. After their brief sentences they return to the community worse than they were before; no better fitted in any way for leading useful, decent lives, even were they minded so to do.

If no way can be devised for preventing girls and young women from falling into vicious and criminal lives, at least the state alone should have control of them after they have broken the laws of the state. No county should have the responsibility of caring for criminal women. If they have committed acts that place them behind bars, the state alone should be the turnkey; and a separate institution should be provided, where suitable discipline, including physical training, simple schooling, and education in domestic industries should be compulsory for every inmate. This seems so self-evident that one wonders why it should take years to impress the necessity of such treatment on the minds of legislators. It is such miserable economy to shut up, guard, clothe, and feed the 336 women criminals of New Jersey for a given time, and then turn them out into the world worse than when they were arrested. Of course the process must be repeated over and over unless some wiser course is adopted.

And what is true of New Jersey is true of every state in the union. Not one provides reformatory discipline for all the girls and women who are arrested, tried, and convicted.

THE MAGISTRATE AND THE OFFENDER

"I make it a practice never to do anything that will influence the sentence I may impose; hence I have never crossed the thresh-

old of a prison," was the reply that a New York judge once made to the question whether he knew the condition of a prison to which he was about to sentence a woman. Times have changed.

Not one, but a group of magistrates has recently made a visit of inspection to the Bedford Reformatory, along with some of the members of the committee on criminal courts of the Charity Organization Society. All the New York boroughs were represented by the visiting magistrates. This is what they found as the result of an entire day spent in inspection:

From arrival in the morning until the departure of the group at nightfall, the fact that this institution is not a prison, nor a place where punishment is meted out to offenders, but a place devoted entirely to making over and restoring to usefulness persons committed to it, continually impressed itself upon the visitors. On every hand educative work replaced the character-destroying idleness of the average workhouse and penitentiary.

Homelike cottages of attractive design, with generous-sized windows, replaced the usual congregate building of dark gray stone, dimly lighted by small, heavily barred windows. A single room for each inmate, plain, but neatly furnished, well lighted, and adequately ventilated, replaced the usual dark, poorly ventilated, cheerless cell or congregate dormitory.

Each individual is treated irrespective of her past offenses or defects and solely on the basis of her present need and future possibility, instead of on the usual sole basis of past record. Expert instructors, physicians, and housekeepers were found in the place of frequently stupid, if not brutal, keepers.

Kindly confidential relations were evident between officers and inmates in place of the oppressive, benumbing relations usually existing between keeper and prisoner; well directed efforts to build up character, in place of the degrading suppression of the average prison; careful classification based on age and temperament with a system of promotion in the place of herding and intermingling of the good with the vicious; physical examination and medical attendance; a gradual removal of restraints and extension of freedom by way of preparation for discharge from the institution, instead of uniform denial of opportunity to develop self-control by freedom; the parole of each discharged inmate to a remunerative position and the provision of suitable clothing, instead of the discharge of penniless, ill-clad persons upon a cheerless world; —these and many other things made an impression upon the magistrates and other visitors.

One important idea was brought out and referred to repeatedly during the day. This was that large cities should provide institutions to which cases convicted in the courts could be remanded for study and observation before sentence is passed.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON PRISON LABOR

E. STAGG WHITIN
Secretary

The National Committee on Prison Labor has been organized for effective work to ameliorate the conditions developing from the industries in our penal institutions.

The origin of the committee is not without interest. A complaint was lodged with the chairman of the Industrial Committee of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, Helen Varick Boswell, that the laws of many of the states regarding prison labor were being violated. The complaint being carried to the New York State Department of Labor, Commissioner Williams assigned E. Stagg Whitin, an expert of the department, to investigate the charges. As a result it was found that large quantities of prison-made goods, probably amounting to about $10,000,000 annually, were being shipped into the markets of New York city from other states; that the laws regulating their sale were under question as to constitutionality, and that the conditions under which they were manufactured in many states were open to question, from the standpoint of the laws of the state, the standpoint of justice to the convict, and the standpoint of outside free labor. The investigation showed also that while there existed a number of prison associations which dealt with the general reformation of prison conditions, trade unions which bitterly opposed the sale of prison manufactures in the open market, employers 'associations that advocated the suppression of certain industries in penal institutions, and groups of contractors who worked to secure prison contracts, still there was no concerted movement for the study of the conditions under which these industries are conducted, and no social program universally advocated and consistently pushed. To secure such a body Commissioner Williams recommended in his annual report last year the establishment of a national committee on prison labor, which should undertake to deal scientifically with the problem and to gather the conflicting forces and center them upon a social program.

Upon the executive committee of that body O. F. Lewis represents the prison associations; Joseph P. Byers, the secretary of the American Prison Association, the prison official; Henry Solomon, the president of the New York Prison Commission, the administrative standpoint; Mrs. Florence Kelley of the National Consumers' League, industrial workers; Helen Varick Boswell, the General Federation of Women's Clubs; Elizabeth B. Butler of the Bureau of Social Research, whose studies in women's trades are well known, the women's trades; Prof. Leslie Willis Sprague, the ethical standpoint; B. A. Larger, the general secretary of the United Garment Workers of America, labor. Alexander Johnson, the general secretary of the National Conference of Charities and Cor-

rection, is directing the study of the history of convict labor legislation. The officers of the committee are: Chairman, Rev. Thomas R. Slicer, who has been identified with many similar movements for the amelioration of the conditions of labor and the anti-policy crusades; treasurer, R. Montgomery Schell, for many years general trustee of the George Junior Republic, and secretary, E. Stagg Whitin, assistant in social legislation at Columbia University.

Much information has been collected from official reports, and from questionnaires which have been sent all over the country, taking in practically every phase of the subject. Agents of the committee have been at work in a number of centers learning those vital details which do not appear in official documents.

The committee has had the co-operation of prison contractors as well as of labor unions in gathering this material. In many of the states commissions have been appointed to consider the subject.

Any social program that may be adopted will be based upon the needs of the present, viewed in the light given by the large mass of testimony as to the experience of reformers in the past. Experiments in this direction began with the movement against capital punishment for trivial offenses, which prolonged imprisonment and created a promiscuous prison population, uncared for and unkept. Elizabeth Fry in her quiet Quaker way changed these "hells of vice", in which people of both sexes and all ages were huddled in rags and degradation, into communities of people abiding peacefully, clothed by their own work and developed by their own industry. Mrs. Fry did for the prisons of England what the poor law advocates of England had been trying to do with able-bodied beggars from the time of Elizabeth, by organizing workhouses in which they were supplied with materials and forced to work in return for shelter and food.

The work in penal institutions, introduced by Mrs. Fry, was the substitute for the inadequate financial support of the penal institutions by the state. Labor was not instituted to punish the criminal, but as a means of ameliorating his condition.

The treadmill, like the stocks, was relegated to oblivion by the humanitarian movement, and labor was introduced as a boon, to supply the worker with a few necessities for sustaining himself and those dependent upon him. This boon, which caused the little Quaker lady to be hailed as the greatest philanthropist of her age, developed into a more definite problem as the industrial revolution took place. Change from hand-work to machine-work necessitated supplying both workhouses and penal institutions with new devices, so that the goods might find a market. Against the introduction of these machines labor brought its full force, as part of the larger opposition to the new devices.

In the workhouses the labor movement was successful, not only in forbidding the use of machinery, but in suppressing competing industries. In the prisons the same was true, until the demand of the new industrial system for workmen pointed out to certain capitalists the pecuniary advantage of securing the work of convicts, in return for supplying machinery and marketing the product.

In England, France, and Germany the conflict was quieted by the limitation of the work of convicts for the most part to enterprises of the state: the construction of ditches and dykes, the building of institutions, and the manufacture of state goods. In the American states prison reformers were so eager in their advocacy of the congregate or solitary systems of housing the convicts, and the building of costly model institutions which might be an example for the world, that it became difficult to combat the growing evils of the penal industrial system without placing a very much larger responsibility upon the taxpayer than he would accept.

During this period, the system of contracting the work of prisoners to business enterprises developed and, despite the graft incident to it, paid the state so well that the citizens were seldom taxed for the maintenance of the prisons. The conditions in these industries were often the cause of investigations, and one device after another was employed to calm the wrath of the labor unions, to appease the demands of the prison reformers for more humane treatment of the prisoners, and at the same time, while building the great institutions, to trouble as little as possible the taxpayer.

Upon a wave of reform the American Prison Association was born. At its inception in 1879 it denounced the contract system as a solution of the industrial problem and recommended a change of system; but Dr. Wines, in his recent introduction to the fourth edition of his Punishment and Reformation, points out that in the thirty years since then little has been done to bring about the recommendations of that initial congress. New York state did away with the contractors in its prisons and supplied in 1894 a preferred market for its prison goods in its own institutions and departments. The limitations and inadequacies of the present New York system have been pointed out in the reports of the New York Commission on Prisons, and in many attacks in other states of the Union; while in no other state has so radical a step been taken, presumably because of the supposed failure of the New York system.

It is with this background that the National Committee on Prison Labor begins its work. The question is well asked, "What are the abuses which were complained of in 1870, and by the governors and legislative committees in every state for one hundred years?" What solution has been offered? Is there any reason inherent in the system itself which makes the New York state system so limited in its application and costly in its operation? In no state of the Union does the factory inspection department have power to inspect prison shops; in none does the ordinary protection

of the laboring man extend to the prisoner. The possibility of what a state itself might do in managing its own industries is given in the successful management, from a purely business standpoint, of certain contractors who have grown rich in the work. They have managed to build up a successful business, national in its scope, by the use of prisoners.

Naturally the good of the prisoner and the benefit of the state are not factors primarily considered by the men engaged in making fortunes through prison contracts. When the state combines with a business man in a contract it is not justified in asking him to be a philanthropist.

It is the duty of the public to demand that the condition of the prisoner in these industries shall conduce to his own development. The public should also demand that the state receive an adequate return for the capital invested and a return for the expenses entailed. The public has a right to demand that the stability of the market be protected from unfair competition and that the state itself profit, if profit there be over a fair wage for the prisoners, from the manufactures of the state. Modern methods must be adapted to prison industries, which should be conducted on a basis of decent efficiency and under conditions at least equal to those demanded from individual manufacturing concerns.

The problem before the National Committee on Prison Labor is to show how in each state of the Union this ideal can be carried out practically. It will study each state as a separate problem and try to develop the best system for that particular state.

PRISON LABOR

When Mr. Stolypin, the prime minister of Russia, was discussing the International Prison Congress with the writer, he said he hoped ample time would be given to a consideration of prison labor. From every quarter comes the same demand. There are those who look on it selfishly, but there are many who wish the subject carefully considered for the sake of the effect on the prisoner himself. A recent writer in the New York *Times* says:

"I believe that one of the first steps to be taken is that of remunerating the prisoner for the work done while he remains in prison. This is forced work, but there is no reason why the distribution of it should not be intelligently organized, and properly remunerated, so as to give a chance to the man to improve himself mentally as well as physically, at the same time that he looks after the needs of his family, who are often starving outside the prison walls.

"Solitary confinement and picking of oakum send out from the prison a man more brutalized, more embittered against society, than came into it. We aim at sending out of the prison a man who shall in every respect be superior to the man he was when he came in. I believe we can do this, and that, instead of dismissing from the prison gates, after a term of several years, a man whose heart burns with rage against the whole world, we shall dismiss from those same gates a man who has received an education which shall serve for him as a passport into a new life."

Frederick Howard Wines, the editor of the Illinois *Institution Quarterly*, who must everywhere be recognized as a friend of prisoners, does not think it such a simple matter to decide labor questions. Referring to the labor of prisoners, he says:

"It must not be forgotten that the 'earnings' of the prisoner, after meeting the cost of his incarceration for the crime committed by him, are often nil. In that event, it seems to be unpractical to demand, . . . that his earnings 'shall, if he is married, be given to his family; if unmarried, they shall be banked for him against the critical day of his return to society.' But it may be laid down as an ethical principle of general application, that no state has the right to enrich itself by the exploitation of convicts for pecuniary profit. If Minnesota expects in future to turn into her public treasury $300,000 a year, derived from the profits of prison labor, this expectation is not creditable to her. Its realization will be neither good morals, good politics, nor in accordance with the teachings of sociological and criminological science."

A TRIBUTE TO J. P. BYERS

The eighty-sixth annual report of the New York House of Refuge contains the following tribute of the managers to Joseph P. Byers, who has served as superintendent for five years and a half and who is now the secretary of the New Jersey State Charities Aid and Prison Association.

"The state of New York through Mr. Byers's resignation loses a public servant who combined executive and humane qualities, both of the highest order, and whose personal influence it may be said, has left a deep and lasting mark upon the lives of those who have been at different times committed to his care."

As the result of his work among these boys who are committed to the refuge between the ages of twelve and sixteen, and are held in custody only till twenty-one, no matter how vicious they may be, Mr. Byers says:

"If during this whole period he [the boy] shows the most pronounced criminal tendencies and gives other evidence of being a dangerous element in and outside of the institution, nevertheless at the age of twenty-one the law arbitrarily releases him from custody and supervision. With the development of our institutional parole system and the probation work of the children's courts, it will become increasingly evident that age limits must be obliterated and the sole standard must be the development of character that will render the individual a positive benefit to society, and that he shall not be released from custody and supervision so long as he continues to show himself unworthy of confidence and respect and incapable of self-control."

SOCIAL AGENCIES

INSTITUTE OF MUNICIPAL AND SOCIAL SERVICE IN MILWAUKEE

ANNA GARLIN SPENCER

Through the combined influence of a local committee and the extension division of the University of Wisconsin, this Institute of Municipal and Social Service was started October 17. Its object as defined in the preliminary program is "to aid in fitting men and women for more intelligent and effective social and municipal service."[1]

The city of Milwaukee is alive to the modern call to organize social forces for needed environmental change. The institute has sought to focus attention upon the problems of philanthropy and constructive social work for the poorer, weaker, and more ignorant classes of society, and to treat local and political problems from the educational point of view, leaving to other agencies those forms of social activity which involve elements of political friction. People of widely different codes and economic belief are striving in Milwaukee to make a better city.

In the midst of somewhat confusing discussion as to what method may be most effectively used to usher in the "new Jerusalem," it has seemed to the director of the Institute of Municipal and Social Service that the most important contribution such an educational agency could make was to try and outline, in a non-partisan manner, the conclusions of experts in different lines as to essential features of social and personal welfare.

To tell the tale of the "accomplished good," whether that has been brought about by private philanthropy or municipal pioneering; to compare methods that have worked effectively, is the special province of the teacher; and the institute, in part at least, has aimed to exercise that function. Because it was at best a small beginning of a school and a wholly experimental effort, the management of the institute has sought to reach as widely varied social interests in the community as one winter's work could accomplish.

An effort has therefore been made in the public meetings to have a varied program at the cost of thoroughness of treatment of any one theme, while the class work has aimed at starting a few students along more intensive lines of study.

The general statement issued to enlist the sympathy of the public reads:

"Pursuant of the established policy of the university, and in response to the solicitations of a number of citizens of Milwaukee, including those of varied political, social, and religious affiliations, the university extension division announces the following preliminary statement of an Institute of Municipal and Social Service for the season of 1910 and 1911. The purpose is to establish in Milwaukee a center of study, information, and training in social reform, social welfare, and municipal efficiency.

"Believing that the need is great for expert service with respect to the above purpose, particularly in the care of the unfortunate and the defective, in the prevention of crime and vice, and in the lessening of poverty, not only through the change of economic conditions, but also by raising the power of individuals as they now live and work, those who have been instrumental in establishing this institute, which has been made possible at this time by the generosity of one of Milwaukee's citizens, seek to learn and to apply more perfectly the laws of scientific philanthropy to the conduct of public and private affairs in the city."

The institute has carried forward two gen-

[1] The following statement as to its organization was issued by the university: "Organization for the University of Wisconsin, Louis E. Reber, director of the university extension division; Anna Garlin Spencer, local director of the Institute of Municipal and Social Service; William H. Lighty, secretary; Edward J. Ward, adviser for civic and social centers; at Milwaukee, Kenneth G. Smith, in charge of the first district, branch office, Milwaukee. For the city of Milwaukee, Rev. Frederick Edwards, chairman; H. A. Jacobs, secretary; Nathan Pereles, Jr., treasurer; Maud Tompkins, Julia Kurtz, Mrs. George A. Chamberlain, Rev. Walter F. Greenman, Rev. Samuel Hirshberg, Harvey Dee Brown, Katherine Van Wyck, Walter H. Cheever, Dr. Phillip F. Rogers."

eral courses: Part I, an evening course on Municipal Functions and Problems. Part II, an afternoon and evening course on Philanthropy and Social Uplift.

The first term, included in the second course four public sessions a week, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday afternoon at 4 o'clock. The first two were devoted to a general survey of the topic assigned to the week, and Thursday and Friday afternoons to a presentation of Milwaukee conditions by local workers in different lines of social effort.

After the first three meetings of the institute, each week was given to a distinct field of inquiry, including criminology and the care of criminal classes, defective classes and their public and private care and training, care of the aged and infirm and hopelessly diseased, the normal children dependent upon society, the care of needy families in their homes, and the consideration of medical relief and aids to health and of improved housing. So far as possible the evening meetings gave a general presentation of the subject to which the afternoon sessions of that week were devoted.[1]

The programs of the Thursday and Friday afternoon conferences on local conditions included as speakers official representatives of most of the important philanthropic and educational agencies in the city: Catholic and Protestant, Jewish and Christian, public and private, general and non-sectarian. The special co-operation thus secured must react favorably upon the attempt to secure practical co-operation in the social work of Milwaukee.

In addition to these public meetings a special class for workers in and for institutions has been held every Monday evening, one for visiting and instructing nurses and those interested in medical aid on Wednesday evening, and two classes for friendly visitors, associated charities workers, settlement residents, and others on Thursday and Friday. These classes included in their work reading of required bibliography, preparation of papers on different topics, and general discussions.

The management of the institute, desiring to secure as wide an attendance as possible, placed the fee for students receiving all the privileges at the nominal sum of one dollar. Seventy-nine persons registered as special students on these terms. The general registration of those expressing special interest in the institute and desiring to attend all the public meetings, but not pledging themselves to any special reading or class work, numbered 258. The attendance of the afternoon meetings was very regular until the conflicting pressure of Christmas preparation. The institute has called forth many expressions of desire for a permanent center for philanthropic education in Milwaukee.

The second term began January 3 with a week of lectures and class conferences by Zilpha D. Smith of the Boston School for Social Workers, afternoon lectures and morning conferences, under the following heads: Work with Families and Neighborhoods, Charity Organization Development, How to Get Volunteers in Any Social Work, How to Train Friendly Visitors, Methods Common to Social Investigations.

The second week of afternoon lectures and conferences was devoted to settlements and constructive social work, with Mary MacDowell of the Chicago University Settlement and others.

The third week, under the leadership of Alexander Johnson, was given to the following topics: Work for and in Institutions., State Supervision of Public Charities and Correctional Institutions, Officers and Methods of Control in State Institutions, Business and Financial Management, Questions Connected with the Superintendent, the Domestic Department, Manufactured Products and Their Use.

During the fourth week attention was focused upon child saving and juvenile court work, with Hastings H. Hart of New York and speakers from Chicago to lead the discussions.

The evenings of January and all the work of the institute during February have been devoted to municipal problems; those elements of social protection, social control, and social

[1]The speakers for the evening meetings have included, Mayor Whitlock of Toledo, O.; Peter Witt, Cleveland, O.; Mayor Seidel of Milwaukee; D. W. Hoan, the city attorney of Milwaukee; Mrs. Van Wyck, general secretary Central Council of Philanthropies; Professor Ross on Criminology; Alexander Johnson on Defective Classes; Rev. W. F. Greenman and Harvey Dee Brown, of Milwaukee on Problems of Poverty; Graham Taylor of Chicago Commons, Chicago, on the City and its Normal Children; William H. Leiserson of the New York Commission on the Unemployed; Raymond Robins on Municipal Lodging Houses and Labor Bureaus; Dr. Ravenel of the University of Wisconsin, and Dr. Henry B. Favill of Chicago on Municipal Health Departments; Charles B. Ball, chief sanitary inspector of Chicago, and Rosa M. Perdue, state factory inspector, on the City and the Housing Problem.

uplift which depend for their efficiency upon legal and political mechanism.[1]

During March the management of the institute hopes to profit by special service from Francis H. McLean, and to hold a number of conferences of the social workers in Milwaukee and the representatives of the extension division of the University of Wisconsin, in order to determine what may seem desirable as a permanent outcome of the work of the institute.

Such an institute as is being held in Milwaukee cannot, of course, rival the great schools of civics and philanthropy already developed in the United States. It is possible, however, that similar institutes in different centers might become great educational forces to the general public and have such an influence upon the elect, who are destined to become experts and leaders in social reform, as to lead them toward those great schools and through them to useful vocational careers in the social field.

MERGING NEIGHBORHOOD WORK

LOUIS H. PINK
Headworker, United Neighborhood Guild

The United Neighborhood Guild has moved into its new building at 176 Nassau street, Brooklyn. The house boasts a large gymnasium, bowling alleys, pool room, club and class rooms, an attractive roof garden with pergola, and a large auditorium. The architect, J. Gamble Rogers, has done his work well. Inside and out the building is conceived in a spirit of simplicity. It is homelike and not institutional.

The opening of this building is the first proof of the success of an interesting experiment begun less than two years ago. Three distinct organizations, occupying a common neighborhood and controlling four separate buildings combined into one, gave up identity and sank all petty jealousies and rivalries in the belief that a strong work would result from the fusing of three struggling settlements.

During the first year of the experiment all the buildings were maintained and the work was conducted in each house much as before consolidation; the civic work and administration were centralized. The lesson taught by this year of trial is that neighborhood work is so personal that a headworker or head resident in each building is essential, so that all matters may receive proper attention and orderly progress may prevail. Centralization of administrative and civic work is desirable, but each center must have a responsible head.

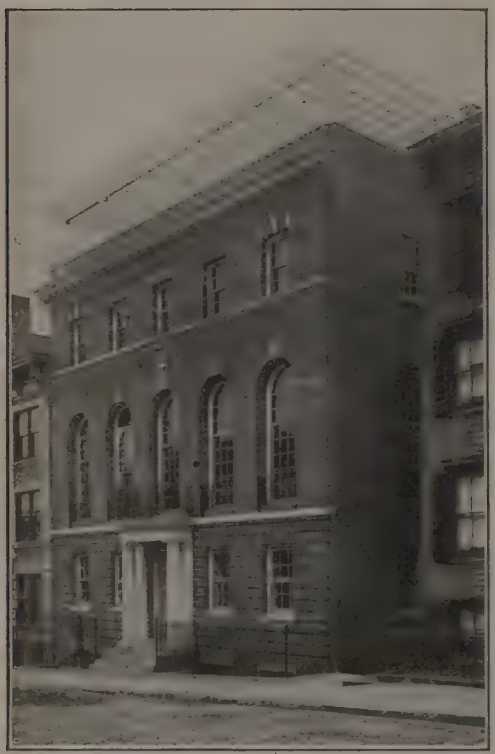
Now that the new building has been completed, the two structures which housed the Asacog House and the Asacog Boys' Club have been given up. Maxwell House, formerly in large part a center for Irish-Americans, has been made headquarters for the Italian work of the guild, with W. E. Davenport in residence and in charge. Two floors of the former Italian Settlement House at 20 Front street have been retained. This neighborhood is most needy; its housing conditions are of the worst; the population is made up of recent arrivals from Sicily and Calabria. Here, tucked away under the old Brooklyn Bridge, exist factories and dilapidated frame dwellings converted into tenements.

Mr. Davenport has given ten years of his life to work in this vicinity, devoting his time and energy to personal service for his Italian neighbors. While there is a larger work for him at Maxwell House, the geographical center of the two Italian sections of "old" Brooklyn, yet he rightly feels that the guild must not entirely desert so needy a neighborhood. Therefore 29 Front street has been retained.

The new house at 176 Nassau street is the center for the general work of the guild. No strict line is drawn. Many Italians are members of the clubs which meet at the new building, and there are but few Italian clubs at Maxwell House which have no Irish-American members. Yet it is desirable to have, so far as possible, separate centers. The adult Italian immigrant needs education, instruction in the English language and in citizenship. Our native population requires recreation and culture, and is willing and able to put its shoulder to the wheel and carry on the civic and social activities. Older Italian immigrants do not feel at home in close contact with the younger American element, nor does young America always sympathize with or understand the immigrant. The reason for separating the work is not lack of democracy, but the wholesome process of natural selection.

Settlements have been criticised, often justly, for failing truly to represent the people of the neighborhood. The movement has never quite recovered from the mistake of those

[1] The evening meetings include the following topics and speakers: Public Utilities, by B. H. Meyer, railroad commissioner of Wisconsin; Employers Liability Act, Senator Sanborn, chairman of the legislative committee, Mr. Eckern, Merchants and Manufacturers' Association of Milwaukee and Mr. Lavin attorney for the labor unions; Courts' Delays or Trial by Jury by important local judges; City Promotion by Dr. Rastall and an expert from Duluth; Industrial Education by Messrs. McCarthy, Lindemann and Winslow; Vocational Choice and Vocational Bureau by Meyer Bloomfield of Boston and Mr. Brosch; Problems of Municipal Finances, by Messrs. Adams, Merriam, and Evarts; Uniform and Cost Accounting, by Messrs. Sands, Cleveland, and Hagenah; Civil Service, by Messrs. Moulton and Doty; City Planning, by Messrs. Hooker, Robinson, and Whitnall; The Problems of Entertainment and Leisure, by Mr. De Groot; Problems of Recreation and Play, by E. J. Ward; Preventable Nuisances, by Dr. Evans and Prof. K. G. Smith; and in March The Functions of Civic Organizations and Their Relations to Municipal Problems, by Messrs. Burns, Jones, and Thompson.



THE NEW NEIGHBORHOOD HOUSE

The merging of Brooklyn settlements will make of this a "neighborhood town-hall," as much a public building as the public school.

well-intentioned "reformers" who sought to uplift humanity by personal contact, and who unfortunately gave the idea that settlements were charitable institutions, not of the people, but supported by a superior class for the salvation of the poor and unfortunate. For this reason neighborhood centers have not had the force which they should have when advocating public measures before city boards or officials. Social workers as a class have little influence if they stand alone, but when they are recognized as the true and authorized representatives of the people among whom they work, they are all-powerful.

We have striven to make the new house truly democratic. A guild council, composed of delegates selected from the various clubs in proportion to their numbers, two from the board of directors, two from the Neighborhood Guild Association and two from the neighborhood-at-large, has charge of all club affairs, with entire power to fix dues and charges, and to collect and expend money. The council assigns rooms to clubs, manages all guild dances and functions, initiates civic activities, and preserves order. The council controls not alone in theory, but in fact.

It is the hope of those interested in the guild that the new building will become a "neighborhood town-hall," imbued with the spirit of democracy of the New England town meeting,—as much a public building as the public school. It is expected that civic organizations in the neighborhood will use the guild building for their meetings. The hall can be rented at a nominal charge by neighborhood organizations for any legitimate purpose. Political meetings alone are excluded. No doubt in time the ban against even these will be removed.

METHODIST SOCIAL SERVICE

WILLIAM BERNARD NORTON
Methodist Historical Society

Two prejudices have been met among church people in promoting social service. One is the idea that the work is designed only for specialists and not for the all around pastor and church member. Hence it seems to be a question of courses of study and of small groups of workers. The other prejudice is the feeling that social service is not spiritual and hence not of definite and immediate concern to the church.

These two prejudices the Methodist Federation for Social Service, which has recently held its third annual conference in Chicago, has sought to remove. The work of the federation is educational, but it is designed for the whole denomination and not for a selected few. It is spiritual in that it seeks to broaden the term, not by subtracting from it the ordinary meaning of the immediate apprehension of God in a heart experience, but by adding a further conception in which our occupations, pleasures, and various social relations are seen to have spiritual significance and interpretation.

The federation has made substantial progress since its organization in the issuing of literature, the perfection of its machinery, cooperation with similar bodies in other denominations in bringing to pass certain reforms, and in becoming, with the representatives of denominations, the channel for expression and for work of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. It was resolved at the conference that the time had come for the enlargement of the budget so as to include the pay of a general secretary, who would devote all his time to the prosecution of the work. This will mean a still greater advance the coming year.

The freedom with which debatable questions were discussed was indicative of the desire of the members of the federation to know the truth, however much it might contradict preconceived opinions. Among the radical changes advocated were the introduction of baseball and other amusements into the Sunday program, both for churches and social settlements, and the utilization of the reformed dance hall as a means of legitimate amusement and as a meeting place for families and well-disposed young people. President

Herbert Welch of Ohio Wesleyan University, who was re-elected president of the federation, in commenting on these revolutionary changes proposed by Edwin A. Peterson of Goodrich House, Cleveland, gave a first stroke of humor which means much if he intended to convey in all seriousness the idea contained in his remark. "I noticed," he said, "when Dr. Peterson was speaking, that the Bible on the desk did not move, but I imagine if a Methodist Discipline had been there it would have gradually crawled towards the edge until it fell off to the floor."

If it can clearly be proved that any change, however radical, does not in fact disturb the Bible, it will not be long before a corresponding change will be made in the church discipline; but one must have patience until the idea takes possession, not simply of a few, but of a considerable number of church leaders. There were those present at the conference who were disposed to allow, as a matter of experiment, the adoption of Sunday baseball and the reformed dance by the social settlement, but we are not ready to see the church, as such, take so long a step away from past convictions and traditions.

President Welch, Bishop Williams, and other speakers emphasized the primary importance of ministering to the soul needs as expressed in worship and in the prayer life, while urging with passionate earnestness the more often neglected duty of creating a soil and atmosphere in which this plant of the soul life can grow.

As a denomination the Methodist Episcopal Church stands:

For equal rights and complete justice for all men in all stations of life.

For the principle of conciliation and arbitration in industrial dissensions.

For the protection of the worker from dangerous machinery, occupational disease, injuries, and mortality.

For the abolition of child labor.

For such regulation of conditions of labor for women as shall safeguard the physical and moral health of the community.

For suppression of the sweating system.

For the gradual and reasonable reduction of the hours of labor to the lowest practical point, with work for all; and for that degree of leisure for all which is the condition of the highest human life.

For a release from employment one day in seven.

For the highest wage that each industry can afford, and for the most equitable division of the products of industry that can ultimately be devised.

For the recognition of the Golden Rule and the mind of Christ as the supreme law of society and the sure remedy of all social ills.

ORGANIZED CHARITY IN 1809

The Methodists of New York city over a hundred years ago started their first organized charity. The record of this early venture is preserved in a volume in the library of the Methodist Historical Society. On November 12, 1808, at a meeting held in the school at Worth and Hudson streets, the Assistance Society for Relieving and Advising Sick and Poor Persons in the City of New York was organized. The *Christian City* tells how the city was divided into districts. At first there were four, then five and six, till finally the number became seven. These were called walks.

In 1809 the distribution of food, clothing, and fuel began. Catharine Graham of 81 Church street, to whom one dollar was given, was the first to be aided. During the War of 1812 the society purchased soup tickets from the "Humane Society" at three dollars a hundred, and distributed eighty loads of wood. In December, 1812, 3,499 "suffering individuals" were helped and the total for the first four years was 28,000.

RESULTS OF INVESTIGATION

Dedicated to the work of caring for delinquent children, the Brooklyn Disciplinary Training School for Boys disgraced its calling. A member of its board of management made public its failings and proved his charges. The superintendent and every member of the board of managers save himself was removed or he resigned.

The larger task of restoring the school to its humanitarian purpose and the disheartening work of regaining public confidence remained as an aftermath. As the present superintendent says in his annual report, which has just been published, "I found the school disorganized. Physically, the children were underfed, unhealthy, and unclean. Morally, they had been neglected and allowed to exercise their perverted appetites. The men in immediate charge were men of low mental caliber, brutal and coarse."

In a very brief time much needed repairs have been made, the trade schools systematized, and the classes more accurately graded. The enrollment, which had been 229, fell as a result of the disclosures to 150, but more recently the committing judges, convinced by personal visits of the quality of work done at the school, have been sending more boys, till there are now 186.

The new board of management, besides applying itself to transforming a prison or penal institution, in which the boys had shaven heads, to a moral hospital, are trying to make a fundamental change of plan. It is convinced that the spirit of an institution conducted on the congregate plan is necessarily to a large extent that of a penal institution instead of a home, and that it is impossible in such a place entirely to check the prevalence of immorality and personal abuses. The idea of penal confinement is obviated in the cottage plan, since only twenty or twenty-five boys are placed under one roof. The only certain way to prevent these evils is to have a school

built on a cottage system, and for this the board of managers are asking $350,000.

The advantages of this system, which has been adopted in Boston and Chicago and for the New York Juvenile Asylum, are that the cottage father and mother can learn the peculiarities of each boy and keep a closer supervision over him. It also allows the superintendent to group boys so that the degenerate and the merely unfortunate are not too closely associated.

So the board of managers is using the unfortunate experience of the school to strengthen the forces that are working for this beneficent change in the administration of training schools, which, with probation, represent the best thought that has been applied to the reformation of boys.

ASYLUM EXTRAVAGANCE

The report of Joseph P. Byers, general secretary of the State Charities Aid and Prison Reform Association of New Jersey, upon the conditions existing at the Essex County Hospital for the Insane shows very plainly that an improvement in the conduct and administration of that institution is imperatively needed. Mr. Byers's findings, published in the January issue of the *New Jersey Review of Charities and Correction*, give in a brief and convincing way glaring evidences of mismanagement. His statement that "partisan politics seems to have played a large part in the administration of the Essex County Hospital at Overbrook" may be merely his belief; but his criticism of the policy of having two responsible heads, a medical superintendent and a warden, for the institution is amply borne out by the results. The consequent friction has made the cost of maintaining the hospital enormous. The cost for each patient has been from fifty to one hundred dollars more yearly than is paid in the states of New York, Ohio, Indiana, and Pennsylvania. Comparison was made with institutions both smaller and larger, including some of the so-called congregate and cottage types. The expense per patient in almost every one of the other twelve institutions listed were, for salaries and wages, fuel and light, clothing and dry goods, drugs and medicines, and food supplies, very much less, in many cases scarcely more than half.

Mr. Byers finds that at Overbrook the insane should be employed daily in some useful occupation as they are at many of the more progressive institutions. He recommends also that a woman physician be employed, and that imbecile children should not be sent to this hospital.

CENTRAL HOWARD ASSOCIATION

The Central Howard Association, organized to aid prisoners before and after release and to advocate improved laws for the prevention of crime, has completed ten years of useful work in the central western states. Over a thousand applicants apply to it yearly for aid, and judges parole more than six score of men to its charge annually.

During the decade it has labored the association has helped secure a reformatory in Iowa, the Boys' Farm School at St. Cloud, Ill., and legislation for the inauguration of a reformatory system in Kentucky. It has aided also in getting better buildings, such as the new prison in Minnesota, and in establishing in Minnesota, Michigan, and Kentucky the principle of payment of prisoners.

POWERS TO FIX MINIMUM WAGE

Following are the provisions with respect to fixing minimum wages in the Minnesota bill to create industrial boards in trades employing women and minors. [See page 813.]

Industrial boards shall, subject to the provisions of this section, fix minimum rates of wages for time-work of women and minimum rates of wages for time-work of minors for their trades (in this act referred to as minimum time-rates) and may also fix general minimum rates of wages for piece-work of women, and minimum rates of wages for piece-work of minors for their trades (in this act referred to as general minimum piece-rates); and those rates of wages (whether time- or piece-rates) may be so fixed as to apply universally to such workers in the trade, or to such workers in any special process in the work of the trade, or to any special class of such workers in the trade, or to such workers in any special area. An industrial board shall not fix rates of wages arbitrarily, but shall always fix them at such a level as will safeguard, to a reasonable degree, the health, morals, and general welfare of the workers affected, and, therefore, the health, morals, and welfare of the public. Specifically, such rates of wages shall, so far as practicable, be fixed at a level which will enable the workers affected to procure a reasonable minimum of food, clothing, and shelter, to maintain themselves in normal health and working efficiency, and to obtain those general conditions of living which are practically necessary for right moral life. Provided that, in the case of workers who are fed or housed by their employers, the rates of wages fixed by an industrial board shall make due allowance for such feeding or housing.

If an industrial board report to the State Board of Arbitration that it is impracticable in a particular case to fix minimum rates of wages (whether time-rates or piece-rates) in accordance with this section, the State Board of Arbitration may, so far as respects that case, relieve the board of its duty.

An industrial board shall, in the manner pre-

scribed by the State Board of Arbitration, give four months' notice of all minimum rates fixed by it, and consider objections that are lodged within two months of such notice; and it may revise such rates, so far as it deems fair and proper.

At the expiration of the four months, the State Board of Arbitration shall issue an order to all employers and workers affected, requiring them to comply with the minimum rates of wages finally fixed by the industrial board. Said rates of wages shall remain in force for at least one year, and thereafter until they have been reconsidered and revised by an industrial board, and the new rates have been ordered by the State Board of Arbitration. The provisions regarding four months' notice shall be observed with regard to the new and revised rates in the same way as in the case of original rates.

Whoever is aggrieved by an order of the State Board of Arbitration making a minimum time-rate or minimum piece-rate obligatory and effective under this act, may within sixty days after the date thereof appeal therefrom to the District Court of his district. But when such appeal is made, the appellant must give written notice to the State Board of Arbitration fifteen days before the entry of such appeal; and the order of said state board shall remain in force until the appeal has been determined.

An industrial board shall have the power to grant a permit exempting from the provisions of this act the employment of a worker affected by an infirmity or physical injury which renders him incapable of earning that rate, if in the opinion of the industrial board the case cannot be suitably met by employing the worker on piece-work; the above exemption to apply only to those working in a shop or factory; provided that the number exempted shall in no case exceed one-fifth of the whole number of the class of workers in any establishment.

When any minimum rate of wages fixed by an industrial board has been made obligatory by order of the State Board of Arbitration under this act, an employer shall, in cases to which the minimum rate is applicable, pay wages to the person at not less than the minimum rate clear of all deduction, and if he fails to do so shall be liable to a fine of not less than twenty-five nor more than one hundred dollars, or three months' imprisonment, or both, for each separate offense.

On any trial of an employer under this section, the burden of proof shall be upon the defendant to show by the production of proper wage sheets or other records of wages, or otherwise, that he has not paid, or agreed to pay, wages at less than the minimum rate.

Any agreement for the payment of wages contrary to the provisions of this act shall be void.

Where any minimum rate of wages has been fixed by an industrial board (but has not yet become fully obligatory under an order of the State Board of Arbitration made in pursuance of this act) the minimum rate shall, unless the State Board of Arbitration direct to the contrary, have a limited application as follows:

(a) In all cases to which the minimum rate is applicable, an employer shall, in the absence of a written agreement to the contrary, pay to the person employed wages at not less than the minimum rate; and in the absence of such agreement, the person employed may recover wages at such rate from the employer;

(b) Any employer may give written notice to the industrial board by which the minimum rate has been fixed that he is willing that that rate should be obligatory on him, and in that case, he shall be under the same obligation to pay wages to the person employed at not less than the minimum rate, and shall be liable to the same fine for not doing so as he would be if an order of the State Board of Arbitration were in force making the rate obligatory.

An industrial board shall keep a register of any notices given under this section.

Any person who makes an agreement, express or implied, with a worker, in pursuance of which the worker performs any work for which a minimum has been fixed under this act, shall be deemed for the purposes of this act, to be the employer of the worker, and the net remuneration received by the worker, after allowing for necessary expenditures in connection with the work, shall be deemed to be wages within the meaning of this act, and the industrial board shall investigate and determine the proper amount of deduction for said necessary expenditures.

Any worker to whom this act applies, or any person authorized by such worker, may complain to the industrial board that the wages paid to the worker by any employer in any case to which any minimum rate fixed by the industrial board is applicable are at a less rate than the minimum rate, and the industrial board shall consider that matter, and if warranted by their findings, proceed under this act on behalf of the worker.

Before proceeding under this act on behalf of the worker, an industrial board may, and on the first complaint shall, take reasonable steps to bring the case to the notice of the employer, with a view to the settlement of the case without recourse to proceedings.

COMMUNICATIONS

IMMIGRATION CONTROL

CONSTRUCTION vs DISTRIBUTION

To the Editor:

It is to be regretted that the Immigration Commission did not vote on the propositions that are their findings at the beginning of their work instead of its close. In that case they could hardly have helped asking what facts will prove these conclusions and then set about to find the needed evidence. As it is, there is little connection between the facts they bring out and the conclusions they draw. To make a selection among immigrants demands that differences among them should be pointed out upon which the selection could be based. It should also be shown that the tests to be applied would bring about the kind of selection it is proposed to introduce. Neither of these conditions is met. It is not shown that any large class of immigrants are undesirable, or differ in any fundamental respect from other classes now coming or from those that have previously come. Nor is it shown that an educational test would give a more desirable class of immigrants than those it would exclude.

The real animus of the findings lies in another quarter. There is a general belief that the number of immigrants is too great, and as a consequence the rate of wages is being lowered. In addition to this there is a feeling among laborers that the tariff has been beneficial mainly to employers, and that the prospective rise of wages it was to bring has been prevented by the increase of immigration. A measure to restrict immigration would thus help the cause of a high tariff by making it seem that finally something was to be done for the laborers. It would also be advocated by those who see no way out of the present economic difficulties except by some scheme for the redistribution of wealth and income. It is only fair to ask of those who believe in either of these measures that they state their case openly and defend it by legitimate means.

Problems of a tariff or of the distribution of wealth should be discussed from strictly economic premises. Any appeal to social prejudice or to social sentiment puts the discussion in a position where the original premises are soon lost sight of. Had the Immigration Commission brought in findings based on their facts, or sought facts in harmony with their political views, this shifting of the discussion from economic to social premises would not have taken place. At is is, each writer can go his own road and use what material he will for his own ends. Many diverging views have already been expressed, with the likelihood that the injection of prejudice and sentiment in the place of well verified facts will break up the unity which in recent years has characterized the advance of social science.

The only solution of existing evils lies in the elimination of race distinctions and in the redistribution of the white race to its new and enlarged environment. For these ends the free movement of population is essential. The return of immigrants to their native land is as much a part of the general forward movement as is the original immigration to America. The immigrant brings labor when he comes to us; he takes back ideas when he returns. He thus helps to transform America through its material progress and Europe through emancipation from its load of antiquated customs, habits, and ideals.

Only one way is open to secure a high standard of life, and that is for the whole white race to become unified and to be so redistributed that each part will help others in their uplift. There is no ideal America that does not involve an ideal Europe. To hem ourselves in or to shut others out is to lose the ideal ourselves and bring on race conflicts instead of international unity. Nor are there American ideals in any distinct local sense. All ideals are social, good for every land, race, and age. The only reason for giving them a specific name is to tell where they originated. Greek ideals have no peculiar fitness for Greece, but can thrive anywhere if conditions favor them. They represent a stage in the forward movement of thought which happened to express itself in Greece. So is it with American ideals. We want the honor of being the nation where the new civilization first works out its legitimate consequences. But these new ideals are not to be confined to American soil nor guarded against exportation. Our race has exactly the same blood as other white races; our ideals are theirs or will soon be. No policy of restriction can check the spread of ideas or prevent the blending of all races into one.

So much for general principles. There are difficulties in their application and I do not wonder that reformers grow impatient and wish for quicker means of attaining their ends. I agree with Dr. Devine in his eager desire to help the laborers whose incomes are below the standard of social well being. But will restriction of immigration afford a relief? This I doubt, and for it I shall give my reasons.

The policy of restriction as a matter of practical politics arises in connection with the tariff. No one would say that we could raise wages by restricting immigration unless a tariff raised the price of American goods above the European level. Two measures have, there-

fore, been proposed. One is a tariff board to fix rates so that reasonable profits can be paid, and the other a restriction of immigration so that the laborers would share in the benefits of the tariff. Those who advocate these measures do not recognize the fundamental change they make in the spirit of tariff legislation, and in the motives causing the success of earlier tariffs. Past tariffs have had as their end the enlargement of national industry and not the distribution of income. The successful industries have become powerful and have influenced Congress in their favor. Each new tariff has thus favored the successful and burdened those who are not. There has resulted a pushing of industry into fields where the return is greatest and a diminution of it where profits were low. The net result of this has been beneficial, and in the resulting prosperity all classes have gained, but in unequal degrees. This dynamic effect would be lost if all industries were guaranteed a reasonable profit. Industries for which the nation is not fitted would grow as rapidly as those suitable to American conditions. A check on prosperity would result, and a fall of wages even if severe restrictions be put on immigration.

There is little likelihood that the American public will permit a further rise in the cost of living, even if it be to the advantage of unskilled laborers; and if national prosperity is checked there would be no other way of bettering their condition. There is the additional difficulty that the importation of foreign goods exerts a more depressing influence on wages than does the movement of labor to this country. While it is quite clear that the tariff has made American standards higher, the difference is now at its maximum and will probably grow less instead of greater. The mobility of labor, capital, and goods is steadily increasing. They will bind Europe and America more closely together and impose on all parts of the white race the same social and economic standards.

It would therefore seem that future progress in wages depends more on what happens in Europe than on American events. The greatest element in the uplift of workmen is the free movement of labor to and from Europe. The flow of laborers to America enables us to transform our industries and cities through the growth of fixed capital, and the return of immigrants to Europe creates social changes that uplift the masses and Americanize European thought.

The present situation is thus not without hope. The change is slow, but it is certain. To desert the constructive program in which social workers have had so many successes for a distributive program seems to be a rash step. Dr. Devine has been a skillful leader whom we have all been glad to follow. He should, however, expound more fully the new doctrine or return to constructive social work. In any case, we should not mix social construction with social distribution. The two programs are distinct; between them there is no compromise. I, for one, have no confidence in distributive measures. They check the dynamic movement of society and in the end harm more than they aid the classes they are designed to help. The safe, slow road of construction reaches the only goals worth striving for.

SIMON N. PATTEN.

Univerity of Pennsylvania.

THE SPIRIT OF INTERNATIONALISM

TO THE EDITOR:

Miss Addams writes of the birth of a "cosmic patriotism, which may yet move masses of men out of their narrow national considerations and cautions into new reaches of human effort and affection." If this spirit of internationalism, or rather over-nationalism, is finally about to assert itself, surely it will not regard a problem such as immigration as a purely local issue. It will consider not solely the difficulties to which our constant influx of aliens unquestionably gives rise, but also the relief it has afforded to thousands of debt-burdened and poverty-stricken communities across the sea.

We naturally turn to the pages of THE SURVEY for an expression of this *Weltanschauung;* for if there is any body of men and women actuated by a vision of mutual understanding and good will among all people, any group whose daily usefulness depends upon an unwavering faith in an ever-widening sphere of freedom for all, it is the social workers of America. They assuredly must realize that all barriers erected between men are reactionary and vicious, and that the United States can offer no greater service to humanity than in providing daily contact and common fellowship to men of innumerable nationalities, languages, and creeds.

"America is a home rehearsal of a drama that will have the whole world for its stage," wrote Henry Demorest Lloyd. Or, as your own editor put it before the 1905 Conference of Charities and Correction: "Is it not true as a matter of fact that we have come to understand the better that we are a part of the great brotherhood of man, because of the fact that so large a number of people have come to make their homes among us, and is it not almost worth while to bear the increased economic burdens in order that we may have the wider experience and the larger knowledge which comes from the fact that we ourselves, under our own cloak and under our own banners, have become to a very great extent the world, and have within our own borders all the elements that can be found throughout the world."

Only the forebodings of a frightful menace to our national institutions could carry Dr. Devine and many of his associates so far afield from their natural sympathies as to endorse the recommendations of the Immigration Commission. But certainly the brief report issued thus far by the commission furnishes no data to justify these apprehensions. The charge of marked criminal tendencies on the part of immigrants is admitted false, pauperism is shown to be relatively at a minimum, alcoholism rare, the desire for education universal, best of all agricultural training and instincts frequent.

In short, the immigrant is given quite as clean a bill of health as his most zealous partisan could require. We are, however, assured that "if one thing is better established by the commission's reports than another, it is that the great mass of immigrants who reach the United States at the present time are not idlers and ne'er-do-wells but, however unskilled and unadaptable, are productive factors in society."

And it appears that such "productive factors" are no longer desirable. Despite our vast undeveloped resources, our capacity to support over ten times our present population, we are solemnly assured that the "saturation point of unskilled labor" is almost at hand. The same fear has been expressed in every decade of our national existence. We are indeed living under an economic system which apparently necessitates a certain amount of unemployment, but the same phenomenon is as apparent in countries untouched by immigration as in our own. What really occurs when there is a positive glut of labor was clearly demonstrated in the panic year ending June 30, 1908, when over 714,000 persons departed from the United States.

It must be admitted that immigrant after immigrant has successfully crowded out his predecessor, but we all know that the earlier comer was as a class crowded up and not down. There must be something radically wrong if this power of absorption is now about to break down, and if in a community as young as ours an honest peasant with a sturdy physique and an aptitude for labor can for many years to come be other than a source of national gain. Are we again in the grip of the wages fund theory, that any increase in the number of workers is assumed to mean a decrease in wages, rather than an increase in the national dividend out of which wages are paid? Or are our workers so grossly underpaid that they can be considered solely as producers, not as consumers? If so, we are fiddling while Rome is burning, and the Immigration Restriction League had better by far devote itself to socialistic propaganda, rather than waste its energies and finances on so paltry an issue as immigration. Surely no one with any grasp of economic theory can examine the present difficulties of the unskilled workingman in America and lay the burden of his trouble upon the size of our population.

I dare not infringe further upon your courtesy, provoking both of discussion and criticism as are the methods of restriction proposed. In closing, however, I cannot resist saying that we all agree with Dr. Devine that we have a "national heritage," and "a sacred duty to transmit it unimpaired to our posterity." But to many of us there is no nobler nor more vital feature of this American heritage than the policy of hospitality towards the oppressed and abused of all climes and races. We know that the Russian Jew, and the Pole, and the southern Italian come from as bitter a persecution, religious, political, economic, as drove forth in turn Puritan, Irishman, and German; and we would hold ourselves faithless to the creed of human brotherhood if we spared word or deed in preserving the priceless tradition of the open door.

ARTHUR L. MAYER.

New York.

THE MAN WHO IS AN IMMIGRANT

TO THE EDITOR:

For a dozen years now we have been discussing the immigrants. We have had meetings, conventions, dinners—is there anything of public concern that does not in our days run to conventions and dinners and sometimes stick there?—commissions that have studied the immigrant at home and abroad, trying to help us to decide what to do with him; and we have arrived at certain conclusions concerning his kind. If he steals, if he comes here with a bad name, if he is foisted upon us to fill some one else's pockets, if he is a pauper or likely to become one, if sick in a way to threaten the rest of us—we don't want him. And that is all. Only as regards the Asiatic we have made a flat verdict of exclusion. The other keeps coming. And the question whether the southern European is good for us or not, is unanswered; also, it seems likely to remain so. Why is this?

Is it not, perhaps, because it cannot be answered fairly on the lines that have run in our minds? I say fairly because, whatever our likes or dislikes, as a people I am sure we want to answer the question fairly—fairly to him, fairly to us and to the spirit of our country: "The man, not the money." And may not the reason be this, that we have stared so long and so hard at the economic end of our problem that we have lost the real key to it? Have we not dwelt too much upon the money and forgotten the man?

This is what I mean: Suppose we look more to man's ideals, traditions, than at the money he brings. You cannot after all measure a man's fitness for citizenship by his pocket, or even by his capacity as a workman; and while we may want his labor we want his manhood more, if we are wise. What then does he come for? To better his condition? Good! That is his right; fair proof to start with that he has the making of an American in him. To do it, will he stay with us? Is he prepared to cast in his lot with us, for good or ill, or does he come just to earn so many dollars and go back to his own? The demand is made that he shall be able to read or write in his own language, if not in ours. That is good so far as it goes, though it does not in my judgment go very far. It does not guarantee quality. If the man is a criminal, he may be a much more dangerous one for being taught.

But suppose we find out what company he kept where he came from. Who were his heroes, or had he any? Does he know the great men of his own country? Say he is an Italian, what does he know of Garibaldi? Is the splendid story of United Italy in any measure his? If he is a Hungarian, do his eyes shine at the name of Kossuth? If a Polander, at the mention of Kosciusko? We shall not

need to ask the Jew for his heroes, though it might do some of the rest of us good to have these refugees who knock rehearse the deeds of the Maccabees, of Joshua, and of Moses, greatest of national leaders in any day.

The point I want to make is that, approaching him from that angle, we get at the real man, and thereby at his value as a prospective American citizen; whereas today, being concerned, if the truth be told, chiefly about the cheap labor he brings to our market, we have got our money's worth *plus* the problem he has become in our cities. Viewed as a man, the dreaded immigrant from the Balkan mountains, for instance, whom we bury shudderingly in our coal mines, becomes all at once the sturdy battler for the faith and freedom of his fathers who for centuries has bearded the Turk at his own door and held him back. To be sure, he is not apt to know much English, but would one fear damage to the republic from the injection of such a strain as his?

Note that when dealing with the whole matter in this way no violence is done to the established custom, where that is good. The thief, the leper, the anarchist, the man who is boosted over the ocean to fill some steamship company's pocket—these are still left one side, and I should not be surprised if it were found easier so to keep out the brigands who have swarmed in from Sicily since the government over there shut down on kidnapping for ransom. We have them all here now, in spite of our laws made to keep them out, and they are carrying on business successfully at the new stand. On the other hand, my plan would hold the door wide open for the man who comes here for conscience sake, the victim of unjust political persecution. When we get ready to slam our gate against these, we shall not need to discuss the matter any more. There will be nothing worth coming after.

Does all this sound visionary? Well, I am setting it down rather to make us think then because I expect my way to be adopted at once. But is it so visionary? Why was it we shut the Chinamen out? To be sure, there are the standards of life and the millions over yonder. Yet, was it not in fact because his ideals are not ours, because on that plane we could not meet or understand one another, and because, had it been otherwise, the Chinaman refused to be of us, insisted on remaining an exile in a strange land and sending even his bones home to be buried? And why should it be more unpractical, when you come right down to it, to find out whether a man had a patriotic soul to graft our citizinship on, than to ascertain whether he was a burglar or blackmailer in the old country? To be sure, we haven't made a very good fist of that last, but we can do better—shall have to in any event, unless we are indeed willing to harbor the traditional "scum of Europe."

Of course, there will then be the grafting process. That is our end of it. We shall have to make citizens of these men, having ascertained their fitness for it. That end we have let lie too long and it is time we took it up As for that, we know our duty and if we do not choose to do it, we need not complain of the evils that flow from our neglect.

No doubt some other system than the one that expedites three or four thousand immigrants a day through our gate on Ellis Island would have to be devised. The gate would have to be set up on the other side. These are details of management that can be arranged. For myself I have never been able to understand why our whole immigration business cannot be conducted exactly as a merchant hires help for his store or factory. He does not engage a score or ten score men and try them out by degrees. He asks each applicant if he can do the thing he wants done and makes that the test. In such a scheme a great national labor bureau, as comprehensive in its reach and operation as the Weather Bureau, that would feel the pulse of the labor market every day, would be like the frame of an umbrella, it would carry it all. By its aid they would know constantly in the ports of embarkation what kind of labor was in demand and where, and could sift out that kind and send it over, bound for the spot where it is needed—farmers, mechanics, miners, etc., and no others. Thus we should certainly avoid the clogging of our city slums that is good neither for us nor for the immigrant. He does not want to stay there but, coming without direction, he naturally goes where his friends are who can help him. We know the rest.

That, I have been told more than once, organized labor would never permit. Well, if anyone can tell me of anything more irrational than organized labor permitting the cheap labor of the world to come in, in free competition, while taxing themselves for its product under the tariff professedly made to protect American labor, I should be glad to hear of it. We shall have to use sense all around. My contention is that, having used it in the selection of the immigrant who asks to become an American, we shall be all the better qualified to decide the question whether we have any right to shut the gate against him entirely.

Jacob A. Riis.

New York.

PERSONALS

Judge Mack on Commerce Bench.—The Senate's confirmation of the president's nomination of Judge Julian W. Mack to be a circuit judge of the United States, sitting in the new Court of Commerce, puts the official seal of national approval on a career of high usefulness.

Judge Mack was born in San Francisco in 1866. His parents removed a few months later to Cincinnati where he was brought up.

JULIAN W. MACK

He was graduated from Harvard Law School in 1887 at the head of a class which included Charles S. Hamlin, afterwards assistant secretary of the treasury; Joseph H. Beale, Jr., now professor of law in Harvard University; Joseph Lee of Boston, president of the Playground Association of America; John J. McKelvey, an eminent New York lawyer; Colin C. H. Fyffe and George W. Brown, prominent members of the Chicago bar, and John H. Wigmore, now professor of law in Northwestern University. At Harvard he won a traveling fellowship, the first awarded in many years to a law student, and spent the next three years abroad pursuing advanced legal studies.

In 1890 he returned to Cincinnati where the law school was being re-organized under Gustavus H. Wald, who had interested Judge, now President, Taft to become one of the lecturers. The young attorney's advice and influence were utilized in introducing modern methods of instruction. In 1891 he joined the Chicago law firm of Julius Rosenthal, now continued by the firm of Rosenthal and Hamill. Julius Rosenthal, a thorough scholar of the old type, and Julian Mack were frequently held to be the strongest influence in Chicago at that time for sound legal learning. In 1893 he was appointed professor of law in Northwestern University Law School, and in 1902 he joined the new law school of the University of Chicago. In both his special attention was given to commercial law.

In 1903, after serving a few months as a civil service commissioner, he was elected to the circuit court of Cook county and was re-elected in 1909. While serving there he was assigned to the Juvenile Court where his philanthropic spirit and legal talent enabled him to set a high standard of administration which has influenced the conduct of children's courts in this and other countries.

He has long been identified with other philanthropic movements. The Jewish and other charitable organizations in Chicago which he has served make a list too long to be enumerated here. He was at one time president of the National Conference of Jewish Charities and he has been a frequent speaker at the National Conference of Charities and Correction. He is president of the Chicago League for the Protection of Immigrants and a zealous worker in the Chicago branch of the Friends of Russian Freedom. He is a member of Charities Publication Committee. Judge Mack may be classed intellectually and emotionally as a radical. His natural instinct is to sympathize with the ideal in principle and with the oppressed in person. This instinct is checked by his thorough legal training and shrewd good sense, and by his clean, rational clarity of view; all of which combine to make him realize the value of things as they are, the stern necessity of law, and order, and progress, and the inevitable conditioning of the ideal by the now and here. The combination is a peculiarly valuable one for the duties of the bench, and it is precisely the one needed at the present time of national affairs.

A Friend of the Boys.—Chief Scout Ernest Thompson Seton of the Boy Scouts of America has announced that James E. West has begun his duties as executive secretary of the organization, a position of much responsibility in a movement growing so amazingly fast. There are now 1,400 local councils in the United States. England has 400,000 youngsters pledged to "scoutcraft," "doing a good turn every day to some one and getting fun out of it," as the announcement reads.

Mr. West has unique qualifications. "Graduate" of an orphanage and for many years tied to crutches, he found ways to go through a high school, and by years of night work, to win a degree at law from the National University of the District of Columbia. He has been a member of the Board of Pension Appeals and an assistant attorney in the office of the secretary of the interior. For two

JAMES E. WEST.

years he has been in charge of the *Delineator* child-rescue campaign, and to him is chiefly due the credit for the White House Conference on Children called by President Roosevelt. He gave up his law work to become secretary of the Washington Playground Association, and started that hibernating organization on an active and useful career. Further and moreover,—there is no end to what the man has done and done well, and always with a smile—he has been superintendent of the Sunday school of the Mount Pleasant Congregational Church, Washington, for five years, and has run up the enrollment from 300 to 1,000, with boys and young men predominating. He was secretary of the citizens' Committee which secured a juvenile court law for the District of Columbia. He has brought up by hand a half dozen boys for whom no one seemed to feel responsibility and now is specializing on a son of his own. The offices of the Boy Scouts of America are in the Fifth Avenue Building, New York.

Tuberculosis Worker Promoted.—George J. Nelbach succeeds John A. Kingsbury as assistant secretary of the New York State Charities Aid Association in charge of tuberculosis work. Mr. Kingsbury, it will be remembered, became general agent of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor on January 1. Mr. Nelbach has been in charge of local tuberculosis campaigns for the State Charities Aid Association for three years. He is a graduate of Cornell University.

For Workers, Send to Buffalo.—In announcing that his assistant, Paul E. Illman, had been made general secretary of the Syracuse, N. Y., Associated Charities, Frederic Almy

GEORGE J. NELBACH.

PAUL E. ILLMAN.

said: "It is only two years since the Buffalo Charity Organization Society gave Porter Lee to Philadelphia, but we would rather have men we cannot keep than men we cannot lose."

Mr. Almy is the only one of the group of young men in the Buffalo Charity Organization Society who has not been "lost"—and that, it is well known, solely by his own choice. The society has furnished secretaries to the charity organization societies of Philadelphia, Minneapolis, Pasadena, Des Moines, and Springfield, and to the Philadelphia Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. It is rumored that Boston is seeking a recruit from it. All of which is a record to be proud of, even in the oldest society of its kind in this country, and an eloquent testimonial to the sort of work and training to be had under one Frederic Almy.

Mr. Illman is a graduate of Harvard. While in college he was assistant superintendent of the Parker Memorial, which is conducted in connection with Hale House. At Buffalo he was assistant secretary of the Charity Organization Society and manager of the Fresh Air Mission. He has a promising field in Syracuse, for the city is much alive to its social needs and has the close and friendly co-operation of the university, the churches, and a large number of the citizens.

Business Man for Secretary.—The Des Moines Associated Charities has for its new general superintendent and secretary Horace S. Hollingsworth, for eighteen years assistant cashier of the Valley National Bank. Mr. Hollingsworth has been interested in charity work since his graduation from the University of Iowa in 1892. Under his direction the Associated Charities has plans for a closer-knit organization of charity in Des Moines, now a city of 110,000 population, and for a new scheme of charitable contributions which in the past have been solicited haphazard by various organizations and institutions.

H. S. HOLLINGSWORTH.

Financial Secretary, Philadelphia.—Berkeley G. Tobey, who on the first of the year began new duties as financial secretary of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, is the latest recruit to the group of young men who in a half dozen fields are pushing forward the social work of Philadelphia. Mr. Tobey was for two years financial secretary of Brooklyn Hospital, following an earlier experience with the New York Charity Organization Society.

Social Worker for Girard College.—There is much significance in the announcement that Frank D. Witherbee has been made field agent for Girard College, Philadelphia, for this old institution has not before sought the services of a trained social worker. It has a large endowment under which it is possible for it to do work of far-reaching importance in educating industrially the 1,500 boys who are enrolled. Under Cheesman A. Herrick, the new president appointed last spring, it is going ahead with new energy and purpose.

Mr. Witherbee's immediate work will be to supervise the selection of boys who enter the institution in order to secure those who can profit most from it. A man who combines abounding sympathy heartily expressed with the best sort of social training, he is admirably suited to the place. For over four years he has been assistant secretary of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, following a brief term as its financial secretary. Before that he was in charge of the Joint Application Bureau in New York, and still earlier of the boys' work at Denison House, Boston.

Reporting Venereal Diseases.—Departmental Control of Venereal Diseases will be the subject of the meeting of the American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis the evening of February 23, at the New York Academy of Medicine. Papers and discussion will be by Prof. Frederick H. Gerrish of Portland, Me., Dr. Lucien Home of Buffalo, William A. Purrington, and others.

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IMMIGRATION

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Here we have a study of a great group of immigrants in their peasant homes and in America. They are of the races now coming to us in greatest numbers, and they are largely laborers. They are studied smypathetically but critically by one who knows them well. They not only form parts of the "foreign quarters" of great cities and industrial towns, but are scattered over the continent as farmers, shopkeepers, workers in the trades.

A more valuable volume for American readers during the present immigration discussion could scarcely be penned.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE PEOPLE'S COURTS

More than local interest invests the attempt now being made at Albany to seize control for political purposes of all the inferior courts of criminal jurisdiction in the city of New York. If it should be successful one more reason would be given to the insurgent West, to self-respecting New England, and to the democracy of the South, for rejecting with contempt such claims to leadership as might come from this Empire State, if not indeed to association on equal terms in any place where decency is taken into account, where public interests are put above private interests. For this is not an academic issue as to whether judges should be appointed by a mayor or elected by the people. It is a reckless and desperate onslaught on a magistracy which is already good and is every week becoming better. The attack would have no significance and no chance of success except for the fact that through this very increasing efficiency in the public interest these courts are interfering, as it was intended that they should, with obnoxious personal and private interests.

The discussions of the past fortnight, and especially the joint hearing on February 15, have made all this as clear as daylight. The spokesman for the Sullivan "ripper" bill described himself as a lawyer who has more practice in the police courts than all the other members of the New York county lawyers' association combined. His claim is challenged, but there is enough basis for it to explain one ground of his interest. He finds the magistrates before whom he practices unreasonable and irritable. We are not surprised. He is especially annoyed because former District Attorney Jerome was able to put the fear of God into the hearts of judges. The rest of the community has found this rather a matter for congratulation. But we suspect that the nasty magisterial temper which troubles our legal friend is not so much a legacy from the former district attorney as it is the natural reaction of the human and judicial mind against the tactics which he employs in their presence. The speech which he made at Albany, so abusive and unparliamentary that his party associates have vied with the public press in denouncing it, was evidently nothing more nor less than a sample of his best court room manner. No doubt he is honestly astonished at the impression which it created. Probably he is quite sincere in protesting that he did not mean to be insulting and abusive. What interests us is that this ambitious East Side police court lawyer, who has been thrown by the accidents of politics into the position of chairman of the judiciary committee in the Assembly, clearly reveals that he has his personal grievances against the magistrates before whom he has been accustomed to practice. Probably, like others similarly placed, he may have his own quite legitimate ambition to take the place of one of them. As he has shown that he can be elected to the Legislature, notwithstanding his grave disqualifications, very likely he could so shape matters as to secure a

local judicial nomination and election. At least the chances are that he could have done this before February 15. With the unenviable reputation which he achieved on that date it might be more difficult. Failing in that, however, he might at least help to elect a more compliant magistrate than the "irritable dyspeptics" before whom he is now compelled to take his chances.

Here then we have three "good reasons" for passing the "ripper" bill which legislates out of office on a given date all of the fifty-five justices and magistrates who are now conducting these courts, and gives to each local district the right to elect its own magistrate at the time of a general election, incidentally and quite unnecessarily increasing the number of judges to be elected.

FIRST. It would get rid of the judges whom police court lawyers of a certain type and local politicians find objectionable, unreasonable, arbitrary, and "dyspeptic"!

SECOND. It would give these same local lawyers or others like them a better chance than they now have to step into their places.

THIRD. It would at best put the courts completely at the disposal and under the influence of the district leader and the political machine.

From the spoilsman's point of view these are all very good reasons. From the point of view of the public interest; from the point of view of the unfortunate people, innocent or guilty, who crowd these courts as defendants, and the scarcely less fortunate people who come into them as complainants; from the point of view of an orderly, impartial, and fearless administration of justice, they are no reasons at all. Vituperative scorn was poured out upon the secretary of the City Club, who was one of the opponents of the bill, because he claimed to be voicing the protest of the decent people of New York. Yet later discussion has shown that his claim was abundantly justified. Not all decent citizens are in the City Club, but those who are not seem quite as ready as those who are to speak their minds in opposition to this iniquitous project. We have yet to hear from one disinterested decent citizen who is ready to defend the bill on its merits. To speak for decency against so barefaced an attack on the independence and efficiency of magistrates is merely an obvious public duty, an assertion not of offensive superiority but of common sense.

We have not dwelt on the particular objections to the bill, that in its present form it would put an end to such specialized work as that of the two night courts and the domestic relations court, which have already won their way to immense popular favor. The fundamental objection to the bill lies against its fundamental purpose That it would undo the extraordinary progress of the last year should insure its defeat; but even if, as its sponsors profess to desire, all these improvements could be retained under the new scheme, as they clearly could not, it would still deserve all the public indignation which it has aroused, for the reason that its sole effect under existing conditions would be to put the people's courts into the vest pockets of district leaders. We have no quarrel with district leaders as such; but we have with the project to add the courts to their available assets.

THE COMMON WELFARE

HOIST BY THEIR OWN BILLINGSGATE

For many years advocates of city progress in New York have been galled by the tight rein held over the city by an up-state majority of a Legislature trained to make laws for the metropolis by their experience of the difficult problems of township finances and the administrative subtleties of district school boards. This year, through Tammany Hall, the city in a general way controls the Legislature, and it is interesting to see what happens.

The first hearing on a city bill—the Sullivan bill, incidentally drawn in such a way as to do away with the chief improvements in the minor courts which followed the enactment of the Page law—was made the occasion for venting on a delegation of social workers a heaped up measure of billingsgate. Thus does history repeat itself, for Tammany's first control of the state Legislature has led to just such a scene as was familiar when it had complete control of the city years ago under Boss Tweed and Mayor Van Wyck. And thus does fable reverse itself, for the delegation did not

> Come home from the ride with the lady inside
> And the smile on the face of the Tiger,

but rejoicing in the probable defeat of the measure by the very zeal of its friends. It is now currently understood that the bill will not be made an organization measure and, in an interview in the *Evening Post*, a Tammany member of the Legislature declares outright that this incident makes him ashamed of his connection with the organization.

Here were men and women from New York city whose own senators and representatives sneered at their motives, calling them "highbrows" and "high collar dudes", accusing them of working for their "pay envelope", and branding them as "professional reformers", and their opposition to the bill as "insincere, false, and dishonest" and calculated to result in "hysteria." The chief advocate of the bill was able to see merely a selfish demand for continuing the salaries of women probation officers in the plea of a woman who spoke against the bill from years of devoted work for a salvage of fallen girls. The personal appearance of some of the speakers was made the subject of remarks, greeted by laughter by members of the committee.

The delegation represented the City Club, the Charity Organization Society, the New York Probation Association, the Woman's Municipal League, the Board of City Magistrates, the Court of Special Sessions, and the State Supreme Court.

It is interesting to note that Assemblyman Aaron J. Levy, the man chiefly responsible for the affair, is a police court lawyer, and that the method he employed was the police court method of browbeating and blunt invective which the Sullivan bill would once more make possible in police courts. The *Evening Post* has since shown him to have taken her whole savings from an immigrant woman in deep trouble, and then to have secured payment from the city as her attorney on the claim that she was penniless. He has long been a candidate for magistrate, but has failed of appointment. His chances for the position, it has been pointed out, would probably be improved if the office were elective. The papers point out further that he is a political, and his brother a financial, associate of the Sullivans.

The "ripper" bill, as readers of THE SURVEY will remember, proposes to do away with the appointment by the mayor of city magistrates and justices of the Court of Special Sessions and to substitute their election by districts. This was the practice prior to 1873 and was held responsible for making police courts a term of reproach rather than an instrument for securing justice. The proposed change would do away with the centralized organization which under the Page law makes each justice and magistrate responsible to his chief and he in turn to the mayor. It would make them de-

pendent upon district leaders for nomination and election, thereby turning over fifty-five new positions to the leaders. It would abolish the night courts and the Court of Domestic Relations, as they are courts for the whole city and the law provides that a judge elected in a district can sit only in that district. The detail of what all this would mean need not be repeated here.

The New York *Times* finds the real motive of the bill to be not patronage, but the well-known relations of political leaders to vice. However respectable some men near the top, the machine at bottom is supported by the profits of vice either directly, through ownership of resorts by some of its leaders, or indirectly through "protection." Every step forward by the minor courts under the Page law, it might be shown, curtailed this power. The night courts did away with the professional bondsmen, limited to a degree the power of men who live on the earnings of prostitutes, and made more difficult the recruiting of white slaves. The Court of Domestic Relations greatly hampered the activities of police court lawyers. The organization under a chief magistrate holds the whole body more strictly to account. Should the courts go on developing to the highest point possible under the Page law, simple justice will become a fairly easy and undelayed matter, with little call for the services of Mr. Levy and his associates. Summing up, the *Times* says: "Sullivan's bill to make the magistrates elective is so obviously calculated to increase the revenue for 'protection' that even decent Tammany men are ashamed of it." Further, it is to be noted that Tammany leaders would not be the only beneficiaries, for the bill would throw patronage and power to republican leaders in republican districts, and it is held by many to be in fact not a measure urged by any political organization as such, but a move of and by certain district leaders regardless of party.

"CLOSE EARLY" SLOGAN FOR NEXT CHRISTMAS

Aside from the elaborate and encouraging address of the Rev. John A. Ryan of St. Paul Seminary on Minimum Wage Boards, to which the closing session was chiefly devoted, the twelfth annual meeting of the National Consumers' League, held in Pittsburgh, gave more time to shortening working hours than to any other theme. Reports on the Christmas shopping season were uniformly cheering. Since, however, hundreds of merchants, in scores of places, cut prices on the days immediately preceding Christmas, thus rewarding the late comers, the cry for the next holiday season will have to be, "Deal with merchants who close early," not merely, "Shop early!" Early closing is, after all, the chief aim of the shop early campaign.

Plans are already under way for the Saturday half holiday campaign for next summer. While New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and many other great cities already have this beneficent usage, in hundreds of smaller ones the stores are kept open extra late on summer Saturdays.

The following resolution, unanimously adopted, sums up the attitude of the meeting in relation to the short working day:

> Whereas, the Consumers' League of the City of New York passed a resolution endorsing the movement of the expressmen to obtain a reduction of their working day from thirteen hours to ten hours, the National Consumers' League assembled in council places itself on record as approving an eight hours day and endorses attempts to reach this standard.

Resolutions approving honest labeling of beer and whiskey have already been made public through the daily press. The National Consumers' League reasserted this position, because untruthful labeling of any food, drug, or beverage, leads inevitably to similar frauds all along the line.

Another resolution, based on the case of the boy of twelve sentenced to five years' confinement for stealing five dollars from a special delivery letter,[1] protested "against the employment of minors under twenty-one years in the delivery of mail, whether such employment be directly by the post office officials or indirectly under contract with local deliv-

[1] THE SURVEY for February 11.

ery companies," and affirmed that "mail matter of all classes should be delivered by adult responsible employes of the federal government. Copies of the resolution have been sent to President Taft, Postmaster General Hitchcock, and the appropriate committees of Congress.

TOWN MEETING OF CITY SIZE

Some of the people of Seattle were particularly well equipped this year to discuss the measures before the Legislature, which is about closing its annual term of sixty days, as a result of the Pre-Legislature Institute held at the suggestion of the Social Service Club. The Municipal League, a virile young organization, stood sponsor for the institute; the Y. M. C. A. gave the use of its auditorium; prominent citizens acted as presiding officers during the four days' sessions, and the Rev. Sidney Strong, an active participant in all social and civic matters in Seattle, was president.

The institute discussed proposed legislation regarding child labor, an eight-hour day for women, state supervision of charities, juvenile court, workmen's compensation, local option, the short ballot, direct legislation, and closed with an address on law enforcement by Judge J. T. Ronald of the Superior Court. The general plan was to present both sides, and it worked well in even so mooted a question as local option, on which speeches were made by representatives of the Anti-Saloon League and the Liquor Dealers' League.

The attendance at the institution averaged over two hundred. It was understood that no resolutions were to be passed by the institute. The newspapers gave good reports of the proceedings, and the meetings came nearer to being "town-meetings" than any previously known. A list of the senators and representatives and how to reach them was printed on the programs. The expense of carrying on the institute was less than twenty-five dollars.

If good government depends upon intelligent sympathy in the affairs of government, then such an institute, which could be held in any city, town, or village, standing for frank and non-partisan discussion of public issues, would, the members hold, be a contribution to the civic good.

SOCIAL CAUSES OF BLINDNESS

Helen Keller put the social causes of blindness in the clearest sort of way at the recent meeting of the Massachusetts Association for Promoting the Interests of the Blind, which discussed the prevention of blindness and the conservation of eyesight. She said:

> The trouble with most of us is that we do not understand the essential relation between poverty and disease. This case of blindness, the physician says, resulted from *ophthalmia*. It was really caused by a dark, overcrowded room, by the indecent herding together of human beings in insanitary tenements. We are told that another case of blindness resulted from the bursting of a wheel. The true cause was an employer's failure to safeguard his machine. Investigations show that there are many ingenious safeguards for machinery which are not adopted because their adoption would diminish the manufacturer's profits. We Americans have been slow, dishonorably slow, in taking measures for the protection of our workmen.
>
> Our worst foes are ignorance, poverty, and the unconscious cruelty of our commercial society. These are the causes of blindness; these are the enemies which destroy the sight of children and workmen and undermine the health of mankind. So long as these enemies remain unvanquished, so long will there be blind and crippled men and women. To study the diseases and accidents which cause loss of sight, and to learn how the surgeon can prevent or alleviate them, is not enough. We should strive to put an end to the conditions which produce the diseases and accidents.

Dr. F. Park Lewis of Buffalo reviewed the more common causes of blindness, the familiar cases of *ophthalmia neonatorum* and inherited blindness. He showed, too, how the danger of sightlessness is creeping into the poorly lighted school room and how badly printed school books and, "more than all, too long and persistent demands upon the adolescent eye for neat work" are making defective eyes. Badly lighted workshops are also sources of frequent blinding accidents, as well as causes of poor work. Dr. Lewis quoted the editor of the *Illuminating Engineer* to the effect that the loss of three minutes' time on the part of a workman because of im-

perfect lighting in a factory would cost more than adequate lighting for that man for the entire day; while an uncertain light not only produces lowered efficiency —injures the eyes of the man—but may result in an accident, the cost of which may be many thousands of dollars. Good illuminating is a paying investment to every employer of labor, he said.

INNOVATIONS IN THE PITTSBURGH BUDGET

For the first time a step—it might more properly be termed half a step—has been ventured in Pittsburgh to take the taxpayers into the confidence of the city administration regarding the distribution of the annual appropriations of over $13,500,000. On February 2 representatives of the Budget Conference and citizens generally were invited to meet the finance committee of Councils. The net result of the civic recommendations was a request for an increase of $8,000,

Mayor Magee had his directors make public their estimates for the ensuing year in December, following requests from the Budget Conference and citizens' petitions. Heretofore the Pittsburgh custom has been to hurl a mass of figures at Councils in February, at the last minute permissible by law, and follow the onslaught with pressure on behalf of the "poor firemen and policemen" whose salaries were held up. A deliberate and detailed study of the budget was thus impossible, and sessions of the finance committee have been known at which appropriations approximated a million dollars a minute.

During the past fifteen months a fight has been waged in behalf of the theory that taxpayers have a right to know how their money is to be spent. Inaugurated by a Chamber of Commerce committee, the effort to secure proper publicity has been carried on by the Budget Conference organized under the auspices of the Allied Boards of Trade. An opening wedge has been driven and future hopes focus on a budget exhibit. In view of the inertia which has had to be dispelled, the actual accomplishment of this year's agitation is far from a negligible factor; future hopes focus on a budget exhibit.

It would seem that one of the next steps to be taken by the conference is to improve the city's methods of keeping records and the form of budget estimates, so that, having the proposed appropriations, it may be in position to sanction or disapprove with an all-round knowledge of the values to be considered. Because of these limitations, the budget conference was forced to confine its recommendations to the Department of Charities and Correction. It suggested the employment of an expert alienist and five more attendants in the insane department, so that modern methods might supersede the present strap and straight-jacket treatment.

AN EXPERIMENT WORTH REPEATING

The dance held in Public School No. 40, on the evening of January 20, which was attended by some 300 young people and a score or so of parents and teachers, was the first thing of its kind in New York. A short program of music and speechmaking preceded the dance, which lasted until 11 o'clock. Several members of the local school board were present, and they, as well as many mothers and teachers, took part in the dancing. While conducted ostensibly by a committee of the "junior alumni" for the benefit of their members and their girl friends, the dance was actually promoted and supported by the local Home and School Association with the active co-operation of Principal Joseph K. Van Denburg and his teachers. According to the regulations of the Board of Education assembly rooms may be used only until 10 o'clock, but in this instance an additional hour was granted.

Dancing has been a part of other social occasions held in New York schoolhouses by teachers, high school classes, and recreation center staffs, but the affair at "Forty" is said to have been the first out and out grammar school dance ever held in New York. Its marked success and the amount of inexpensive, whole-

some recreation that is possible under such circumstances lead to the hope that neighborhood dances may become a custom in New York school buildings.

RECALL OF THE SEATTLE MAYOR

The recall had its first thorough test in a city of considerable size when the voters of Seattle put out of office Mayor Hiram G. Gill, who had served less than the first year of the term for which he was elected last spring, and put in his place George W. Dilling. The most noteworthy previous use of the recall in a large city was by Los Angeles, where former Mayor Harper gave way to Mayor Alexander, but Mayor Harper resigned as soon as the machinery of the recall had been set in motion. In Seattle Mayor Gill fought to the last ditch and did not acknowledge defeat until the vote counted him out.

Mayor Dilling was elected on February 7 by a vote of 31,900 to 25,680 for former Mayor Gill and 4,580 for the socialist candidate. It was acknowledged on all sides that the votes by women—their first in Seattle—was a large factor in the overthrow of Gill.

Details of the situation report that the election of Gill last spring was accomplished by large business interests desirous to veto proposed heavy regrading undertakings and city improvements sought by newly annexed suburbs, and by the "personal liberty" element. Seattle under his administration is said to have been a "wide open" town in the broadest sense of that term. There was much talk of a vice syndicate alleged to be making huge profits through the acquiescence of a police force manipulated by Chief Wappenstein, a Gill appointee. Last summer, while Mayor Gill was on a trip to Alaska, an "insurgent" councilman became president of the council by chance. He ordered the flagrant law violators to close up, discharged Chief Wappenstein, and thus gave Gill, on his hurried return home, a chance to show his hand. Gill at once reinstated Wappenstein. The council then ordered an investigation of the situation, especially of police graft. The recently organized Public Welfare League obtained an injunction order forbidding Gill to violate the state law and the city ordinances by establishing a "red-light" district.

Meanwhile recall petitions were filed. Through "a taxpayer", attorneys for Gill secured an injunction from a federal judge forbidding the council to pay the expenses of the recall election. On an appeal by the Public Welfare League this injunction was dissolved and the case of the "taxpayer" was dismissed. The recall campaign was then on in full force.

The candidate of the Public Welfare League was George W. Dilling, a well known real estate man, former member of the state Legislature, and a "progressive" republican who had supported Senator-elect Poindexter. The fight against Gill rallied most of the civic and religious organizations of Seattle. For example, one of the culminating meetings on the Sunday afternoon before election was held under the auspices of the Ministerial Association. The presiding officer was a representative of the Y. M. C. A. Speeches were made by prominent ministers and civic leaders.

The vote of women was very large, for one of the factors in securing the women suffrage state law was the indignation over the "wide open" policy of Mayor Gill in Seattle. The registration last spring, before women suffrage came in, was 42,000. At the recall election it was 71,000, and it is estimated that out of 23,000 women registered, no less than 20,000 voted, despite the fact that in many instances the polling places had been put where it was thought women would not be likely to go.

PLAN EUROPEAN TOUR FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

When Professor Bailey of Yale began to bring his students to the Bowery for sociological observation, the New York press ridiculed such "slumming expeditions." Of late, however, our most progressive magazines and schools have demonstrated the value of carefully surveying conditions and agencies, if we are to participate intelligently in social movements. Gradually the scope of investigation has been extended to other

countries, and we have had parties of European experts studying our systems of prison administration and American commissions studying foreign methods of municipal control. In other fields vacation travel has been organized into a sort of international university extension movement to the extent that every summer groups of students direct their course toward the historic and artistic centers of the Old World. Now comes in turn the announcement of a European tour for social workers.

H. W. Dunning and Company of Boston have arranged a summer pilgrimage to the most notable centers of philanthropic, industrial, and civic advance in England and on the continent. The itinerary includes visits to children's homes, London settlements, and English garden cities; the study of Belgian co-operative concerns, the Bielefeld refuges, and the social museums of Berlin; investigation of Bavarian labor bureaus, Swiss industrial colonies, and Parisian crêches. Informal conferences with the directors of progressive agencies abroad are included in the plan. The party will be conducted by Howard B. Woolston, professor of sociology in the College of the City of New York, formerly headworker of Goodrich House, Cleveland.

EDITORIAL GRIST

WASHINGTON'S DAY FOR CITIZENSHIP

GRAHAM TAYLOR

There can be no moral and national tragedy greater than to lower the aspirations and lessen the love of liberty by which most of our immigrants are moved to make the struggle and sacrifice of their lives to reach the land of Washington and Lincoln. In sorry contrast with their proud hope and high endeavor are the shameful and painful disclosures of the wholesale barter of the American birthright of native-born citizens in Adams county, O.; in the Danville congressional district in Illinois, and in the Legislature of Lincoln's state. This collapse of citizenship at once overshadows and intensifies the otherwise portentous problem of distributing and assimilating the foreign elements of our population.

The observance of Washington's birthday as a civic holiday in Chicago this year afforded a refreshing and encouraging outlook, in turning toward which our whole country may find relief and hope. The Union League Club, which in Chicago as elsewhere owes its origin to a patriotic purpose, has reinforced its hitherto valuable service to this end by gaining the co-operation of practically all the foreign elements of the population. For over thirty years the club has given its members and friends the privilege of hearing on that day the foremost statesmen, including nearly all the presidents of the United States. For several years it has furnished the high school pupils and teachers a similar opportunity. This year a great mass meeting for people of foreign birth and parentage was arranged by the club, with the enthusiastic and united co-operation of the presidents of all the great national societies, and representative citizens and editors of foreign-speaking peoples. The 4,000 seats of the First Regiment Armory were filled by holders of admission tickets restricted to those within the specific province of the meeting.

This great opportunity to initiate a series of similar patriotic occasions was improved to the utmost by Theodore Roosevelt and Jane Addams. At the heart of every immigrant colony, in school buildings, recreation centers, church halls, settlement houses and other headquarters, illustrated lectures on American history and citizenship will be systematically and consecutively given by representatives of the various nationalities in their respective languages. Their societies will sing the patriotic songs of the old countries and the new.

Such co-operation on equal terms will not only develop the patriotism of those who have adopted this country as their own, but will add significance to the citizenship of those who cannot tell why they were born here and who therefore sometimes lose the sense of what it means to be an American. It will also reimpress the vital importance of the part which the public schools and libraries,

hensive a view of the case as the justices at sessions, weeks or months later. He is, too, in a far better position to deal effectively with the delinquent. These twenty-four steady currents all flow into one reservoir and when the two valves are periodically opened we see the inevitable rush of the high pressure. Here we find always an interminable calendar, haste to get through with it somehow, impatience, and lack of all dignity. It is no exaggeration to say that the sessions are "special" only in this, that nowhere else can such hurly-burly adjudication be seen.

The Page law authorized city magistrates to sit as trial judges, and not as examining magistrates, in cases of cruelty to animals, motor vehicle violations, and violations of the sanitary code. But why these misdemeanors only? Why were the owners of automobiles especially selected to enjoy the blessings of a speedy trial and other violators condemned to the old delay and its attendant expense? Were the societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals so weary of having their agents lose day after day in that court, that they saw economy in the increase of magisterial powers? Is the interest of the Department of Health, in the loss of time of its sanitary inspectors, of greater importance than that of other complainants in their loss? The magistrate can dispose of all misdemeanants as satisfactorily as do the justices at the second court. He can do it, and in the city of Brooklyn for many years did do it, with a celerity which the second court can never hope to attain. His exercise of such power, under the eye of the chief magistrate and the district attorney, is less liable to abuse than the present system. Surely his power now to discharge is as mighty as the power to convict and sentence. If he is fit and competent to do the one, he is fit and competent to do the other.

Instead of so rational a procedure we have the spectacle of counsel on both sides examining and cross-examining witnesses, making arguments and motions, only to end, if the prisoner be not freed, in the direction to do it all over again before another tribunal—a tribunal which in Brooklyn sits only three times weekly, and in the boroughs of Queens and Richmond but once a week. Until the day comes when the court returns, if he can find no bondsman, the accused spends his time in jail. In 1909 there were 6,570 such. If he does find a surety he must wait weeks, frequently months, until his case is called, set for trial, and finally tried.

If the hardships, the expense, the loss of time, and the vexations involved in this scheme of double trial, to the tens of thousands of complainants, defendants, witnesses, and sureties are considered, its injustice and absurdity must be perceived. It must be apparent that it would not be tolerated at all were it not for the fact that certain personal interests would suffer were it changed.

It should not be necessary to adduce further argument, since a distinguished member of that court has publicly admitted the existence of the conditions portrayed. In an address on the subject of Children's Courts before the department of law of the Brooklyn Institute, Robert J. Wilkin, justice of the Court of Special Sessions, stated that rather than cause the arrest of a man who had urged his twelve-year-old son on to beat and kick a girl, while he, the father, stood by, the speaker had convicted the boy and sentenced him to pay a fine, knowing that he would thus reach the real wrongdoer. This proceeding of convicting the child to punish the parent, he said, seemed better to him than to apply to a magistrate and thereafter wait two or three months for Special Sessions to inflict a punishment.

Surely an evil system can work only evil when, through the instrumentality of such an undoubted friend of childhood, the sin of the father must thus be visited upon the child.

With such a notable example of the efficient administration of justice, cheap and quick, which is furnished by the recently constituted Municipal Court of Chicago, which the Page Commission might have studied, it gave us back the ancient system—with patches. This antiquated, justice-retarding device of Special Sessions was restored and refurbished.

If it were abolished, if the Children's Court were established as a separate institution, and if original jurisdiction in the few special proceedings which now must be brought there were vested in the Court of Domestic Relations to which it properly belongs, these vexations would end at once; justice would be administered expeditiously; our inferior courts would rise in repute; our probation laws could be administered with thoroughness on a large scale—and there would be saved of the people's substance annually considerably more than two hundred thousand dollars. This is too large a sum of money to waste. It would build annually a beautiful court house, which could accommodate a municipal court and a magistrates' court, a building in an open space which would be a city ornament. It might be applied in various other ways to do work of beneficent public service if it were not being employed in doing a public harm.

Such a proposal would, of course, meet with bitter opposition. It would be fought hand, tooth, and nail, by those who have lucrative positions to conserve. We should hear much about the charter of our liberties and the sacred right of trial by jury. Trial by three justices, however, is not a trial by "twelve good men and true"; neither is one justice, trying and sentencing for felonies under the name of juvenile delinquency, in the strictest accord with our traditional law, whatever other conclusive argument may be advanced in its behalf. But the trial by indictment would lie as close at hand in the magistrates' court as it does at Special Sessions, and its exercise, in all probability, would be as infrequent there as it is here.

Reformers are altogether too much given to the advocacy of measures which involve new functionaries, new salaries, new expense. Here is an opportunity to redress a real grievance, improve in a vital way our governmental machinery, and with the same stroke cut off a huge outlay. The costliness of this institu-

tion is the main reason for its being. It furnishes places, honors, and pay, but nothing else which other existing agencies could not supply much more effectively and in a small fraction of the time.

If the civic bodies of New York will cause the introduction of a bill with such purposes in view and unitedly demand its enactment they may bring to an end conditions discreditable and humiliating in the extreme. It is with such a measure that the Sullivan Senate bill must be met. The intent to divest the mayor of the power of appointment and thrust it into the hands of party bosses should not only be thwarted, but in the reaction we ought to rid ourselves for all time of the unnecessary and indefensible Court of Special Sessions.

FRED. C. GROSS.

Brooklyn.

AN EXHIBIT OF HUMAN VALUES

TO THE EDITOR:

Interesting and instructive as the Budget Exhibition was—and manifestly it is an approved means of acquainting the people of New York of the manner in which public business is conducted—it prompts the suggestion that now would be the time for the different charitable organizations of the city to prepare to hold next year an exhibition of the way in which private business is conducted, and the public results.

For example, this year's exhibit placed conspicuously before the public the short measures and crooked scales whereby the housewife is defrauded of a pennyworth of beans or a nickel's or a dime's worth of meat. This is well and a good beginning. Next year let us show how merchant and manufacturer defraud society of the worth and value of a human being. We will not mention a human soul. Let us show, as we can show by records too sad and too many, that the merchants and manufacturers thrive not only at the customer's expense, but also at their employes' expense, and always at society's expense. The undervaluation of incoming humanity is a crime; it is a common means to commercial success.

Let us exhibit a photograph of a young woman, whose value the comptroller's exhibit showed is $1,500 as a contributing factor to the prosperity of the city. That is her cash value to the city as one of its inhabitants. She is the product of social effort and of vast expense of this age and of ages past. She belongs to society.

What is her value to her employer? We need not repeat that he does not pay her wages on which she may exist respectably. He pays the market price. But we should show by facts and figures how long she can work before her vitality is exhausted, her condition then, and how she is considered in the machinery of merchandizing.

Tired, half-fed girls, nervously wrecked by miserable, disgraceful wages, yet worth to the city $1,500 according to its finance department, are physically, mentally, and morally destroyed without effective protest. The bargains which are not bargains blind the eyes of the public to its own injury.

Nor can the philanthropic or charitably-minded find in the welfare work of great concerns any adequate compensation to the individual, nor to society for the havoc wrought by the present code of morality and practice of business men—for business men who pride themselves on their honor with one another realize that their success is reaped at the expense of society. They say society is to blame. So it is; and an exhibition of wage scales, hours worked, duration of years' employment, savings of employes, health and character of employes, and final condition of ex-employes, with a careful statement of trade deceptions practiced, would go far toward putting society right.

A minimum wage law and better hygienic conditions for employes are factors of much greater importance than the false-bottomed measures or the crooked scales. Photographs of filthy and horrible conditions did much to make the work of the tenement house commission possible. People did not know. Effective pictures of exploited girlhood and boyhood and manhood, of mocking pay envelopes, of impossible morality and defrauded society are also as available.

A constant stream of fresh, hopeful boys and girls are fed into this thing we call merchandising; that which comes out enfeebles, impoverishes, and poisons the city on which the merchant and the manufacturer feed.

The chief channel through which betterment may come lies in the activities of educational and charitable institutions and labor organizations.

Nor do we doubt that the merchants themselves would be the first to welcome an enforced curtailment of their advertising expenses, and the addition of sums so saved to the salaries of their employes, plus an enforced increase in wages throughout all classes in the state, such as a minimum wage law would bring.

Were it not for the incoming crude labor, our manufacturers and merchants before now would have recognized in practice with their employes the principle that "good business means a profit to both", and exploitation would be as fatal to business success as deception in weights and measures. But since unrestricted immigration has led to unrestricted exploitation, always at society's expense, an ill only to be cured by social action through education and legislation, and while the public mind is keenly alive to municipal waste of money and to measures of public economy, it follows that now is the psychological time for organized and directive relief bodies to begin their budget exhibit, truthfully and carefully depicting the waste in human lives and the vast sums vainly spent by them to ameliorate the results of unrestricted greed.

Let it be done. It is a condition upon which concerted action of all relief agencies through

pictorial and graphic representation can do the greatest social service. It is as pertinent to know at what cost a man succeeds in business as in politics.

The charitable organizations know the cost. Let them make public the facts and find in public sentiment an efficient ally to their work of redemption and constructive reform.

R. C. SANGER.

Franklin, N. H.

THE LIFE OF THE POOR

TO THE EDITOR:

I was glad to read a little book review in your paper, Just Folks. I may not be able to see the book, but if it will spread the idea that the poor are not a "class", but look at life with much the same interest as the rest of us, it will help to broaden the ideas of many people. The poor are not all sorrowful, they have their good times. Even the Wiggses" went to the theater. A recent letter from Miss Ovington, in the *Evening Post,* leads one to think that the poor all put on long faces when they see her coming. Things are better. Read about the "Five Points" in 1858 and then go through the East Side; or look at a "fresh-air party", and you will seek in vain for the old-time filth, rags, or squalor. Think of those times: no water but yard hydrants, no sanitary plumbing, no parks or playgrounds, not even a fire-escape! Cholera or smallpox epidemics (visitations of God) were expected as regularly as years of drouth.

New York is not perfect; nor are our ideals to be lowered, but to be continually raised. But there is no use in denying the wonderful betterment. It is not to pick up gold in the streets that a million immigrants throng to our shores every year. It is for work, at wages that seem fabulous to the dwellers in Posen, Lodz, or Kiev, or even to those in Naples and Torre del Greco. You have given in your Buffalo Survey a limit of $400 for a living wage for a Polish family and speak of living on less as an impossibility. You do not realize that to these people one-half of that sum represents the possibility of existence, and more than that, in their Polish homes. While here they have the free school, the free bath, the parks, and above all, what means the most to them, the free air, liberty, opportunity, all that to their countless compatriots at home spells "America"!

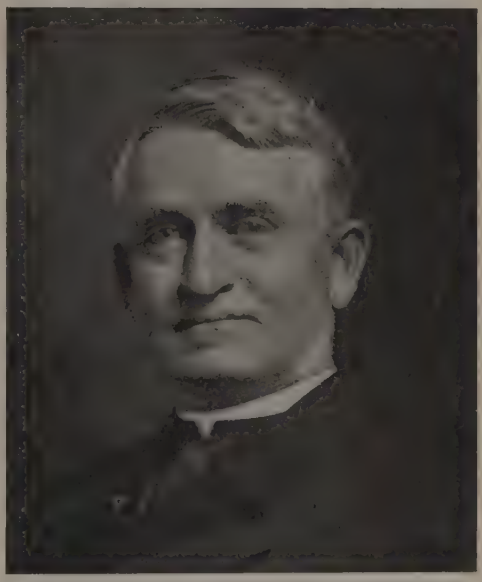
JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

International Hygiene Exhibit.—An international hygiene exhibit is to be held in Dresden from May to October. It will cover departments on history, physiology, athletics, and hygienic apparatus. The object will be to present to physicians, teachers, engineers, public officials, and all interested in such topics, a survey of all that has been accomplished in the field of hygiene, and to impart instruction to the general public in the principles of the science.

The secretary is Dr. Steinbach, Zwickauer Strasse 35, Dresden, Germany.

THE TREND OF THINGS



FRANCIS A. FOY.
1857-1910.

The *New Jersey Review of Charities and Correction* has appeared again after the lapse of a year, with the promise of more regularity in future. It has a fine portrait of the late Father Foy, whose death was a genuine loss to the cause of reform in New Jersey. The next State Conference of Charities and Correction in New Jersey will be held in Princeton, April 2, 3, 4. On Monday, the third, the subject will be the Delinquent Woman, with addresses by Mrs. Joseph Allen, president of the board of managers of the New York State Training School for Girls at Hudson, N. Y., and Katharine B. Davis, superintendent of the Woman's Reformatory at Bedford.

* * *

Many a good story lies tucked away in the records of the charity offices. The last report of the Joint Application Bureau in New York has a grist of them. There was the travel-worn young man who asked for assistance—in selling a large manuscript of poetry which he had written and brought all the way to New York from his home in Florida. A woman presented a letter of introduction delicately hinting that "anything you can do for this old lady will prolong her life and suffering and will be greatly appreciated by H—— F——." A drunkard who was cured in an institution to which the bureau sent him was most grateful because "it is the first time in years I have been able to eat a hearty breakfast. Before this it consisted of whiskey and

the shakes." The bureau wrote for transportation home for a man who had been robbed of his watch and all his money while "seeing Coney Island." The money was forthcoming, with a tart letter from his daughter who hoped "this will learn you a lesson." A newly-wedded couple asked that the groom's father be called upon for return fare for the honeymoon. The reply by telegram was prompt and highly expressive in its ten words: "I will not send you money. Try your wife. Sorry."

There were others of a most curious nature, like the old man whose sole occupation was building fires for Jews on Saturday; the woman who wanted transportation for herself and her two daughters to Alaska; and the man who wanted help in saving part of the money spent on his own funeral. He had been taken from Bellevue to City Hospital without notice to his family. They had identified a body in the morgue as his and held a $200 funeral. The day after he returned to find them in mourning, and, he said, "it was the greatest disappointment of his life to have all of that money wasted."

These, of course, are the exceptional cases, for the Joint Application Bureau ministers year in and year out, seven days in the week, from nine in the morning until midnight, to more than 38,000 people in twelve months, "from the half-nourished infant in his mother's arms to the homeless man of eighty asking for work; from the widow of sixteen with twin babies to the entire family turned out on the street for non-payment of rent; from the young girl deserted by her lover to the man who wants to be sent back to the wife he left while he was under the influence of drink; from the man just out of the hospital to the woman seeking a fighting chance against tuberculosis—these are all met and in some way dealt with."

* * *

The National Prisoners' Aid Association, which was organized during the last annual meeting of the American Prison Association, has begun the publication of a monthly *Review* as a means of keeping its members, who are the members of the thirty constituent societies, closely in touch with the details of work, legislation, and personal movements among its members. The first issue, dated January, shows the skilled hand of O. F. Lewis, secretary of the New York Prison Association, who is the editor. The *Review*, the latest addition to the technical journals for the various special groups in the social field, is planned especially for prison officials. Membership in the association is to include the *Review*, which will be sent to others for one dollar a year. It is published at 135 East 15th street.

* * *

As an echo of a Russian massacre of fourteen years ago, the *American Hebrew* tells the story of a Jewish Enoch Arden. With one daughter, he escaped and finally found his way to Hamilton, Ont. Unknown to him, his wife, a second daughter, and an infant son also escaped, finally reaching Toledo where, in the course of time, under the impression that she was a widow, the wife married again. The husband sought in every way to find traces of her and never married. His daughter finally located her in Toledo. The infant had developed into an unruly boy and had been placed in the Miami Children's Home. The father, now a prosperous man, did not seek to disturb the relations of the wife with her second husband, by whom she had borne children, but took this boy to his own home in Canada.

* * *

A useful handbook for those interested in industrial education is Bulletin No. 12 of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, New York. This is a compilation of legislation on this subject in the United States. Parts I, III and IV analyze state legislation on Industrial Education in the Public Schools, on Manual Training, on Industrial and Trade Education Systems, and Part II analyzes the trend of such legislation, gives comparative tables of the work of the six state commissions on Industrial Education created since 1908, and gives the Ohio law relating to compulsory part time school work. The pamphlet may be obtained free from the headquarters of the league 20 West Forty-fourth street, New York city.

* * *

In a volume of verse entitled The Iron Muse, to which THE SURVEY has already given critical attention, a number of the poems deal with social conditions. The Cotton Mill makes a plea for the children whose lives are stunted by their work, and The Slum bears testimony to the art, aspiration, and even salvation which shall come for the race and for the nation out of the lives oppressed by poverty. One entitled The Sweatshop Children tells again the old story that the ills of those who are most miserably treated extend to all of us. We are enjoined to give the unfit a chance to grow, since their irresponsibility is caused in part by our negligence. In these and other poems there is not only an appeal to the responsibilities of society, but also to the courage of the individual in the ranks of the unfortunate or down-and-out. A note of aspiration and idealism among workers is struck in several poems, especially The Clock in The Air, whose chimes high on Manhattan's tallest tower "teach the toilers how to dream."

* * *

Recent issues of the *Technical World Magazine* take up vigorously the struggle for the protection of the worker from overwork and accident. In the November number P. Harvey Middleton writes of Seven-Day Slaves of Steel, estimates the number employed at Sunday work in all trades—over 300,000 for New York alone—and describes the agitation in New York state and among the United States postal employes for one day of rest in seven. The December number contains Charles Frederick Carter's comparison of

the figures for boiler explosions in this country with those of England and Germany, showing our record to be four times that of England and many times that of Germany. Government inspection with heavy fines for failure to comply with the inspector's recommendations is the remedy, but the interests to which economy is more important than the saving of 398 lives—one year's record in America—last year defeated the persistent efforts of the boilermen's union to get federal inspection of locomotive boilers as an entering wedge toward inspection of all boilers.

* * *

The newly appointed Industrial Committee of the General Conference of Congregational Churches of Connecticut, of which the Rev. Ernest L. Wismer is secretary, at the annual meeting of the conference held at Putnam a few weeks ago, recommended that the church recognize the improvement of social conditions as a part of its legitimate work, and while reserving Sunday morning for purely religious exercises devote Sunday evenings to problems of human society, and one week night meeting to the organization of social service work among parishioners. The committee held further that it should be a part of the church's legitimate function to mediate in industrial disputes, and to give active support to legislative measures aimed at improving social conditions.

* * *

The band of pioneers who, with true '49 spirit, are blazing the way for model housing conditions in Los Angeles, have issued their fourth annual report. The pictured conditions tempt one to read the interesting explanatory text.

Special attention has been given to the problem of "house courts." They are one-room shacks built of dry goods boxes, gunny sacks and tin cans, unsanitary and unhygienic, giving only a slight protection against the weather. The type might be expected occasionally in a climate like that of California, but to find 250 of them, containing from three to sixty dwellings each, and scattered over all parts of the city, surprised even the Housing Commission. In making records of these houses, educational work has been carried on with landlords and tenants, and the material obtained will in turn educate the people of Los Angeles to appreciate the dangers of housing without supervision.

To replace this condition, the commission pictures its ideal of individual houses, built of non-combustible material, with a maximum density of twenty cottages to the acre.

* * *

A welcome newcomer in the circle of periodicals devoted to various phases of social progress is *Life and Labor*, the first issue of which appeared at the beginning of this year. It is a monthly magazine published by the National Women's Trade Union League, intended to serve as a news medium for all who are directly interested in this growing organization, and—of wider influence—to interpret the efforts and hopes of organized working women to all whose sympathy and support should be enlisted in the movement to enable the toilers to secure a larger share of life.

WHEN WORK WAS PLEASURE.

Frontispiece contributed by Charlotte O. Schetter, to *Life and Labor*, the new woman's Trade Union League Magazine.

The main feature of the first issue is an article descriptive of the garment workers' strike recently settled in Chicago. The causes of this strike, its remarkable spirit of mutual loyalty around which 50,000 strikers have rallied, the methods of its conduct—including the picketing, successful commissary stations, and the co-operation extended by the religious and civic organizations, and the history of the negotiations toward agreement are all outlined. Photographs portray typical scenes during the strike.

A neighborly interest in the new magazine is shown by the editor of the *Public*, Louis F. Post, who contributes an article on Labor and the Law in which he traces the development of the use of the injunction, maintaining that privilege and power have used it to thwart the advancing masses.

Two stories appear, one by James Oppenheim entitled A Very Naughty Boy, and the other by Samuel McChord Crothers on Christmas and the Spirit of Democracy, which is reprinted from one of his books and brings Scrooge up-to-date with modern philanthropy.

A picture, When Work Was Pleasure, was specially drawn by Charlotte O. Schetter to

serve as a frontispiece. It is reproduced herewith. The February issue contains among other things an account of the end of the garment strike, an article on the educational value of the Woman's Trade Union by one of the lecturers for the league, Frances Squire Potter; and an interesting account of the work and personality of Frances A. Kellor, chief investigator of the Bureau of Industries and Immigration.

The office of the publication is at 79 Dearborn street, Chicago and the subscription price is one dollar a year.

* * *

That city officials should be looked upon as trustees of the property and interests of the public is often mentioned as an ideal by which to measure and judge the actions of our municipal overlords. The Bureau of Municipal Research has published an opinion by William J. Curtis, which says that in New York the city officials are not only in fact actual trustees, but that any taxpayer may bring suit for recovery in case the trust is violated.

For nearly fifty years the New York charter has had a section declaring that the Board of Aldermen and all officers and employes are trustees of the property, funds, and effects of the city, and that any resident taxpayer is a *cestui que* trust with all the rights for any co-trustee or *cestui que* trust. Oddly enough there are very few decisions which attempt to interpret this law. The more important of these, of which the most recent is Hearst *vs.* McClellan, tend to hold that city officials can only be restrained from a pending "waste" and "injury" when wrongful or dishonest action can be proved. There are minority opinions to the contrary, and some on similar statutes in New York which lead Mr. Curtis to believe that if a clear case is carefully presented and carried to the Court of Appeals, it will be decided that city officials can be held accountable even if fraud cannot be proved. The act, apparently intended to prevent waste, should be interpreted in the way that gives the public the fullest protection. Mr. Curtis feels that the courts have been too reluctant to adopt this view because of the power of the people to control the selection of proper officials. In some cases also the motives of the person appealing for equitable relief have not been beyond question.

It is probable that the courts would never apply this doctrine to the Board of Aldermen, for their whole policy is to allow full legislative discretion, but if other city officials could in fact be held to the position of trustees for the public, with personal financial liability for breach even in the absence of proved fraud, a great advance would be made. The brief half intimates that the Bureau of Municipal Research is contemplating a test case to establish this doctrine.

* * *

Through a gift from some prominent laymen, the National Municipal League has sent copies of Dean Hodges's leaflet, The Value of a Vote, to the clergy of the Episcopal Church in America.

JOTTINGS

Boston Children's Aid Society.—Carrington Howard, agent of the Boston Children's Aid Society, has been appointed secretary of the Boston Children's Friend Society to succeed Seymour H. Stone, who recently became secretary of the Boston Society for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis. Mr. Howard was graduated from Yale in 1906. After graduation he became secretary of the Christian Association at Lehigh University, and from 1908 to the summer of 1909 he was field secretary of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society. From the Charity Organization Society he went to the Fresh Air Mission in Buffalo. In the fall of 1909 he became agent of the Boston Children's Aid Society.

Chicago Jewish Aid Society.—The recent appointment of Miriam Kalisky as superintendent of the Jewish Aid Society of Chicago recognizes her efficient work since she became connected with it in 1900. Edward Rubovits was superintendent, and following him, George Zepin. When Mr. Zepin resigned in August, 1908, on account of ill health, Miss Kalisky became acting superintendent. During the past year the relief office was moved to the west side so that the people for whose benefit the organiation exists—most of whom live in that section of the city—have been aided more promptly and in many instances more fairly than ever before.

During the last fiscal year the relief department spent $78.000, as compared with $62,000 in the preceding year. A new dispensary has been built by Mrs. Emanuel Mandel in memory of her husband. The old dispensary building now serves as an administrative building, housing not only the relief office but also the office of the bureau of personal service.

Co-operation with many organizations, such as the Michael Reese Hospital, the Woman's Loan Association and the Labor Bureau, has been most effective. Especially interesting has been the work of the ladies of the Jocannah Lodge, who visit the various schools in the congested district and report all children poorly fed and poorly clad. The society investigates the home conditions and reports back its conclusions and suggestions, which in almost every instance are accepted and acted upon favorably by the ladies of the lodge.

Three Meetings for the Blind.—Besides the Annual Convention of the American Association of Workers for the Blind, no less than two international conferences to consider the welfare of the blind are announced for this year. The fifth International Congress for Ameliorating the Lot of the Blind was held at Cairo, Egypt, February 20-25, and the third Triennial International Conference on the Blind will be held at Exeter, England, July 3-7. The secretary of the fifth international is Dr. Eloni Pasha, Egyptian University, Cairo. The Conference of American Workers for the Blind will be held at the School for the Blind, Overbrook, Pa., June 20-23.

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES

INTERNATIONAL (NEW).

Second International Congress on the Welfare of the Child, under the auspices of the National Congress of Mothers, April 25-May 2. Washington. Secretary, Mrs. Arthur A. Burney, 806 Loan and Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

International Hygiene Exhibit, May-October. Dresden, Germany. Secretary, Dr. Steinbach, Zwickauer Strasse 35, Dresden, Germany.

Third Triennial International Conference on the Blind, July 3-7. Exeter, England. Corresponding officer, Henry J. Wilson, 53 Victoria street, Westminster, London S. W., England.

INTERNATIONAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

International Congress on Tuberculosis. September 24-30. Rome, Italy. Secretary-general, Professor Ascoli, Via Lucina, Rome, Italy.

International Association for Labor Legislation, September, 1912. Zurich, Switzerland. Secretary, Stephen Bauer, Basle, Switzerland.

International Prison Congress (Quinquennial). London, 1915. Secretary, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

NATIONAL (NEW).

Convention of the American Association of Workers for the Blind, June 20-23. Overbrook, Pa. Secretary, Charles F. F. Campbell, 5733 Forbes street, Pittsburgh, Pa.

NATIONAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

National Child Labor Committee, March 9-12. Birmingham, Ala. Corresponding officer, Owen R. Lovejoy, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

National Association for the Study and Education of Exceptional Children, March or April. New York city. Corresponding officer, Waldemar Groszmann, Plainfield, N. J.

American Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Second Thursday in April. New York, N. Y. Corresponding officer, James Pedersen, M.D., 29 West Forty-second street, New York city.

General Federation of Women's Clubs, Council Meeting, April. Memphis, Tenn. Convention of the Federation, June, 1912. San Francisco, Cal. Corresponding secretary, Mrs. Frank Shiek, Wheatland, Wyo.

Convention of the Young Women's Christian Association of America, April 19-27. Indianapolis, Ind. Secretary, Lois J. Viele, 125 East Twenty-seventh street, New York city.

American Federation of Arts, May. Washington, D. C. Secretary, Leila Mechlin, 1741 New York avenue, Washington, D. C.

National Peace Congress, May 3-5. Baltimore, Md. Secretary, Theodore Marburg, 12 Mt. Vernon Place West, Baltimore, Md.

National Conference on City Planning, May 15-17. Philadelphia, Pa. Secretary, Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, June 7-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Alexander Johnson, Ft. Wayne, Ind.

National Probation Officers' Association, June 5-14. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Roger N. Baldwin, 903 Security Building, St. Louis, Mo.

National Women's Trade Union League, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer, Mrs. D. W. Kneffer, 5273 McPherson avenue, St. Louis, Mo.

National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, J. T. Exnicios, 914 G street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Conference on the Education of Dependent, Backward, Truant and Delinquent Children, June. Boston, Mass. Secretary, Elmer L. Coffeen, Westboro, Mass.

National Conference of Poor Law Officials, June 7. Boston, Mass. President, Dr. Robert W. Hill, State Board of Charities, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

Conference of Neighborhood Workers, June. Boston, Mass. Corresponding officer, Albert Kennedy, South End House, 20 Union Park, Boston, Mass.

National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, June 21-22. Denver, Col. Executive secretary, Dr. Livingston Farrand, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

American Academy of Medicine, June 24-26, Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, Charles McIntire, M.D., 52 North Fourth street, Easton, Pa. Subject: Medical Sociology.

American Medical Association, June 27. Los Angeles, Cal. Secretary, George H. Simmons, M. D., 535 Dearborn avenue, Chicago, Ill.

National Education Association of the United States, July. San Francisco, Cal. Secretary, Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.

National Fraternal Congress, August 21. Mackinac Island, Mich. Secretary, C. A. Gower, Lansing, Mich.

American Society of Municipal Improvements, September 26-29. Grand Rapids, Mich. Secretary, A. Prescott Folwell, 239 West Thirty-ninth street, New York city.

American Hospital Association, September 19-22. New York city. Secretary, J. N. E. Brown, M.D., Toronto General Hospital, Can.

American Prison Association, September. Omaha, Neb. Secretary, Joseph P. Byers, 13 Central avenue, Newark, N. J.

American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, October 10-13. Milwaukee, Wis. Secretary, Cornelius H. Patten, 13 Beacon street, Boston, Mass.

National Conference of Catholic Charities, September, 1912. Washington, D. C. Secretary, William J. Kerby, D.D., Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

STATE AND LOCAL (PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED).

Massachusetts Civic Conference, March, 1-2. Boston, Mass. Secretary, E. T. Hartman, 3 Joy street, Boston, Mass.

Connecticut Conference of Charities and Correction, April. New Haven, Conn. Secretary, Charles P. Kellopp, Waterbury, Conn.

New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, April 2-4. Princeton, N. J. Secretary, J. Byron Deacon, 1701 Chestnut street, Philadelphia, Pa.

Kansas Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Topeka, Kas. Secretary, J. L. Everhardy, Leavenworth, Kas.

Arizona Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, May. Bisbee, Ariz. Secretary, John W. Flinn, Prescott, Ariz.

Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction, May 8-12. Hamilton, Ont. Secretary, F. M. Nicholson, Parliament Buildings, Toronto, Ont.

New York City Conference of Charities and Correction, May 9-11. New York city. Secretary, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth avenue, New York city.

New England Conference on Street Cleaning, June. Springfield, Mass. Corresponding officer, Carol Aronovici, 55 Eddy street, Providence, R. I.

Northern Baptist Convention, June 13. Philadelphia, Pa. President, Emory W. Hunt, Denison University, Granville, O.

New York State County Superintendents of the Poor, June 20-23. Thousand Island Park, N. Y. Secretary, C. E. Weisz, 36 Bay Twentieth street, Bath Beach, N. Y.

Sagamore Sociological Conference, June 27-29. Sagamore Beach, Mass. President, George W. Coleman, 348 Congress street, Boston, Mass.

Stony Brook Assembly, August. Stony Brook, L. I. Director, J. W. Jenks, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

Pennsylvania Association of Directors of the Poor and Charities, October 10-12. Indiana, Pa. Secretary, L. C. Colborn, Somerset, Pa.

Ohio Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Toledo, Ohio. Secretary H. H. Shirer, 805 Harrison Building, 21 South High street, Columbus, Ohio.

Maryland Conference of Charities and Correction, November, Baltimore, Md. General secretary, H. Wirt Steele, 15 East Pleasant Place, Baltimore, Md.

Minnesota Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Duluth, Minn. Secretary, Eugene T. Lies, Associated Charities, Court House, Minneapolis, Minn.

South Carolina Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Columbia, S. C. President, A. T. Jamison, Connie Maxwell Orphanage, Greenwood, S. C.

Kentucky Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Lexington or Covington. Corresponding secretary, Linda Neville, 610 Main street, Lexington, Ky.

Missouri Conference of Charities and Correction, November. Kansas City, Mo. Secretary, W. T. Cross, State Board of Charities and Correction, Columbia, Mo.

New York Conference of Charities and Correction, November 14-16. Watertown, N. Y. Secretary, John A. Kingsbury, 105 East Twenty-second street, New York city.

Pennsylvania Conference of Charities and Correction, November 14-16. Pittsburgh, Pa. Secretary, Fred S. Hall, 1533 Real Estate Trust Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Conference of Probation Officers, November 14-16. Watertown, N. Y. Secretary, Arthur W. Towne, State Probation Commission, Albany, N. Y.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE RELIGIOUS BASIS OF SOCIAL WORK

An Englishman who is a keen and sympathetic student of American thought recently remarked that it seemed to him not unlikely that a prophet was again about to arise in our midst. All the conditions appeared to him favorable for a new crystallization of ideas, like that which occurred when the essays and lectures of Emerson dropped into the intellectual life of America and Europe. From some American community, he thought, rather than from any European nation, probably from the West rather than from New York or New England, might be expected to come this new word for a new time; and probably not the churches nor any conventional religious institution would have the honor of furnishing his pulpit; but rather he will represent some intellectual movement, and his appeal will be not to the emotions but to the sober convictions of men. "I wonder," said this Englishman, who is a practical politician, a university teacher, and a writer of successful books, and who was speaking in the privacy of his London apartment, "I wonder whether your friend Professor Patten may have the message for which our generation is waiting."

We do not know. Even if we had a "client", we would be mindful of Lowell's good-natured warning not to endanger his life by "trying to stretch him into a giant." We have made no secret, however, of the high estimate which we have placed on Professor Patten's contribution to the practical program of social work, in the New Basis of Civilization and in his other writings. He has now substantially increased this contribution by a discussion of the social basis of religion, from which we reproduce elsewhere copious and typical extracts. This book breathes a devout spirit, and its point of view is that of the orthodox Christian religion. Yet it is not a theological treatise, nor a text book in ethics. Judged from either of these standpoints it has no doubt defects of omission if not of commission. But to look for theological doctrine, or for new light on individual ethics, would be to misunderstand the book's purpose. What Professor Patten has done is to blend economics and natural theology into a message of hope, based upon the clear contrast between existing conditions and those more tolerable conditions which are here and now possible. His argument is that religion begins not with any intellectual belief, but with an emotional opposition to removable evils. Social misery in which sins have their roots is to be overcome by the isolation of its causes. Social activity is to evoke human sympathies and generate religious enthusiasm. Regeneration and the saving of social outcasts is the answer of religion to the fact of degeneration, and to the demand that those who are not fitted to survive unaided in the social struggle must go to the wall in the interests of culture and civilization. In a chapter in his earlier book on Heredity and Social Progress Professor Patten has expressed this thought even more clearly, that progress depends not on strengthening the strong, but on protecting the weak. Nature will care for progress if man will look out for reform. The grave danger is that the strong will exploit the weak, not that the weak will make undue demands upon the sources of strength. The appar-

ently weak may have quite as good a heredity as the strong, and may appear to be weak only because they are undifferentiated, only because they have not had an opportunity to develop their own peculiar strength. Into this conception of the relation between the strong and the weak in human society the religious conception fits like the other half of a hinge. They that are strong must bear the burdens of the weak, is, in modern economic language, to justify the flow of income from the strong to those who are weak because they are undeveloped or unprotected. This may take place through taxation, through foundations for social amelioration, or through the personal service of individuals. No strong man ever has weakened his character or limited his usefulness to society by such contributions. Social service, whether given as a citizen, as a philanthropist, or as a reformer, assuming a rational choice of appropriate means, is trebly blessed. It blesses him that gives and him that takes and the society of which both are a part. Social work and social progress are one in spirit and one in the choice of means to their common end.

The settlement worker whom Mrs. Simkhovitch quotes on another page in mild rebuke of Mr. Fosdick's distinction between religious work and "mere social work," came suddenly, under the need of answering her visitor, to the truth of the relation between them, saying, "We think all our work is religious."

Objectively considered some of what is done in the settlements might fail to establish a religious character, just as some features of an orphan asylum, a relief society, or an institutional church might fail. But these are the exceptions which, in the right use of a much abused phrase, prove the rule. For any normal settlement, asylum, society, or church will regard such irreligious elements as unessential, either as harmless features to be tolerated for the time being, or objectionable features to be eliminated as soon as they are recognized and understood. All that is permanent in social work, all that is essential, all that draws to it the fresh enthusiasm of youth and retains the steadfast loyalty of maturer years, is fundamentally religious.

Our English friend may be right that America is to furnish the next seer of the things of the mind. We hope that he is. He may be right that he is to come out of the West. Many good things are coming from that quarter. But we do not share his feeling that the prophet may not come directly from the very altars of religion. The prayers of the social awakening by Walter Rauschenbusch, of which Professor Taylor speaks in this number, show that at least one clergyman feels that the unity of thought and aim and feeling is already such "that the utterances of one man may in a measure be the voice of all." The fact is that the churches are everywhere, as Professor Taylor puts it, laying foundations for more permanent, organized, widely concerted, and effective social action. If social workers increasingly acknowledge the essentially religious basis of their activities, and if the churches increasingly feel the need for a social program, who can predict whether the leaders in the great forward movements of the twentieth century shall come from the one side or the other of the imaginary line between them? And who will hesitate to hear the persuasive voice proclaiming social justice and good will, whether it speak the language of Judaism, of Catholicism, of Evangelism, or of some strange doctrine which to our unaccustomed ears may at first sound discordant jargon?

March 4, 1911.

WAY OUT FOR THE FARMER

At the National Rural Life Conference, held last month at Columbus, O., farmers and publicists, educators and reformers asked and tried to answer the question of what is the matter with American rural society today. The discussion itself was valuable, but the really notable result of the conference was the proof it gave of the essential unity of all of the efforts which are being made to improve rural society. Sociologists and farmers from the middle and real West, from New York, and from the Carolinas met on a footing of equality and talked over their problems and the probable solutions. Uplifters and those-to-be-uplifted worked together at the same task.

The conference is an amalgamation of the National Corn Show and the remnants of ex-President Roosevelt's Country Life Commission. The corn show has been broadened in scope and its tone improved, and the Country Life Commission has become somewhat popularized. Farmers and their families by the thousand come to the corn show, and many stay to take part in the discussions and hear the formal addresses.

The first question considered was economic. Under the chairmanship of Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell the conference discussed commercial co-operation in the rural community. The fact that the farmer's fundamental economic problem is not to raise more crops, but to obtain his share of the value of what he has raised, was admitted; sixty-five cents out of every dollar disappears between producer and consumer. The middleman was found at fault, but just what to do with him was not made clear. Dean Bailey said that commercial co-operation might improve the situation in some localities, but that for the country as a whole another remedy was needed. Drawing an analogy from the Interstate Commerce Commission and its operations, he advocated the federal control of middlemen, with a special court to which appeal might be carried by either party, and state legislation backing up the federal law. Co-operative buying and co-operation in various details of farm work were also discussed. A very human note came in the statement that although several co-operative laundries, notably in Minnesota, had been successful, most attempts had failed, not from any economic reason, but because the farmer's wife would not allow her family's mended clothing to be seen flapping in the wind at the cross roads!

Dr. Warren H. Wilson, superintendent of Church and Country Life, Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church, presided at the mass meeting at which the relation of the rural church to its community was discussed. Denominationalism and lack of union,—not only between churches but also between churches and all forces working for betterment,—insufficient salaries for ministers, bad economic methods in agriculture, and the inefficient country school were recognized as the four greatest enemies to the progress of the rural church. But the progress which the country church has made in the face of its difficulties is a story which would surprise many urban laymen. Church after church has been socialized, and it has gone to work to provide recreation and instruction for its people, to co-operate with the grange and other similar institutions, to better public health and living conditions, to improve schools by consolidation or otherwise,—in short, to become the community center, sympathetic with all the needs of the parish and active in their relief. In most cases even the most orthodox of the church members have been quick to see that this socializing process has not come at the expense of neglecting the real business of the church, but that on the contrary the spiritual life of the community has been quickened. A. E. Roberts, international secretary of the county work department of the Young Men's Chris-

tian Association, told what his organization is doing for rural boys and young men.

Discussion of the rural school came next. Recognition of the inefficiency of the present system was frank. Consolidation was advanced as a practical remedy, but it was admitted that many localities would have one-room schools for years and that many others—poorer or more isolated—would probably continue the present system indefinitely.

So the immediate problem became that of the one-room school, with a teacher poorly paid and generally badly trained or not at all, a short term, equipment poor or unintelligently selected, and a curriculum unrelated to the students' actual needs.

The introduction of elementary agriculture was strongly urged. The teaching of domestic science and of manual training did not receive quite such hearty support; the objection pressed by the pedagogues was the necessity of adequate instruction, and by the farmers themselves the assertion that the boy and girl now receive at home from fathers and mothers informal but thorough training, as valuable as any which could be given by the ill-prepared country teacher.

Willet M. Hays, assistant secretary of agriculture, touched upon the proposed federal agricultural high schools and discussed the organization of farmers. At the conference the feeling seemed to be that the time is ripe for a successful federation of farmers' national and near-national organizations and that the necessary machinery is not lacking.

A more intangible but no less important subject came next. One of the fundamental difficulties with present rural life—if not the fundamental difficulty—is social, in the narrow sense of the term. The telephone, rural free delivery, better roads, automobile, and improved economic conditions have removed the old time physical isolation, but social isolation remains. There is no machinery for social intercourse; school and church, except in a few favored communities, are no longer social centers. Community solidarity seems gone. How to return to the old social conditions, how to make farm life socially attractive, was the problem.

At this meeting and at others the injustice of which the farm mother has been the victim was faced. By state and national governments and by colleges the farmer himself has been helped, but whatever slight consideration has been given his wife has been entirely incidental. The improvement in farm machinery has been revolutionary, but the farm mother generally has facilities little in advance of those with which her mother worked. The effect of this upon the daughter's mind has been seen in her effort to get to the city as soon as possible and to stay there; the effect upon rural life in general is painfully evident. The solution seems to be to bring the unvarnished facts home to the husband, to show him the folly of putting all his surplus into more land which he is often ill prepared to work, and to induce him to install machinery and appliances which will lighten the house work.

As has been said, this conference was notable not for any additions which may perhaps have been made to the knowledge of the problem, but for the proof which it has widely given that farmers and those individuals and organizations which are trying to help them can work together at their common task.

FARM AND CITY AND FACTORY

The New York State Commission on Distribution of Population, which was appointed by Governor Hughes last October to complement the work of Mayor Gaynor's City Commission on Congestion of Population, has reported to Governor Dix. Its recommendations take the form of three bills now before the Legislature.

The first of the bills would create a commission to continue the study, as the present commission feels that "the work is so great in importance and so vast in scope as to require far more intensive study and investigation than have been possible." The second bill would authorize inquiry into the extent, conditions, and results of home work in tene-

ments, which under the present law is subject to very little regulation.[1] The third bill would require the State Department of Labor to prepare an annual industrial directory showing opportunities for manufacture in cities and villages of the state, similar to the one issued in New Jersey.

To further its object of distributing population, the commission recommends that better facilities for helping distribute labor be given the State Department of Labor, and endorses the bill providing for public employment offices throughout the state, introduced by the earlier Commission on Employers' Liability, Causes of Industrial Accidents, and Unemployment.

It finds that to a considerable degree faulty distribution of population must be met by city and village rather than by state action. To this end it would make systematic plans for city development to take the place of the present unregulated growth; it would force public and private institutions out of cities where they increase congestion, but would exempt homes for the care of the aged, hospitals, and clinics; it would teach school gardening and give greater publicity to the agricultural opportunities of the state, including an endorsement of the program of the State Department of Education to give better training in rural schools; it would study the possibility of creating small holdings in country real estate and co-operation among producers and consumers, which would eliminate middlemen's profits the commission believes, and increase the number of small holdings and of farmers and farm tenants, as it has abroad.

The commision points out that New York state has a large acreage of very productive farm land which may be bought cheaply. "Enterprising farmers and fruit growers in the West are now coming to this state in considerable numbers and buying these lands because they can actually buy them cheaper than they can lands of like character in the West, which are far removed from good markets." It finds an increasing demand for trained farm laborers, dairymen, and helpers of other sorts, and

[1]See THE SURVEY for February 4, 1911, page 772.

Lee in Colorado Springs Gazette.

A LONG PULL AND A STRONG PULL.

The Park Commission of Colorado Springs is urging the City Council to establish a series of public playgrounds, a movement which has the endorsement of the local Playground Association established about a year ago. There is only one playground in Colorado Springs, opened last summer by the street railway company at the end of its line. The executors of the Stratton estate have given the city a piece of land called Stratton Park, to be used for a playground. The Park Commission urges that this be made the nucleus of the system.

suggests vocational farm training through special schools as one way of meeting it.

The report says:

At this time, when census statistics show such a tendency to city building and congestion, especially in Greater New York, we believe it to be sound policy for this state to give the greatest publicity to facts showing how desirable its farming lands are, and how remunerative scientific agriculture now is; also that there are many cities and villages in it where manufacturing can be profitably carried on without causing such congestion; in fact, where employes may often own their own homes and easily and quickly reach their work. Then, too, we should encourage public and charitable institutions to learn the lesson to be learned at Industry, N. Y. [where an institution for boys has made gardening and agriculture profitable], and to make it effective in training for their lives, in the country as far as possible, the boys and girls, and young women and young men in state and charitable institutions.

We believe it to be be cheaper for the state to assist those willing to work to obtain employment, and to assist in properly training the young for their vocations in life, than it is to take the chances of what may result from long-continued periods of unemployment to large numbers, or from the efficiency of either mental or physical labor because it has not been properly trained for work. Proper train-

ing in homes, schools, and institutions; publicity as to the industrial conditions in all our cities and towns, and proper regulation of tenement house manufactures and other abuses, not to mention anything else, must result in a more normal distribution of population, and less abnormal congestion and the evils that result from such congestion.

FROM CITY TO COUNTRY

In moving their printing plant and some 800 employes from New York to Garden City, Long Island, Doubleday, Page and Company may prove to be pioneers of a new order of things in the printing trade, Pied Pipers who shall draw in their train the monthly and weekly magazines which have not only editorial offices but manufacturing plants in a few well defined neighborhoods in New York city.[1]

When the offices and plant were in East Sixteenth street, forty-five per cent of the employes lived in New York and Brooklyn, while now only twelve per cent go through the reverse process of commuting back and forth from city to country. Not all of the remaining thirty-three per cent have moved out, for of course many of the less well-paid employes left and have been replaced from the neighborhood. As a matter of fact, most of the employes have moved to Mineola, Hempstead, and other near-by towns, for Garden City itself is largely held at high prices by a local real estate company. But within easy view from the editorial windows can be seen the house which the foreman of the pressroom is building for himself, and a half dozen other houses, the property of married employes.

The move is held to have sound business judgment behind it. Built around three sides of a square, on the general plan of Hampton Court, there is not a dark corner in the whole structure. The editorial offices and clerical department are on the second floor, the presses and all the paraphernalia for binding and mailing on the first. The editors walk you proudly past the machinery through which raw paper, rolled directly into one end of the building from branch tracks of the Long Island Railroad, comes out at the other end and on the same level in the form of the *World's Work*, *Country Life*, the *Garden Magazine*, and the latest best seller—and furthermore, you have to walk fast to keep pace. It is like the famous process in the Chicago Stock Yards, which in fifteen minutes grinds a squealing pig into next Sunday's sausages. By the same token it is economical, for besides the gain in efficiency by quick and easy handling, by cutting out the incessant hoisting of half-made books and magazines from one floor to another and back again, there is the advantage of having every process in one plant. There has not been time yet to make adequate calculations of cost, but the assumption is that country life is cheaper in the long run.

The Long Island Railroad has

[1] (We confess with misgiving that THE SURVEY is printed in New York. The amiable proprietors of the plant which we patronize live in suburban Brooklyn; some of their men in rural New Jersey. The printery in Fulton street, half way between, is probably one of the inevitable compromises of the present maladjustments in metropolitan industry. —ED.)

COUNTRY LIFE PRESS PRACTICING WHAT IT PREACHES.

Doubleday, Page and Company have moved their entire plant and offices from New York to Garden City, taking many of their employes to suburban homes.

co-operated by providing a new station on the company's grounds, and the government by establishing a branch post office in the cellar. These things, with direct telephone wires to their New York switchboard and two automobile trucks so modern that they carry advertisements for aviators on the roof, complete the links which bind the company by all modern conveniences to the metropolis. The forty-acre estate provides two tennis courts and a baseball diamond, besides a truck garden which netted thirty dollars last summer on corn alone, and experimental rose gardens, including a cedar-bordered pool. Social life is further promoted by dances from time to time to which the employes come and bring their friends. The Japanese cook provides refreshments for these festive occasions as well as hot lunches daily at a low figure for the staff.

STUDIO CLUB OF NEW YORK

Satisfying a social need quite as insistent as that met by a settlement is the Studio Club of New York, a social center for some two hundred of the thousands of students of art, music, and drama, who continually flock from all parts of the country to this national art center.

This club is more than an artists' club; it is a unique social movement which was started scarcely four years ago by a small group of active and sincere women. Beginning in one small room it has grown until it now occupies a large, comfortable house at 63 West Fifty-sixth street, which affords a home for twenty-six students, and attractive rooms where the full membership may gather for social times, lectures, educational and devotional classes.

Young art students—painters, sculptors, musicians—come to New York, full of life, hope, and ambition, anxious to fit themselves to do their part in the creation of all those things which make life beautiful and worth the living. There are ten thousand of them, keenly desirous of knowledge and eager for work. They are housed all over the city, many living in small, dark hall-bedrooms.

Robinson in New York Tribune.

BACK TO THE GOOD OLD TIMES.

The Sullivan bill to have city magistrates in New York elected by districts, instead of appointed by the mayor, would forge again the old link between district leaders and magistrates whose nominations they control. "He's all right, your honor," is the suggestive line which the *Tribune* printed under this cartoon.

With a natural, youthful longing for self-expression and a need for recreation, they come to the big strange city, have their first dazzling encounter with "the Great White Way," and perhaps meet unforeseen dangers, frequently unexpected hardships. Two sisters who came from Wisconsin to study music had some talent, but funds too slender to stand the drain caused by the illness of one of them. Too proud to ask for help, they moved to a crowded, insanitary tenement where they were found, both ill by that time, by their instructor who had missed them from her classes. Although assistance and proper medical attendance were given them, both died soon afterward.

The Studio Club is for just such girls. It aims to supply the home and social influences necessary to the art students' proper development and to give them contact with other lines of effort—a deeper understanding of life, which is necessary to artistic accomplishment. Charles Zueblin, Stephen S. Wise, Maude Miner and other social workers have lectured at the club, and well-known artists have given their services freely. The idea of the club has met with a quick response from the students themselves, the art leagues, the dramatic and musical schools.

The constant demand for such a home is very much greater than this club, the only one of its kind in the city, can supply. It is endeavoring to get its work before the public. Within three years it hopes to have a well-equipped, modern clubhouse, where at least a hundred girls may live and a membership of a thousand may come together. It is hoped to start an art employment bureau and a professional interchange league. The club is partially supported by contributions and is managed by a co-operative committee of earnest women. Its head worker and resident superintendent is A. Evelyn Newman, whose fine work and true spirit are large factors in its success.

LOS ANGELES PLANNING AGAINST GROWING PAINS

In the "Get Together Dinner" recently held, Los Angeles gave notice of a concerted movement for social control of the problems which are pressing upon it from a tremendous growth of 200 per cent in ten years (102,000 to 210,000 people), a startling increase of immigrant colonies with a well-developed slum nucleus, as witnessed by Mrs. von Wagner's article on another page, and the prospect of even greater growth with the opening of the Panama Canal in 1915.

The dinner was in fact the first annual banquet of the Los Angeles Conference of Social Workers. It was held chiefly to give the members an opportunity to

DEDICATED BY THE MEN WHO BUILT IT.

The closing service at the dedication of the new First Baptist Church at Montclair, N. J., was largely given over to the workmen who had been employed on it. This follows the example of the People's Church at Kalamazoo, Mich., which many years ago held a "fellowship banquet" at which "every man who had driven a nail or laid a brick, everyone from organ-builder to hod-carrier and their wives and sweethearts," broke bread with the church officers and the minister, the Rev. Caroline Bartlett Crane.

become better acquainted and thus to promote co-operation among the social agencies of the city. Many of the social workers were unacquainted with one another, or as someone said were merely "names" to one another. But all felt a kinship in the bond of social interest. Introductions were unnecessary, and the whole evening was characterized by a spirit of the greatest friendliness and vivacity.

The Conference of Social Workers is the outgrowth of the Los Angeles Charity Conference Committee formed two years ago. All the important charitable organizations of the city belonged to it. Regular monthly meetings were held with papers and discussion, and an effort was made to prevent overlapping of charitable work and to secure some unity of plan for the city. Many members felt, however, that the name was restricting the influence of the organization to relief-giving agencies, and it was decided to take a name of wider significance and to revise the constitution so as to make the larger purpose more apparent.

The conference is becoming an important body and its purpose, "to co-ordinate the activities for all agencies working for social betterment in Los Angeles and vicinity", is more nearly fulfilled. It has standing committees on endorsement, co-operation and survey, child-helping agencies, recreation, public health, crime, mendicancy, schools, and city planning. The chairman of each committee is a person prominently identified with the particular work in charge of the committee. Thus the conference is becoming a real clearing house of social information. It stands in a special relation to the Associated Charities, whose secretary is *ex-officio* its secretary. The Associated Charities bears the expenses for stationery, etc., making membership dues unnecessary. The Associated Charities has, however, no preponderating influence in the organization and seeks none.

Los Angeles has a City Planning Commission to work out unity of physical features. The Conference of Social Workers hopes to carry the city planning idea into the region of social effort, to connect disjointed social lanes and streets, close up unnecessary thoroughfares—in short, work out a harmonious and efficient plan for bettering conditions of life in Los Angeles.

Blessington in Houston Post.

CUTTING HIS BONDS.

In Houston, Texas, the courts have recently declared the assignment of unearned wages to be contrary to public policy. Many loan agents have been enjoined from enforcing their claims against the borrowers. In this way the fear of discharge, the loan agent's greatest weapon, is removed.

THE MEN WHO BUILT A CHURCH

As a fitting close of the series of special dedicatory services at the First Baptist Church of Montclair, N. J., a gathering was held last month "in recognition of the men who built the church and the companions in the ranks of labor." The church's expanding work demands a larger material equipment, and if honest labor is put into such an enterprise surely those who build have their part in the good work. In this church the end of the task did not bring from building committee, pastor, and congregation the sigh of relief that difficulties and squabblings were finally over, which all too often marks the completion of a new church.

The pastor, the Rev. Harry Emerson

Fosdick, has been actively interested in all civic movements of the town and has kept closely in touch with the progress of the workingman's cause. Some time ago he prepared for the local press an article on the history of the trades unions of the town. Thus it was with a real sense of gratitude that a public opportunity for an expression of his interest was planned. Representatives of several unions co-operated in the arrangements for the service and a large number of workingmen were in the audience.

The service was addressed by the minister and Joseph R. Buchanan, who, it will be remembered, played an important part in the early days of labor unions in Colorado. He is now a member of Typographical Union No. 6 of New York, and the author of The Story of a Labor Agitator. Speaking on The Church and the Labor Movement, he made a plea for a renewed spirit of sympathy between labor union and church, as both are pledged to the same great cause—the redemption of man. After reviewing the early antipathy, he remarked with satisfaction the cordial feeling and true appreciation with which the one is growing to regard the other. The church's part in the future will be to help conserve the spirit of brotherhood in the midst of a hard commercialism that has affected the unions as it has affected the rest of modern life; through its spiritual message to the individual, the church can bring special aid, he said.

Mr. Fosdick brought a message of personal gratitude from the officers of the church in recognition of work well done.

EDITORIAL GRIST

AFTER THE CHILD WELFARE EXHIBIT

MARY WILLCOX GLENN

Walk along the narrow sculpture gallery to the north of the great stairway of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York and one will come to a lesser connecting gallery, in the

RODIN'S STATUE, LE PENSEUR.

center of which stands a fine cast of Rodin's great *Penseur*. For those who may wish to contemplate the master conception a bench has been placed in front of the statue, and one should linger on it so as to get a sharp impression of the significance not only of the statue itself, but of its surroundings. In front, to right and left, are reproductions of works of another French sculptor, Dubois's St. John the Baptist as a child, and his youthful Florentine singer; behind, on each of the narrow wall spaces to right and left of the large opening, which leads into a further gallery, is a bas relief of St. Gaudens, exquisite, pure reproductions of child life, the one a brother and sister side by side adventuring into the unknown world of acquisition; the other a charming small boy, who just typifies splendid, healthy babyhood. Through the opening at the back are to be seen two friezes of enamelled brick taken from the palace of Artaxerxes II at Susa. One shows a procession of advancing archers, "the famous Immortals, the body-guard of the Persian king" to quote the catalogue.

Perhaps the grouping was fortuitous, but one wonders if it were not another instance of the fine intuition of the museum management to relate so intimately these particular treasures.

Does one not feel it! Happy, hopeful childhood; inspired, inspiring youth laden with its sense of being a messenger to a hurried, hurrying people; talented youth with its generous contribution to the sum of joyous recreation; and lying back of them all, the centuries on centuries old duty of serving the government. The same old insistence on the need of men. Two men and a woman stopped one afternoon before *Le Penseur*. Many people had come and gone, interested, bored, curious, absent-minded, some speaking in foreign tongues, but all but these three had passed quickly on. What did the great tense, crouched figure mean, they said, and they stood puzzled. At last one answered, "He ain't thinking, he's just uneasy in his mind"—and they moved on satisfied.

"Uneasy in his mind" yes, that's the meaning of this grouping. The burden of decision lies on him. Here is the spirit of youth, there ahead lie the tasks of manhood. Here is promise, there fulfillment or negation. Now the city, the state, the nation need real men, in that near future they will need them yet more. Therefore, he sits still in order that he may know how to conserve the welfare of the child.

Turner in Newburgh, N. Y., Register.

ONE FORM OF PREVENTION.

A New York state law requires children to be tried separately from grown persons and when practicable in a separate room. In Newburgh children's cases have nevertheless been heard in the public police court after the cases of adults. Judge Cantine, who recently assumed office in Newburgh, has announced his intention of keeping children away from the atmosphere and association of a police court by hearing their cases in his private offices.

ENFORCEMENT OF LABOR LAWS

JOHN B. ANDREWS
Secretary American Association for Labor Legislation

A most important step in the advance toward more efficient factory inspection and better enforcement of labor laws has just been taken by Massachusetts. The Old Bay state has been thought by some to be in danger of losing her leadership in labor legislation, but present indications are to the contrary. Massachusetts takes no pride in doing things by halves, and her Commission on Factory Inspection, organized last June, has brought forth a concise, clearly written, concrete report of 112 pages that will be interesting and valuable reading in every industrial state in America.

The commission was instructed by the Legislature

to investigate the general subject of the inspection of factories, workshops, mercantile establishments, and other buildings, to study the present system of such inspection as it is administered by the district police, the State Board of Health, and the local authorities, to determine if there is any duplication of work or absence of proper inspection, to consider the need of extending the scope of the inspection, and to recommend such changes in the law as shall seem necessary to co-ordinate the work and to secure greater efficiency and greater economy in the said inspection.

It was further hinted that the commission might draft a bill to carry its recommendations into effect.

Albert S. Apsey, state senator from Cambridge, was appointed chairman, with John Golden, president of the United Textile Workers of the World, secretary. W. S. Southworth represented the manufacturing interests, H. C. Emerson the medical profession, and Florence Marshall, the women. They held public hearings in eight different cities where they personally inspected in-

dustrial establishments, and visited New York, Ohio, Illinois, and Wisconsin to observe various systems of inspection.

Finding that the entire subject of inspection involves roughly one-seventh of all the statutes of Massachusetts, they wisely concentrated upon inspection of factories, workshops and mercantile establishments as at present conducted by the district police and the Board of Health. With the exception of boiler inspection, they found the former "ineffective," and the latter "good as far as it goes."

Criticism is aimed principally at the inadequacy of present inspection, duplication of work, and incompetency of s me inspectors. The inspectors are too few in number, several testifying that they could not make even one complete inspection of their districts within a year, and one admitting that he had not been able to cover the field in three years. A disproportionate amount of time is occupied with clerical work, and one Fall River operative insisted that the active inspection force should not be recruited from "veterans of a war that was fought forty-six years ago."

Physical examination of adult workmen as well as children was urged by one health inspector who at many autopsies had found "lungs filled with metal dust." Another physician hoped the commission would help demonstrate that manufacturers cannot afford to have valuable workmen sick with preventable diseases.

The recommendations of the commission, as presented in the draft of a bill after long and careful consideration, do not stop with timid, ineffective suggestions for patch-work. They embody nothing less than the organization of an entirely separate and independent state board of industrial inspection. The plan, when put into effect, will relieve the district police and the Board of Health of purely industrial inspection, and place this work where it belongs under the supervision of a group of public-spirited citizens who can both prod and protect the man in direct charge of the important work of factory inspection. This man is to be designated as chief commissioner, with a salary of $6,000 to $8,000 and with the privilege of nominating to the board his two deputies. One of these is to have charge of the execution of laws relating to health in industrial establishments, the other the execution of all other industrial inspection laws except those concerning employment offices, conciliation and arbitration, and workmen's compensation. The inspectors also are to be appointed by the board upon nomination of the chief commissioner, under civil service rules. A registrar is provided to furnish information concerning the operation of laws and the results of inspection.

This plan, in brief, commends itself because it takes factory inspection out of politics, confines duties of inspection to purely industrial establishments and, most important of all, makes provision for the co-operation of experts with an advisory board in the establishment of standards of safety and health for different occupations.

The commission urges immediate concentration upon this plan of organization, but under the head of Supplementary Suggestions outlines further recommendations including: (1) registration of all industrial establishments; (2) reporting by insurance companies through licensed inspectors, as now carried out with unique success in Massachusetts boiler inspection; (3) standardization of occupations with reference to safety, light, ventilation and sanitation, thus, through the board, adding to the labor code details not covered by statutory provisions; (4 the inclusion of bakeshops among industrial establishments; (5) the health inspection of minors in all industrial establishments and the possible inclusion of adults; (6) the provision of blanks for the reporting of industrial accidents; (7) the issuance of formal certificates of compliance to industrial establishments in which no violation of the law is found; and (8) the extension of authority of inspectors with reference to approval of plans of all buildings to be used for industrial purposes.

Many of these recommendations are in complete harmony with the outline of organization for industrial inspection as

advanced by the Association for Labor Legislation, and it is hoped that every state will, like Massachusetts, recognize the importance of making careful provision for intelligent and effective administration of labor laws.

Massachusetts for more than a generation has held an advanced position in labor legislation. The report of her Commission on Factory Inspection, as much as anything in the past ten years, indicates her intention to maintain that leadership.

THE MECHANICAL ENGINEER AND ACCIDENTS

The American Society of Mechanical Engineers has given considerable attention from time to time to the conservation of natural resources, but with the exception of a monograph on the safeguarding of life in theaters, which formed the presidential address of John R. Freeman at the annual meeting of 1905, no specific attention has been given to the human side of the problem. John Calder, manager of the Remington Typewriter works at Ilion, N. Y., opened up a new range of interest, therefore, in his paper last month on The Mechanical Engineer and the Prevention of Accidents. To his mind,

> the preservation, as a national asset, of the lives and limbs of our citizens and industrial workers is more urgent and vital than any steps taken to insure adequate means of subsistence and industry for future generations.

Mr. Calder's paper was given up, for the most part, to a careful presentation of methods of safeguarding machinery which he has studied and experimented upon for some years.

"Progress in this direction", he holds, "cannot be attained entirely by accident legislation, pressure from state officials, warnings and recommendations from casualty insurance corporations, admonitions from sociologists, valuable though those are." He would put the responsibility squarely up to the mechanical engineer in the same way that we should put the responsibility for health up to the physician. It was this clear-cut challenge to his profession which gave distinction to his paper. He said:

> The principles of safeguarding and safeworking in industry should be as much a part of the economic education of the young engineer as those of efficiency and conservation in other directions. Many engineers enter on responsible control of operations and industries with little or no realization of the employ-

Ireland in Columbus, O., Dispatch.

GIVE HER A CHANCE.

The Columbus Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis is raising funds for an open-air school for tubercular children who are barred from the public schools.

ment risks involved. Such a consciousness comes in time, but it is often through the painful and harrowing experience of avoidable accidents and fatalities which were not prevented.

The scientific study as a matter of course and the solution by the mechanical engineer of individual problems of safeguarding, supervision, and instruction of employes as they arise in their daily routine will do more than all other existing agencies to bring about satisfactory results. The progress of the art of preventing industrial accident, wherever that is practicable, depends very largely upon the amount of intelligent interest manifested in the subject by members of the profession whether engaged in plant maintenance, the manufacture of tools and other apparatus, invention of safeguards, or in works administration. In such matters as this the attitude and action of the executive are all important and give the keynote to the whole plant.

The author wishes to make it clear, however, that all industrial accidents are not considered preventable, either by employer or employe, and that, of those that may be avoided, some do not fall strictly within the engineer's province and a large proportion is directly within the control of the injured themselves. Nevertheless, a considerable number of casualities remain which are the most serious in their consequences to operatives and employers alike, and which can and ought to be prevented by mechanical and executive precautions and the exercise of the same faculties which the engineer efficiently applies to his other problems.

As an example of the practical grounds for his belief, Mr. Calder cited a plant which had had a yearly average of 200 accidents. By means of exceptional preventive measures, both mechanical and administrative, without reducing the earning opportunities of any employe, the number of accidents for the last annual period was brought down to sixty-four:

> In no instance had any accident occurred in a year's time from negligence of the employer and in only one case was the injury contributed to by the negligence of a foreman or responsible overseer. In twenty-five of the cases the accident was caused solely by the negligence of the person injured and in the remaining thirty-eight cases the occurrence was purely fortuitous, accidental, and non-preventable in the most literal sense, no blame being attached to anyone. The latter evidently represents the unavoidable trade risk of this particular plant. Yet the actual risk before safeguarding and instruction of employes was seriously undertaken, was nearly six times as great, and the resultant risk, including all cases of carelessness on the part of operatives, was less than one-third the original rate. This experience has been repeated in many cases.

If in one known establishment two-thirds[1] of the average yearly record of accidents was actually eliminated by such engineering and disciplinary processes as Mr. Calder outlined,—and if in all plants one-third would, as he holds, yield to them—no more emphatic argument could be found for compensation legislation which would make every accident a charge on the industry, and which would therefore, as Miss Eastman puts it, bring it to pass that "the prevention of accidents should be a motive with employers at all times—present at the times of construction, present at times of engaging and organizing and changing the force, present through every day of operation."

Mr. Calder, indeed, bore perhaps unconscious testimony to the need for compensation legislation, not solely as a matter of industrial justice, but as an accelerator of the work of prevention when he said in his address:

> Fire, steam generators and other vessels under pressure, electricity, railroads, and elevators, as contributing factors to accident, are omitted from present consideration because they are, of all industrial dangers, those upon which mechanical and other engineers have already lavished attention. It is significant that it is chiefly in cases where property, as well as persons, is liable to injury that preventive measures against accident have as yet been generally and efficiently elaborated.

In other words, in a competitive society, the will of the employer is the best fulcrum through which social control can be exercised over industrial casualties; and "the motive for prevention can never be compelling until to each injury and death is affixed a uniform and unescapable penalty." If managers and stockholders had demanded safety work of the engineers in the past, and stood ready to pay its cost, they would have got it. They would have demanded it *en-masse* had injuries "come higher."

The more this economic motive, which is the basis of the present compensa-

[1] There remained in this one example twelve and one-half per cent which he charges to carelessness among the men injured, and to eliminate which educational work could well be demanded from trade unions, public schools, and employers. Mr. Calder would have also "strict discipline in the shops, the adoption of salutary punitive measures, and the firm elimination of the dangerous employe." He designated nineteen per cent as the "unavoidable trade risk" in the plant studied.

tory legislative program, can be supplemented by an enlightened humanitarianism on the part of progressive employers, the more effective it will be; if it may be supplemented also by an enlightened professionalism on the part of mechanical engineers its effectiveness will again be notably increased. For it is in the investment and operating decisions of the former and in scientific study and mechanical solutions by the latter, that the actual shaping and execution of methods of prevention are to come. (To these should be added as indispensable the responsible co-operation of safety committees made up of the workmen themselves). And it is because the "successful operation of thorough preventive measures" has gone on "unnoticed at some relatively few individual works," and because there have been inventions in workable protective machinery and methods by such exceptional engineers as Mr. Calder, that the future is full of hope. Their demonstrations are at once the arguments before which the hardest headed traditionalism caves in, and our best assurance of raising the whole level of American industrial practice to a standard of human as well as material conservation.

In putting their part in the advance squarely up to the mechanical engineers—in showing where their profession lifts to the ranks of law and medicine by touching on the humanities—Mr. Calder has done a public service. His address should be circulated before every engineering society in the country, and made matter of unfinished business before the faculty meeting of every engineering college.

PATRIOTISM AND LEGAL ETHICS

The Bar Association of San Francisco, says the *Green Bag*, has shown itself to be one of the most progressive organizations in the country, both in its program of procedural reform and in improvements in judicial administration and professional ethics. The ethical code adopted unanimously by the association last October lays down the principle that in view of the superiority of the judicial over the other branches of our government, "American patriotism is the keystone of American legal ethics." Besides setting a high standard of intelligence, responsibility, and personal integrity, the code announces four prime obligations upon members of the bar—to improve the administration of criminal cases, to restore the jury system to a position of respect in the community, to lessen the law's delays, and "to do their utmost to keep the science of the law abreast of the times." To the latter end they are to exert themselves to bring about the abolition of any rules or practices not suited to present conditions or not consonant with justice and equity.

To these might well be added the necessity for such a close approach by bench and bar to the facts and tendencies in the present economic life, as Professor Goodnow urges in his trenchant article in this issue. The lawyer and the physician, no less than the engineer and the churchman, need new alignment with the social forces of the times; new obligations are imposed on the law schools to enrich their curicula in economics and the social sciences.

THE PULPIT IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS

RUDOLPH I. COFFEE
Rabbi Congregation Tree of Life, Pittsburgh

No clergyman can read the fourth volume of the Pittsburgh Survey, The Steel Workers[1] by Fitch, without feeling the impotence of the church and synagogue at the present time. It is a sad commentary that large and influential religious bodies in this vicinity should have done so little to right the sad condition of affairs that for these many years has been oppressing the workingmen of this district. Conditions are revealed in this book which explain why the Church has lost its influence, and why thousands of people are not affiliated with a church or synagogue.

For years men have been working twelve hours a day and seven days every week. What are churches and syna-

[1]The Steel Workers. By John A. Fitch. Charities Publication Committee. New York. 1910. Pp. 380. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.73.

gogues for, if not to champion the weak and the oppressed? Why should there be millions of dollars of untaxed property, with stately churches erected thereon, unless to cry aloud "Spare not, lift up thy voice like a trumpet, and show my people their transgression" (Isaiah LVIII, i)?

We preach about the brotherhood of man, and all the while see the smoke of the factories where the reverse has been practiced. Had the ministers combined, had every pulpit used its best endeavor to aid the workingman and see that every laborer had fair play in his work, they surely could have raised an influence that would have been felt on behalf of right. This opportunity has been neglected, and what improvements have come, have come without their aid.

The ministers have combated Sunday work, but they have directed their energies more frequently against drug stores, confectionery and fruit stores, and amusements, than they have against the United States Steel Corporation with its thousands of employes working the "long turn." (Fitch, p. 224). And then we lament the weakness of the pulpit today!

Another example is furnished by the recent graft exposure in the public school system of Pittsburgh. Here we have the record of a shameful abuse of power, not against men and women, but against innocent school children. The report is so depressing that we wonder if there can be any greater depth of depravity than making money at the expense of little children whose lives are thereby endangered. Here was a legitimate field for the pulpit to join as one man and forever make impossible another such condition. The opportunity is passing, and the pulpits are busy with their personal affairs while this all absorbing school problem is to be solved by a private body of public-spirited citizens.

I am not criticising Pittsburgh clergymen. We have some of the most earnest men in the country in this city. They are doing precisely what the ministers of other cities are doing, and that is the point of weakness. The Church should stand for the new and changing order of things, for purity in politics, and for a square deal to the workingman. Because ministers do not busy themselves with fundamentals, their power has greatly diminished. Just one year ago, during the street car strike in Philadelphia, a priest, a rabbi and a Protestant minister, representatives of the three large denominations, called on the mayor and asked him to use his influence to have the merits of the strike arbitrated. They were practically told to mind their own business—if the newspapers reported correctly. To this has the pulpit come, that when it seeks to better the world it is told not to meddle. Is our function merely to marry and to bury people, to be a social appendage? Or are we not rather to strike at the very vitals of the ills in our modern day civilization and point out the way of improving the world? This cannot come as long as individual ministers cry out, but only when there will be a united clergy. We have been debating about our differences long enough; let us now search for a platform on which we can all stand. Lecky in his History of European Morals (chapter iv) says that the first consequence of Christianity was a new sense of the sanctity of human life. We do not see that sanctity today, and that is the weakness of the pulpit. Every denomination should join on the common platform of respect for human beings. Such a rallying point will re-assert the power of the pulpit, and speed the day when injustice and oppression will no longer rule so powerfully.

Ministers can best exert influence when all denominations are working for a common purpose, and that purpose should be to emphasize the brotherhood of man, "to loose the bands of wickedness, to undo the heavy burdens, and let the oppressed go free, and that you break every yoke" (Isaiah, LVIII, 6). Then, and then only, will the reproach against the pulpit of being too little interested in the workingman pass away. No longer shall there be just cause for talk about forty million unchurched people; and instead of the enormous increase in religious sects these past years there will be a steady decrease, because the one vital problem will be to spread the gospel of righteousness on earth.

THE SOCIAL BASIS OF RELIGION[1]

SIMON N. PATTEN

AUTHOR OF THE NEW BASIS OF CIVILIZATION, ETC.

[FROM PROFESSOR PATTEN'S BOOK NOW IN PRESS ENTITLED THE SOCIAL BASIS OF RELIGION, WE HAVE BEEN PERMITTED TO SELECT A NUMBER OF TYPICAL AND STRIKING PASSAGES WHICH WILL BE EQUALLY OF SERVICE TO THOSE WHO WISH TO CATCH ITS GENERAL DRIFT IN THE EASIEST AND QUICKEST WAY, AND TO THE LARGER NUMBER WHO IN THIS MANNER MAY HAVE THEIR ATTENTION CALLED FOR THE FIRST TIME TO THE BOOK ITSELF, WHICH IS AN ORIGINAL AND STIMULATING DISCUSSION, IN BRIEF COMPASS, OF THE MOST FUNDAMENTAL AND IMPORTANT OF ALL SOCIAL PROBLEMS.—EDITOR.]

Religion begins not with a belief in God but with an emotional opposition to removable evils. It is a psychic reaction, not an intellectual conviction, and its one essential element is its program for saving social outcasts. Our social instincts are thus evoked in its favor, and its opposite lies in the selfish tendencies that would force to the wall those not fitted for the struggle demanded for survival. Out of this background all religions have risen; they will continue to evoke human sympathies and generate religious enthusiasm so long as the present rigid conditions of survival remain. Social activity readily assumes a religious form when men recognize that they sink through degeneration and may rise again through regeneration. Degeneration, regeneration, and the will are thus religion's first problems, from which all others are derived.

The first step in a social reform is a clear contrast between existing conditions and those now possible. It must also be recognized that present evils are due not to general, but to particular causes. If there is no contrast between the "is" and the "might be," the imagination has no chance to work; if evils are due to general and not to local conditions, there is no way of altering them. When clear contrasts are made and the local nature of evils becomes manifest, a social program can be formulated that, setting aside local evils, makes the "might be" into a reality. Take, for example, the social program now forming that would eliminate poverty. To make it effective, people must first see how different the world would be if poverty were removed. But to make this picture an effective motive, poverty must be shown to be due to definite causes. The older view did not permit the isolation of the causes of poverty, because they were viewed as resulting from defects in human nature or in natural conditions. The doctrine of total depravity made poverty a general condition from which there was only occasional relief. The law of diminishing returns, coupled as it was with the "niggardliness of nature" doctrine of the classical economists, had a like effect. The abolition of poverty can become a social program only when both these viewpoints are displaced and the particular causes of poverty are separated from the general conditions of prosperity. We can conceive of progress without poverty only as we ascribe poverty to some specific cause.

The primal cause of degeneration is failing resources or some misuse of them. Sin is misery, misery is poverty, and the antidote of poverty is income. Such is the message of hope delivered by economics and natural theology when their principles are blended in one discipline.

While many good things are natural, most bad things are economic. The good is also the outcome of general laws; the bad is the result of local conditions that may be altered. Evils thus have

[1] The Social Basis of Religion. By Simon N. Patten. New York. The Macmillan Company. To be published March 8, 1911. Pp. about 250. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

specific causes that may be isolated and removed. They never arise from the general laws of nature nor from the native impulses of men. Neither nature nor man needs to have his laws altered. Nature is beneficent and man is good; they become malignant forces only under local conditions that prevent the full expression of natural law and keep men from following their better impulses. To remove the temptation to sin means to do away with starvation, poverty, disease, overwork, and bad conditions which depress workers and turn virtue into vice. There is no general law either of nature or of man that forces misery and vice on man.

Heredity is a reality, but it not so definite nor so mechanical as is generally supposed. Nutrition is responsible for much that passes for heredity. Only after its effects have been definitely ascertained can the real mechanism of heredity be understood. Why, for example, does each organism reach maturity and finally sink into old age? Is there a determent in the germ cell that when active checks growth? Does the mechanism of life run progressively to a certain point and then refuse to act? Or is maturity merely a state of maximum nutrition and old age a running down because nutrition fails? To state the problem in another way: Does a given organ cease to grow because the possibilities of its inherited mechanism have become exhausted, or does growth end because nutrition fails when the energy of the organism is turned in other directions? The latter is, I believe, the sounder view.

Morbidness is primarily an overflow of energy; senility a loss of vital power. The one leads to disease, the other to decay. They are both found in abnormal persons, because an overflow of energy in one direction leads to its diminution in others. The marks of the two, however, are so distinct that they can readily be separated and studied. Of the two, morbidness is more closely allied to defective heredity, and hence the stigmata of the two are practically the same. Defective heredity is the more deep-seated; the morbidness of over-nutrition shows itself in a stunted development of the higher faculties. Its cause is an arresting of the normal diversion of surplus energy from the lower to the higher organs. Morbidness ends in disease when the local surplus becomes unmanageable; it creates mental abnormalities through indirect effects on the higher powers. Disease, hysteria, and insanity are its most pronounced manifestations; but it has so many minor symptoms that its abnormal effects cannot be related to their cause without the most careful study.

We must think of the physical antecedent of the will as clearly as we do of other native powers and faculties. This antecedent is surplus energy. Without vigor all acts are routine not involving volition. The will is mind made active by surplus energy; the intellect is the mind acting under a deficit; passion is the mind controlled by its inherited mechanisms. The intellect gets its force through the acquired characters that are objective in their origin. Passion is a matter of heredity. It is the surplus of energy above the demands of heredity and environment that makes volition possible. Volition should therefore be associated with strenuous, and not with moral, acts. The best measure of this force is to be had in sports, athletic contests, and sudden emergencies that call forth all the powers of a man. It is the will of the athlete, not his physical powers, that gives him the victory. If we looked to him for example of volition, instead of looking to the moral recluse, we should have no difficulty in separating acts of volition from those of the intellect.

Freedom is not the power to do what one pleases, but the power to throw off depression and abnormalities. It demands not the absence of control over individual acts, but the power of a thorough regeneration.

Our methods of propagating religious ideas are sadly deficient. Until other

means are found of helping people to intensify their spiritual convictions, religion will continue in the state of decline so evident in recent years. Any cause fights a losing battle that does not win converts. Our vital experience dies with us unless revived by others. It ceases to have value as evidence unless it be made a matter of heritage. We must therefore analyze religious feelings to get the key to their revival in others. Seeming losses will be transmuted into gains if in the end sound methods of propagating religious feeling are found and used.

The first essential is to realize that volition takes its rise, not in reason, but in surplus energy. The will does not act on experience or proof, but from a primary impulse aroused by free energy. Its usefulness is not in what it does, but in the absorption of energy that keeps the lower organs normal by forcing them to work under a deficit. The start of volition is thus in energy; its end is in a sentiment. Any repeated act gains emotional power, and thus an impulse is generated that acts like other impulses in a steady, persistent manner toward given ends. At any moment the force of the will lies in the sentiments that its repeated acts have formed. So long, then, as surplus energy flows normally through the will, there is a growth of acquired sentiments and an increase in their dominance over natural impulses. Once check the flow of surplus energy, and character degenerates. Control then becomes emotional or intellectual. In the latter case, senile traits steadily increase until old age comes on, with its rigidity of thought and action.

Volition is thus a definite process, beginning in surplus of energy and ending in sentiments. Reason has no direct influence on the will. Its influence is corrective, not formative. Volition makes sentiments and through them beliefs. Reason chooses between beliefs, but it originates nothing. It merely decides between thoughts and opinions already formed. Reason is an expression of deficit and gets its force by weeding out what some more original power creates. Between the many different directions in which indeterminate activity goes out, it forces choices which make volition seem to be its product instead of its superior. In the virgin soil of a plastic mind beliefs grow lavishly. They are not the result of evidence nor of experience, but of rapid organic growth. To act is to believe. In this state of mind the young go along until they stumble on some limitation arising from lack of energy. Then beliefs begin to clash. The weaker go to the wall, for they are least capable of resisting the pressure of deficit. When we pride ourselves in getting the greatest return for the least effort, we are plainly under the pressure of want and far from that primal state where energy dominates. The utilitarian cramps our concepts so much that we lose sight of our earlier, more energetic state. We even go so far as to esteem personal relics of it as marks of degeneration. These latter states are more effective, but they are neither higher nor primal. We must look in some other quarter than reason to find their source. It is also plain that if surplus energy and its plastic manifestations are the source from which new thought arises, children are more normal than their elders. Their simple faith is nearer the source of inspiration and of new thought than is the logic of later years. With them to think is to act. Simple suggestion is transformed into action by the force of the surplus within them. To act is to create a sentiment in favor of the action. This tends towards its repetition and increase in power.

Most men are subject to irregularities in their supply of energy. Sickness, disaster, bad food, and many other conditions produce this result. In consequence, most men at intervals pass from one extreme to the other. Downward curves bring doubt, fear, and depression; upward curves create men anew and give the higher powers an unwonted supply of energy. It is during the dominance of the upward movement that suggestion is potent and new beliefs are readily formed. The many plans of re-

cent origin for the suppression of pain and the inculcation of invigorating belief have their bases in this thought, even if the mode of expressing it is so immaterial that the physical background of the mind is ignored. To keep the thought of pain out of the mind when depression tends to make it vivid, and to utilize the early epochs of recovery for presenting suggestive ideas, are two rules that work wonders in rebuilding the higher life among those temporarily depressed.

The apparent miracles of new types of belief are readily explained if the relation of suggestion to surplus energy is once understood.

Man's constitution shows that he is a long-lived being. For his development there must have been a period when the natural span of life was more fully realized than in the recent past. Disease in its present forms is a result of historic conditions. Especially is this true of the great epidemics that have so much shortened life. Filth comes mainly through overcrowding; contagious diseases could not have antedated it. When the world was sparsely populated and the natural surplus large, a mature old age must have been the general expectation. Infant mortality was doubtless large; but this would not have much influence on social organization if this dangerous period was followed by a long period of vigorous manhood. Old age would also, as with animals, quickly lead to death. The young and vigorous would thus set the pace and shape social and religious usage. Then youth and vigor were long and old age short; now, youth is but a passing moment and old age an enduring, hopeless epoch. With us the senile hand is on every institution and influences every social event. It is not to be wondered that religion has reflected this change and has become a thing of age and grief.

No nation can have a normal growth with poverty-stricken neighbors trying to displace it. War, therefore, became the glory of nations, and pillage was more honorable than industry. To these evils were added the great plagues arising from the increasing contact with semi-tropical regions. Famine, war, and disease became scourges, making life so insecure as to seem worthless. With the terrors of death ever imminent, it was inevitable that religion should reflect the change. A future life and its rewards became the compensation for the trials and suffering bound up with present existence.

Prosperity, liberty, and co-operation furnish a principle more potent than the dread of want. When we accept it, we shall rebuild on safer foundations, and make religion a higher expression of manhood than it could become while state religions and ascetic morality suppressed the vigor, joy, and freedom of normal life.

The religion of service could have no better exposition than in the teachings of Christ. What we need is not to formulate a clear statement of it, but to find conditions and institutions to make it effective. Christianity in this sense is not an historic institution. It is an ideal that has fought a losing battle with state religions, encrusted in historic institutions, and made vigorous by the failures of men in ages of disease and want. The sayings of Christ seem utopian even to those influenced by them. To the mass of men they are meaningless, because they are not impressed by such striking pictures as those enforcing a religion of sacrifice. To be a hero, to struggle for victory, to die for one's country, have vivid meaning. They give an impetus to activity which the truer but less picturesque ideas of service do not arouse.

It is difficult to associate Christ with a purely social religion because His teachings have been overshadowed by the striking events of His death. For this reason we do not see the fundamental opposition between what He taught and what His death has been made to teach. If Christ's doctrines had

been handed down to us by a Plato instead of a Paul, or by one who knew only of His life and not of His death, Christ to us would be a social leader, preaching salvation only in terms of love, co-operation, and service. Salvation through sacrifice, especially through a blood atonement, would be a repugnant doctrine from the dread of which He wished to free the world. There is nothing more paradoxical in history than the rise of the dogma that a gulf is placed between God and man, which can be bridged, not by love, but only by the death of one who strove to fill the gap in the other way. This glaring antinomy in religious thought must be removed before social religion can be put on a sound basis. If Christ's doctrine be that of salvation through love, the path is open to reconstruct religion in ways that meet modern needs.

If Christians, adhering to an unsocial concept of religion, fail to show that redemption for the masses is attainable, they must not find fault if the ideal of an unsocial superman displaces that of service. The social plan of redemption will be tested in this century as the hope of personal salvation was tested by the facts and conditions of the first century. A new missionary movement is demanded in our age. To succeed, this must have the vigor and clearness of thought that Paul gave to the first extensions of Christ's influence. The impress of past centuries has put modern religion in as helpless a condition to meet present emergencies as the Jewish religion was in the first century. The work that Christ began could not be fully developed in the early centuries because of adverse economic conditions. It can, however, be successfully completed now because favorable environing conditions have replaced race antagonisms with a spirit of social co-operation. This has opened the road to social regeneration as contrasted with social elimination. To meet this new situation is the religious need of the day. Success or failure are alternatives that will make Christianity dominant or will displace it as an encumbrance to progress.

To-day, we have no fear of war, famine, disease, or failing resources. The advance in knowledge has guarded men against these evils; but it is none the less true that civilization must be extended to other regions and races, or it will go down as it did at Rome. Prosperity checks the birth rate and promotes race suicide to such a degree that if new races cannot be raised to take the place of those dying out, there will be a decline in civilization to the level existing before the rise of Christianity. All of the earlier missionary efforts will be in vain unless methods are devised to arouse new classes, races, and nations with the same success with which our ancestors were awakened in earlier epochs by the prevailing forms of religious propagation. If laborers remain outside the church, if immigrants are not assimilated into our national life, or if we fail to do for Africa, India, and China what the early Christian missions did for our German ancestors, a slow but certain death awaits the church, no matter what may be its success in other fields.

Capitalism will die out much more readily through the loss of discipline that follows the cessation of saving than through any revolution its opponents may provoke. Nor are the socialists on any other basis than the classes they would displace. Class antagonism and the fear of oppression are as prominent elements in the discipline they evoke as is the fear of want among the capitalists, the fear of war among patriots or the fear of the future among religious people.

The measure of knowledge and efficiency is twofold. Nationally, it is wealth; individually, it is health. As nations grow wealthy and men become healthy, we may be sure knowledge and efficiency are on the increase, and that a movement has been started in the di-

rection of universal peace. National peace makes men wealthy; mental peace makes them healthy.

By the old standard, men thought God was with them when they and their families prospered. This crude measure was good enough for primitive epochs, but today progress demands not individual wealth, but a large social surplus utilized for the good of society. As an individual measure, health is much better than wealth. Social health cannot exist without social wealth, but it may well exist without large fortunes. Moreover, when we have social wealth, the higher test of progress is health. This, measured statistically, means longevity. No test is so good as a low death rate and a long working period.

The "new birth" is not to be worked for. It will come of itself if men are made normal.

The social mission of the church, however, is not to make men religious, but to make men normal. The religious awakening comes from within and can be wrought only by indirect means. The normal man is a religious man because his emotions are social, and because they clash with the economic and biologic régime imposed by heredity and external conditions. To make men normal is to start a train that leads to religious awakening. These indirect means will make more converts than the emphasis of fear. When such methods are employed, conversion will be a permanent change in mental attitude, and not a temporary upheaval. Missionary movements succeed only as they carry to new races and classes the underlying means for their betterment. Religion is contagious when these are secured. We can plow the land, but the fruit comes in its own way.

The best evidence that religious movements are succeeding is that they make men live longer. A steady increase in the length of life has followed the spread of Christianity. When the average life of man has been increased to sixty years, the advantages of normal living will be overwhelming and the strength of forward social movements correspondingly increased. Health is thus the test of normality, and the church can safely be sponsor for social movements that improve it. On this basis must the social program of the church be built. Many evils are beyond our present power to remedy. We cannot therefore make their removal part of a working program for the twentieth century. But the crimes against health are plainly within our control. We cannot make every one wealthy, but there is no need of poverty. Neither do we need to crush the life of children in factories, nor to lower the vitality of women by long working hours. A standard of living capable of maintaining health and welfare is not a mere ideal, but a perfectly workable plan. These and other economic reforms lie at the basis of all home missionary efforts, just as the health, security, and happiness of other races is the essence of successful work abroad. Christianity needs not preachers, but workers. Its supremacy can come only as civilization and culture are socialized and the economic world so transformed that the minimum of tomorrow's welfare will include more of health and comfort than the maximum of today's standards.

Social concepts grow; they are not made nor can they be coercively impressed. They are based on the agreements of past experience, verified by the current events in which all participate. The broader, deeper, and more harmonious the social life of mankind is, the clearer do the social ideals stand forth and the more widespread is their influence. Social concepts appeal; they do not command. They arouse energy and direct activity; they do not repress, restrict, nor define. Were all men normal, healthy, and active, their force would be irresistible; for then men would be aroused by the same motives and struggle for the same ends. It is the opposition, the conflict, the degeneration, the differences in race, type, class, and language that keep men so much isolated that common

ideals and aspirations do not arise. Every barrier broken down between races, classes or languages leads to a blending of the thought and ideals of the united group.

One God will come with one economic system, one type of government, one science, and one literature. The unifying forces are active in all these fields. They are delayed by argument and controversy. Our interest should lie not in getting this inevitable unity, but in making it express in its various fields the highest thoughts that life, vitality, and genius can attain.

The most social of all ideals is that which man holds of women. He sees woman not as she is, but as he pictures her. This vision is due to the many ways in which the beauty of woman is presented. If one view of woman were declared orthodox and all others opposed or excluded, the ideal of woman would be lowered and its power to restrain men correspondingly reduced. There is no opposition to the various views of women given by art. They blend into a composite picture and create a powerful social force to restrain the brutality and passion of men. So is it with the concept of God. Gods are in opposition only in national contests.They are made diverse by every struggle or argument into which men enter. Lift the obstacles that struggle and argument impose, and the unifying tendency becomes supreme. God now reflects all the moods and aspirations of men and from them an ever nobler concept emanates. The higher the level of thought, the more are His unity and glory reflected in it.

The test of morality is not happiness and culture, but increased vigor and longevity. The test of vice, on the other hand, is decreased vitality and early death. "The wages of sin is death" is an old observation and as true today as ever. In favor of morality increased efficiency, vigor, and longevity are always working. Against vice elimination is active. The moral is therefore that which gives vigor, while vice is that against which elimination is at work.

Constructive morality is both attractive and coercive. Every public measure to remove disease, degeneration, vice, and crime must be general in its application and hence coercive; yet the coercion is not exercised against individual acts, but against bad social conditions. So also is it attractive; yet the appeal is not to personal happiness, but to public welfare. Social morality thus has in itself all the elements for its upbuilding. It does not need antecedent tradition, superior authority nor external sanction.

Socialism is a combination of an economic program of reform and of an ideal reconstruction of society that is to follow. With its present emphasis on class struggle it is antagonistic to religion; but when class struggle has disappeared and the material obstacles to social progress are surmounted, social anticipation will be more prominent. Religious and social aspirations will then harmonize. Socialism will go the road of previous reforms. As the economic program for which it stands is worked out or displaced by a better one, the social background will blend with other movements of a similar nature and lead to a religious upbuilding.

City planning, health, and prosperity give a new direction to social ideals which in the end will be transformed into a religious movement to reconstruct what is within man as well as what is about him. The new City of God will not only be well planned, healthy, and prosperous, but will also be the center of spiritual aspiration.

THE CHURCH PREPARING FOR SOCIAL ACTION

GRAHAM TAYLOR

There are increasing indications in many directions of very significant preparations for social action by the churches. They are all the more impressive from the fact that they are appearing not only in concerted movements, but far more widely and fundamentally in what seems to be a spontaneous and independent movement in religious feeling, thought, and scholarship. The increased social activities both in local churches and in their great denominational fellowships, such as THE SURVEY has recently reported,[1] are no less significant than we interpreted them to be. But the social literature and scientific inquiry into actual conditions, such as we now report, are indicative of progress in laying foundations for far more permanent, organized, widely concerted, and effective social action.

FOUNDATIONS LAID BY SCHOLARS

Representing the Anglican Church, two of its distinguished scholars connected with the University of Cambridge have recently published volumes which place equally weighty social emphasis upon the obligation and opportunity of Christianity, from distinctly different points of view. It is noteworthy that one of these volumes, bearing the title Christianity and Social Questions,[2] is included in a "new series of handbooks interpreting Biblical criticism, for the use of ministers, theological students, and general readers." In it Dr. Cunningham, long recognized as one of the authoritative scholars and authors on English economic and industrial history, attempts "to set forth from a Christian standpoint the relative importance of all the forces which make for human welfare or militate against it." Within the short space of 224 pages he has succeeded wonderfully well in defining the Christian aspects of physical conditions, racial differences, civil authority, functions of government, economic and industrial forces. But he contends throughout that the social influence of Christianity in all these spheres of action is to be exerted directly by individual Christians, and only indirectly by the Church. From this individualistic point of view, however, he emphasizes, with great wealth of scholarship and strong Christian feeling, the supreme obligation of the individual Christian to exert this social influence to the full extent, and also the practical and permanent effectiveness of Christian ideals and character, thus personally applied in individual or organized civic effort, to promote social progress. This brief but most comprehensive handbook is as remarkable for the way in which it socializes the Christian life as for the power with which it spiritualizes economic relations and political theory and action.

The Hulsean Lectures[3] for 1909-1910, by W. Edward Chadwick, are devoted to the discussion of "social relationships in the light of Christianity."

Starting with the inconsistency between standards of life enjoined by the Old Testament, the New Testament, and the Book of Common Prayer, and the actual failure under present conditions to fulfill the family, commercial, civic, international, and pastoral relationships of life, he insists upon the responsibility of the Church for knowing actual conditions, for understanding Christian principles applicable to them, and for directly applying spiritual forces to the fulfillment of all human relations. This he does by a scholarly interpretation both of scriptural and Church teaching and of existing social conditions. While he treats the latter

[1] Appeal of Churches in Behalf of Labor, Vol. XXIII, p. 569; Church and Organized Charity, p. 121; Churches and Secular Agencies, p. 341; Churches and Social Service, p. 237; Religion and Progress, p. 133; Religious Treatment of Poverty, p. 753; Social Course for Church Workers, p. 909; Social Work by the Churches, p. 353; Survey of Huntingdon Presbytery, p. 603; Churchmen's New World Vision, Vol. XXIV, p. 479; The Church and Labor, p. 573; Social Work for Men in the Churches, Vol. XXV, p. 13; Social Service of the Episcopal Church, p. 175; The Church for Industrial Brotherhood, p. 177.

[2] Christianity and Social Questions. By W. Cunningham, D.D., F.B.A. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 1910. Pp. 228. Price 75 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 85 cents.

[3] Social Relationships in the Light of Christianity. By W. Edward Chadwick. Longmans, Green and Company, New York. 1910. Pp. 344. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.65.

far less specifically than Dr. Cunningham, his treatment of Christian ideals and standards far more adequately emphasizes the collective responsibility and opportunity of the Church.

Prof. Shailer Matthews in his Gospel and the Modern Man[1] lays almost as much of a social emphasis upon his theological thinking as he does when interpreting The Social Gospel.[2] He considers the spiritual life to be so dependent upon the social order, from which it finds itself inseparable, as to warrant him in saying, "Change it, and the soul changes; change the soul and the environment changes." He regards the Church as "the social organ of the spiritual life, aggressive on both its destructive and constructive sides . . . the one great institution of the times which is deliberately endeavoring to socialize the fundamental principles of the spiritual life as set forth in the life and teachings of Jesus." He thinks that "the recognition of social solidarity is compelling the modern man to bring the Gospel into transforming relations with social forces." "The Church", he insists, "must undertake to evangelize the great formative forces which are making tomorrow . . ."

Out of his experience at the Church of the Ascension in New York, Dr. Percy Stickney Grant has been contributing to the periodical press some trenchant discussions of the religious aspect of economic conditions which he has now gathered into a volume.[3] Its incisive criticisms, vigorous style, and fearlessly frank spirit are enhanced in value by, if they are not due to, the work with wage-earners in which Dr. Grant has been enlisted with Rev. Alexander Irvine for the last three years. While his account of the free-speech experiment which they tried with their "third service" on Sunday evening at the church and in the parish house is reserved for the concluding chapter, allusion is made to it in the preface as the point of view from which the other contents of the book may best be interpreted. The volume is valuable in showing how extremes can and do meet under the sanction of religion, even though the effort to bring them together in this, as in other instances, is as yet a temporary experiment rather than a mutually recognized and permanently successful feature of church work. To socialize the spiritual life it must spiritualize the formative forces of society by "individuals trained to social sympathy."

[1]The Gospel and the Modern Man. By Shailer Matthews. The Macmillan Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 338. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.60.

[2]The Social Gospel. By Shailer Mathews. Baptist Publication Society. 1910. Pp. 139. Price 50 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY, 50 cents.

[3]Socialism and Christianity. By Percy Stickney Grant. Brentano. New York. 1910. Pp. 203. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.34.

THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE CHURCH

Not since Prof. H. S. Nash published his brilliant study of Christianity's part in developing the modern socialized individual,[4] has the rise of the individual into his democratic independence been so powerfully described in its relation to the Church as by the Rev. Frank Ilsley Paradise,[5] rector of Grace Episcopal Church, Medford, Mass.

The fact of democracy is unreservedly accepted in all its bearings. "The new individual", which it has developed, is seen not only as a personal factor to be reckoned with, but as organized with vast numbers of his kind and rapidly assuming commanding influence in industry, politics, and the affairs of nations. While both the individual and the Church seem to have lost themselves and each other in the transition, this fact is interpreted as a divine demand for a new order of things in which both state and Church shall readjust their procedure to the industrial democracy which is coming to be. This readjustment is fearlessly accepted, not only as an imperative necessity, but as a supreme opportunity. With learning, new and old, and with a remarkably sustained elevation of spirit and style, the author pleads the indispensable need and glorious possibility of a democratized Church in solving the problem of social and religious unity and in promoting human progress. Based upon clear in-

[4]Genesis of the Social Conscience. By H. S. Nash. The Macmillan Company. New York. 1897. Reprinted in 1907. Pp. 309. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62.

[5]The Church and the Individual. By Frank Ilsley Paradise. Moffat, Yard and Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 298. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.63.

sight into actual conditions and the moral crisis involved in economic issues, his appeal for "the higher loyalty" is carried home to conscience and heart with the stern intelligence of hard facts and with the deepest passion and highest ideal of religion.

Prof. Thomas C. Hall of Union Theological Seminary in his Social Solutions in the Light of Christian Ethics[1], goes farther afield in testing both social theories and Christian ethics by comparing them with each other. His keen analyses and trenchant discussions illuminate both the social outlook of Jesus and the apostles in their "Kingdom dream", and the classical political economy, socialism, single tax, and modern political machinery.

DENOMINATIONAL SOCIAL AGENCIES

The authorized denominational and social agencies are also adding notable contributions to the social literature of the Church. The latest of these are issued by the Methodist Federation for Social Service, which reports the addresses before its First National Conference under the title of The Socialized Church[2], and has in preparation another such volume reporting its second conference recently held in Chicago. Its editorial secretary, Harry F. Ward, has published a valuable symposium as an introduction to the study and practice of social service, entitled Social Ministry.[3] Among the contributors of its chapters are Prof. Charles J. Little of Garrett Biblical Institute, who writes on The Social Activities of John Wesley; Prof. George E. Vincent of the University of Chicago, on The Industrial Revolution; Edward T. Devine, on Constructive Philanthropy; Homer Folks, on The Needy Child; Mary E. McDowell, on The Helpless in Industry; George T. Nesmith, on The Social Service in the Rural Church; Frank Mason North, on The City and the Kingdom, and the editor, who furnishes an able review of the labor movement in relation to the Church.

FOR CHURCH STUDY GROUPS

Textbooks for the study of social problems by church groups are beginning to appear. The Young Men's Christian Association led the way by introducing Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks's suggestive but fragmentary studies of the social teachings of Jesus.[4]

The Young People's Missionary Movement followed with its Forward Mission Study Courses, which include Dr. Josiah Strong's Challenge to the City[4] and Howard B. Grose's Aliens or Americans,[4] soon to be followed by another course on religion in human relationship applied especially to the work of the churches for their own localities.

Prof. Charles R. Henderson furnishes a textbook on Social Duties from the Christian Point of View[5] for the series of Constructive Bible Studies. In an untechnical but scholarly form the text covers the whole round of social duties both in rural and urban conditions and includes helpful references to easily accessible books, together with suggestions to teachers and topics for discussion by the class.

The Gospel of The Kingdom studies by Dr. Josiah Strong, issued monthly by the American Institute of Social Service, Bible House, New York, are well adapted to the weekly use of church groups.

The most concerted effort to put such teachings into practical effect is now being launched by a great combination of men's organizations, denominational and inter-denominational, under the Men and Religion Movement.[6] A country-wide campaign, in ninety-two cities, is to be strongly pushed to enlist men in virile religious life and work, with the social emphasis placed upon both.

[1]Social Solutions in the Light of Christian Ethics. By Thomas C. Hall. Eaton and Mains. New York. 1910. Pp. 390. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.62. Reviewed in THE SURVEY, August 20, 1910.

[2]The Socialized Church. By Worth M. Tippy. Eaton and Mains. New York. 1909. Pp. 288. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10. Reviewed in THE SURVEY, February 12, 1910.

[3]Social Ministry. Edited by Harry F. Ward. Eaton and Mains. New York. 1910. Pp. 318. Price $1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.12.

[4]The Challenge of the City. By Josiah Strong. The Young People's Missionary Movement. New York. 1907. Pp. 329. Aliens or Americans By Howard B. Grose. The Young People's Missionary Movement. New York. 1906. Pp. 337. Price in cloth, 50 cents; in paper, 35 cents; by mail of THE SURVEY 58 and 43 cents.

[5]Social Duties from the Christian Point of View. By Charles R. Henderson. University of Chicago Press. 1909. Pp. 332. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.37.

[6]Man and Religion. Y. M. C. A. Press. New York. 1911. Pp. 178. Price 50 cents postpaid

SOCIAL SPIRIT AND HOPE

Perhaps of still greater significance is the emphasis, only beginning to be laid on hymns of a more social spirit. Most hymns, and therefore all collections of them, express the individual experience of need and aspiration very much more than that of the group or of the larger community interests. The hymns with "I," "me", and "my" as their keynotes vastly preponderate over the comparatively few that strike the great common notes, "we", "us", and "our." Those that do so have been growing in favor and use these later years, and worthily express the great fellowship of the Church, to which, however, they are almost all restricted. It is noteworthy that some of the first and best of our modern hymns which give expression to the broader human fellowship were written by our American poets Bryant, Holmes, Samuel Longfellow, and notably Whittier.

Hymns of the Living Church,[1] edited by Charles Taylor Ives and R. Huntington Woodman, avowedly includes "newer material to express the forward movement of the day in service, missions, unity, and work." Ancient and modern, individual and social hymns blend with fine spirit and proportion in a service book of great worth. The Hymns of the Kingdom of God,[2] edited by Henry S. Coffin and Ambrose W. Vernon, thus justifies its social title and principle of selection: "Each generation emphasizes a particular aspect of the everlasting Gospel. Our own lays the stress upon the Kingdom of God and its establishment on earth. This book meets the demand for hymns that give adequate expression to this growing social consciousness, together with hymns of a distinctly devotional character." More nearly than in any other collection, the hymns it gathers under the heading the Home, the City, the Nation, and the World express the modern view of the relation between religion and the whole world of human life. From the nature hymns at the beginning to those for times, services, and seasons at the end, and throughout all the varied expression given to the distinctively Christian experience, the unity of life lived with God and each other is the master motive. In both of these collections, however, there is a significant failure to find or include hymns expressing some of the most vital experiences which predominate in modern life. There is only one hymn on the city in this world, very few on family and neighborhood life, and no real workaday hymns which voice either the joys and sorrows, the sacrifices and fellowship of labor, or the responsibilities and human service of commerce and wealth.

PRAYERS OF THE SOCIAL AWAKENING

It was reserved for Walter Rauschenbusch to initiate a reverential effort to give conscious social expression to the new religious emotions and social purpose which are transforming our whole conception of the meaning of Christianity. Freemantle had long anticipated this need in his two forerunning volumes bearing the suggestive titles, The World as the Subject of Redemption and Christian Ordinances and Social Problems. But Professor Rauschenbusch's Prayers of the Social Awakening under the title For God and the People[3] is the first attempt practically to meet the need "to blaze new paths to God for the feet of the modern man"; to provide "a religious expression of the new social feeling"; "to set Christendom praying on our new social problems." He realizes how difficult it is, though not impossible, to give individual expression to such common prayer. But such is "the unity of thought and aim and feeling that the utterances of one man may in a measure be the voice of all. Whenever a great movement stirs the deeper passions of men a common soul is born."

This "common soul" finds a truly catholic expression in these prayers of the *Zeit-Geist*, as uttered by one who

[1] Hymns of The Living Church. Edited by Charles Taylor Ives and R. Huntington Wordman. The Century Company. New York. 1910. Pp. 448. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.65.

[2] The Hymns of the Kingdom of God. Edited by Henry S. Coffin and Ambrose W. Vernon. A. S. Barnes. New York. 1910. Pp. 690. Price in half leather $1.75; in cloth $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.92 and $1.67.

[3] For God and the People, Prayers of the Social Awakening. By Walter Rauschenbusch. The Pilgrim Press. New York. 1910. Pp. 126. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.10.

singularly shares in his personality what is common to his Father God and fellowman. His "praise for the world" combines something of St. Francis's canticle with the new conscience for conserving the national resource of the earth for future generations. His group prayers are as impressive for the breadth of their range as for sounding the depths of personal experiences possible to the individual involved in the callings for which these prayers are offered. They go up to the heights and down to the depths with those whose burdens and blessings they bear: "employers", "men in business", "working men", "the idle", "all mothers", "women who toil", "children who work", "children of the streets", "judges", "lawyers and legislators", "public officers", "doctors and nurses", "writers and newspaper men", "ministers and teachers", "artists and musicians", "kings and magnates." Love of the living breathes through all the "prayers of wrath" against war, drink, mammon, and impurity. The progress of humanity prompts prayers for those who come after us, prophets and pioneers, those without knowledge, on the harm we have done, and for a share in the work of redemption. Through petitions for the Kingdom of God, the Church, and the city, ascent is found to a final, all-comprehensive prayer "for the co-operative commonwealth."

In this finely conceived and fittingly published devotional volume the author goes far toward fulfilling his own hope, that "if the moral demands of our higher social thought could find adequate expression in prayer, it would have a profound influence upon the social movement."

CHURCH INVESTIGATION

Accompanying this movement of social life and literature within the churches are very significant inquiries into existing social conditions. The Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations are leading the way in making and publishing such careful investigations of conditions affecting immigrants, our city populations, women in industry, men and boys employed on railways, mines, shops, lumber and construction camps, and in the army and navy. These inquiries are prompting city associations to undertake such investigations as the Chicago Y. M. C. A. is preparing to make of conditions surrounding young men and boys of foreign parentage in Chicago. In New York and elsewhere very definite plans and efforts are being made to interest young men in social work. Suggestions are offered to attract the interest and the co-operation of college graduates starting their city life, and of other young men in the churches and in varied social and religious activities. Questions are furnished to guide those who, individually or in groups, may thus be prompted to acquire and use an accurate knowledge of local conditions. They cover such as are involved in the relief of the poor; the prevention and treatment of delinquents; public education; provision and use of parks, playgrounds, and wholesome amusements; tuberculosis; false weights and measures; labor unions; immigration; inebriety; and housing. The brotherhoods in the several denominations are not only devoting themselves to definite lines of social work, but are uniting to improve moral and political conditions in certain localities. Such a co-operation in Chicago includes Roman Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish men's organizations. Federations of churches in cities and states are also promoting interdenominational co-operation for social progress. The sociological canvasses made by the New York City Federation of Churches several years ago set the type and standard for patient and thorough inquiry. In Wisconsin an interesting series of maps and charts was presented at the first conference of such a federation by C. J. Galpin of Madison, showing by stereopticon slides significant phases of religious and social conditions in the state. Every church and Sunday school was thus located, the racial distribution of the foreign-born population designated, the prohibition and license territory indicated, the location of every Christian association, temperance union, college and academy, university extension center, and associated charities marked.

Universities are also co-operating in investigating religious and social conditions through their departments of soci-

ology. An investigation of country churches in Missouri has recently been completed by A. C. Zumbrunnen for the University of Missouri. Illustrated by graphic diagrams the report tabulates and thoroughly discusses the increase and decrease of churches, Sunday schools, young people's societies, financial resources and properties. The salary and education of pastors, the length of pastorates and the number of churches served by them are used to illuminate the country church problem. Opinions regarding the effect of the telephone and rural free delivery on the churches are classified. The attitude of churches and ministers toward federation measures the breadth or narrowness of their view. The investigator concludes that "the majority of the laity of the country church do not regard it as a social factor or of much importance in that respect." Nevertheless he regards it as one of the problems of the rural churches to make themselves felt as among the most powerful social agencies within the bounds of the state. And he regards the solution of that problem as vitally involved in the fulfillment of their religious mission. The rallying of country ministers and farmers at agricultural colleges to be inspired and guided in their interpretation and improvement of rural conditions, is one of the most significant signs of hope.[1]

TYPE OF SOCIALIZED MINISTRY

This review may well be summed up by a reference to Dr. Washington Gladden, as perhaps the one man more than all others in the ministry of the American churches who throughout his fifty years of pastoral and public work has been identified with every phase of the social movement referred to. In his Recollections[2] are vividly depicted the reactions of a country lad on city environments, of a college man upon public issues, of a man of peace and a peacemaker on war times, of a scholar on social and industrial agitation, of a religious thinker on the struggle between conservatism and loyalty to truth and liberty. As a preacher, author, citizen, and man of public affairs he has thought and taught his way through almost every phase of our social, industrial, civic, and philanthropic life, especially as related to Christianity, the Church, and its ministry. Out of his own experience and example, therefore, he is justified in entering this protest:

> The plea of the religious teachers that they are incompetent to deal with social questions is a fearful self-accusation. They have no right to be incompetent. If there are any subjects on which they are bound to have clear ideas and sound convictions, they are these subjects, which concern the relations of men in industrial society. Shall the teacher of religion confess that in the arena where character is mainly won or lost, where the life of the church is at stake, where the destiny of the nation is trembling in the balance, he is unfit for any efficient service? It is as if a physician should declare that he would only prescribe for nettle-rash and chicken-pox and like disorders, but that he declined to deal with typhoid, or diphtheria, or tuberculosis, or any of the deadly diseases. The services of such a physician would not be in great demand.

When his fellow citizens at Columbus, O., gathered to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of his ordination, they made it a civic event. The mayor said, "I regard him as Columbus's first citizen." The president of the Chamber of Commerce declared him to be "one of the greatest constructive forces the city ever had." Governor Harmon pronounced him "the city's worthiest citizen." Not any the less, but all the more, for all that, Washington Gladden is justly regarded by those who know him best and have worked with him most as the highest type of the ministry in his day and generation, as tested by the spiritual results of his pulpit and pastoral work to be seen in the characters of his people and the influence of his church; by the way in which his interpretations of life and religion to each other stand the test of time; and by the strength and beauty of his devout life and spirit as they are reflected in the simple yet profound hymn of his own soul, in which he gathers all others to himself in praying:

> O Master, let me walk with thee,
> In lowly paths of service free,
> In hope that sends a shining ray
> Far down the future's broadening way.

[1] The Problem of the Country Churches. By Kenyon L. Butterfield. University of Chicago Press. By mail of THE SURVEY, postpaid, $1.08.

[2] Recollections. By Washington Gladden. Houghton Mifflin Company. New York. 1909. Pp. 445. Price $2; by mail of THE SURVEY $2.20.

CONGREGATIONALIST SECRETARY FOR LABOR AND SOCIAL SERVICE

The attention which THE SURVEY called to the preparation of the churches for social action may already be turned to a most significant act which the great fellowship of Congregational churches has recently taken. THE SURVEY pointed out the culmination of the years of preparation made by the industrial committee of these churches, when in their National Council, by a unanimous rising vote, action was taken to establish a secretaryship for labor and social service, directed and supported by the Congregational Brotherhood of America.

This action has now been consummated at Chicago with impressive ceremonial and significant utterance at the inauguration of the Rev. Henry A. Atkinson to that office. The occasion was notable for plain speech and constructive thought on the question how churchmen can best contribute to social progress and industrial betterment. Jane Addams pleaded for the churches to concern themselves with the interests of the community as a whole. She declared her belief that there is enough divine discontent in the youth of today to draw them to the social service of the churches, if heroic sacrifice for humanity is demanded of them. The responsibility of employers to the workers and to the community was defined by Towner K. Webster, a Chicago manufacturer, with a conscientious and public-spirited frankness all too rare in public discussion. While the necessity of making the business pay dividends to its stockholders was his major premise, his conclusion was that the public should not be required to pay the living expenses of the employes. Where the living wage is not paid as a part of the cost of the product, the public pays the balance needed to support the families of underpaid employes. To take advantage of the ignorance or stupidity of immigrant employes to reap profits off a minimum wage was denounced as unworthy of any honest employer. Owen R. Lovejoy sounded the battle cry of the church against child labor. The leisure problem was urged as an opportunity for the churches to get the city, through its park and school boards, to do its duty in furnishing facilities for recreation, free from the demoralizing influences of exploiters who make profit out of the people's pleasure. Raymond Robins further stirred the assembly by asserting that "the church does not realize the power and influence it could wield for good in working for decency in politics and honesty at the polls." The wage-earner's efficiency and responsibility were realistically described by President Ozora S. Davis of the Chicago Theological Seminary, out of his years of experience as a railway employe and telegraph operator. Dr. Gunsaulus's sermon was an eloquent emphasis upon brotherhood as the motive power of Christianity. In giving "the charge" to the brotherhood and the new secretary, as chairman of the National Council committee on industry, Prof. Graham Taylor characterized the occasion as "a re-entrance" of the Pilgrim churches upon that field of social action which they had entered by their forefathers' compact in the cabin of the Mayflower. As soon as they landed on Plymouth Rock they began building the first of the American commonwealths. Among Indians, Negroes, mountain whites, and the settlers on the advancing frontiers, they have done their religious work through schools, shops, and training for home and farm. Through every mission of their American Board and every school and college they have planted abroad they have laid foundations for liberty and democracy. Their social religious literature has flowed in a steady stream all the way from the pen of Cotton Mather and Thomas Hooker to that of Washington Gladden. The men of the churches through their brotherhood and its secretary, but not without the constant and effective co-operation of the women, were charged to inquire into the conditions of life and labor in their own local communities; to interpret to one another, and to mediate between native and foreigner, employer and em-

ployé, rural folk and city dwellers, men and boys; to help formulate a constructive, progressive policy for each community; and to bring into social co-operation the community of interests which exists in every locality.

Greetings from labor were personally presented by Edwin R. Wright, president of the Illinois Federation of Labor, and by John Mitchell in a characteristic letter, in which he said the occasion "indicates in a tangible way the ever increasing interest of religious organizations in the solution of our social and industrial problems." "The labor movement," he said, "will wish you success in your wide field for good work, and labor men rejoice with you in the selection of your executive officer." The Rev. Charles Stelzle, in sending the greetings of the Presbyterian Department of Labor, noted the progress which had been marked during his eight years of service. The caution with which he was permitted to begin work in the first secretaryship of its kind was shown to be in marked contrast to the unanimity and publicity with which this second church secretaryship for labor was established.

Mr. Atkinson comes to his national work and its headquarters at Chicago from successful pastorates in Atlanta, Ga., and Springfield, O., in both of which states he won the confidence and co-operation of working men and business men to a marked degree. The Atlanta Federation of Trades impressively expressed the regret of its members at the loss of Mr. Atkinson's fellowship, by which, however, they were confident the great cause of our whole people would gain.

MR. ATKINSON'S INAUGURAL

The discovery of Mr. Atkinson's point of view and his outlook upon the new work devolving upon him and the churches was awaited with great interest. Detached excerpts from his inaugural follow:

> The strain will be lifted. There is a new spirit abroad in the world, the spirit of brotherhood. A deep spirit of religion is finding expression in the movements and organizations for better social conditions. The world is gradually coming to see the value in Christ's teachings. He is the ideal of every reformer; the claimed leader of every party. His spirit is coming to its own. . . . The ugly mood has not come to its own. All classes of people are fairly reasonable. Men are reading. They are observant, the world was never so industrious and long headed as at present. Societies, clubs, and unions are working away at fundamentals. The church is getting down to bed rock. The times are ripe for real constructive work in the building of the Kingdom of God. . . . The needs of the individual soul are made more vital as the relation of men to each other is more clearly understood. . .
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> The Church, in a humbler frame of mind, is hearing the Master's words, and instead of trying to explain away the incompatibility existing between the Sermon on the Mount and the industrial system, is recognizing that Jesus meant what he said. If Christianity is worth anything it must hasten the disappearance of poverty and lessen the grinding conditions of drudgery and routine which are deadening the spiritual and mental fiber of man. If the Church has any power it ought to be able to drive out the pagan ideal from business and establish the Christian ideal in control. . . The fight to gain leisure for physical, mental, and moral health, when won, will add to the beauty and fulness of life. The identification of the Church with the needs of man as man, together with a fuller realization within the Church of the possibilities of democracy, will give the Church first place among those agencies ordained by the Almighty for man's salvation.
>
> There ought to be no good grounds for considering the Church amateurish when it approaches social questions. The minister ought to be the best versed man on social and economic questions of any man in his community. He must be, if the church he serves is to come to its own. . . The Church ought to be informed on every great movement, and a movement cannot be understood until we know the principles that lie back of it. The information ought to be from primary sources. The minister has the best possible chance for knowing conditions, if he will only take the trouble to investigate. The minister who does not know what is going on in his city, who is unacquainted with the needs and the efforts being put forth to meet them, and who is not able to bring himself into sympathy with the point of view of other folk, no matter what their condition, temporal or spiritual, may be, is not as fully equipped for his high and holy task as he should be.
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> The attitude of the Church on all social questions is that of a referee. Its sole interest is in seeing that righteousness prevails. It holds no brief for any party or parties. Its voice is raised against the crying evils of our times because they work an injustice to man, because they are shutting the door of opportunity. The laboring man does not want the patronage of the Church. He wants an even chance in this, his Father's world. and it is the duty of the Church to help him get it. Wholesome factory conditions, safety in the

pursuit of the daily task, adequate wages and a reasonable workday,—these are not merely subjects of an academic discussion. These questions and their righteous settlement mean life to millions of our brothers and sisters.

As long as immense fortunes are being made at the expense of little children and destitute women; as long as it is possible for a man to give the best years of his life to a machine and then be thrown out to die, or for the community to support, when his vitality has all been coined into profits for private individuals; just so long the child labor problem, the problem of woman's work, old age pensions, and a national indemnity law for accidents in industry, will be proper subjects of study, prayer, and work by the Church.

I am satisfied that the Church can be led into the widest, most helpful lines of service if the proper method of presentation and approach is employed. Tuberculosis can be stamped out so thoroughly that in ten years the Great White Plague, like the Black Plague, will be only a sad memory. Any pastor, if he will take the time and trouble, can secure the co-operation of his people in this crusade against death.

I am satisfied that the churches can be enlisted in the movement to make the air, the sunshine, the parks, which belong to all of the people, more common. Every city can have public playgrounds; and if they are led, the churches will be strong factors in the establishment and maintenance of such playgrounds. Shorter hours of labor, Saturday half holidays, and a dozen other questions could gain the indorsement of the churches immediately. This is just the beginning. These changes will call for others. More air and sunshine mean the tearing down of good profit-paying, but tuberculosis-breeding, tenements, and building in their place decent homes for the people.

One reform will call for another; one blessing will make the next more imperative, but on the whole more easily gained.

Everything needed cannot be done all at once. Moral reforms are consummated slowly. The ultimate good is far off. It will take years of patient toil and much hearty service to bring business under the law of love, and make actual the Golden Rule in every heart and life, but it will be done. The present offers a magnificent summons to the Church to do its part, and by making its contribution the Church will enter into a larger and wider work in proportion to its new tasks and will gain for itself a new and larger life.

LINCOLN'S BIRTHDAY CONFERENCE

MARY KINGSBURY SIMKHOVITCH

Greenwich House, New York

Twelve years ago at the Procathedral on Stanton street the first Quiet Day for New York social workers was conducted by the Rev. Dr. Nash of the Episcopal Theological Cathedral of Cambridge. Mrs. Lowell was there that day to bless the group with her gracious and inspiring presence. Dr. Blaustein was present too, and many others of the relatively small group which was at that time deeply interested in the social problems of New York's industrial neighborhoods. Several years later a similar day was held at the Church of the Ascension.

It was felt by some at that time that a wider character could profitably be given such a day. On Lincoln's Birthday, 1908, the first conference was held at the Union Theological Seminary. Discussion followed the addresses and opportunity was given for interchange of thought. Later conferences, while interesting and valuable, have somewhat lost the plastic note of the earlier days.

On February 13, the beautiful chapel of the new Union Theological Seminary was crowded to hear the interesting addresses. The seminary hospitably invited all persons to remain at luncheon when there was a freer opportunity for conference. Social workers were not so largely in attendance as at former conferences and, as the day was originally intended for them, it is interesting to surmise the reason for their flagging interest. I would venture a guess. The growing formality tends to alienate, if not positively to petrify, those who would like very much to compare notes as to the spiritual values being wrung out of daily contact with the living social problems of the day.

The opening address of Prof. George W. Knox on what constitutes the religious attitude deserves a more extended notice than this brief review allows. Religion, Dr. Knox said, is in one aspect

worship, adoration, the recognition of what is higher than ourselves. It is incompatible with the state of mind which is superficial, occupied, and content with the merely transient. For this religious emotion, which we dominate "solemn," is associated with thoughts of the deeper aspects of the universe, or if we prefer, with life.

Religion is the product of a somewhat advanced stage in man's development. Doubtless its elements are found in all stages, and are to be traced even in the animal world. So with all the so-called higher activities of man: art, science, ethics. Our modern science traces them to a pre-human origin, but all of them come to what we may call self-consciousness only when groups of men have attained a certain stage of stability, when the immediate struggle for existence has been so far modified that there is opportunity for something beyond the importunate questions, what shall we eat and drink and wherewithal shall we be clothed; when not only the individual but the group reflects and considers not only the immediate and proximate, but the mediate and the remote.

This faculty of man, this power of considering the remoter causes, this response to something besides the apparent and the immediate, is productive of much which we may call "foolishness." This is true of religion, but not more of religion than of knowledge; and as science consists in the progressive elimination of mistaken judgment, so is it with religious truth. For our insistence is that religion is not something apart, to be put in a quite distinct category; but that it is man himself functioning in response to his environment, and sharing at once in the weakness and in the strength of his total activity. Religion has no especial claim to infallibility, but shares with knowledge and with art in man's foolishness and also in his wisdom and his truth.

So considered, we find that religion, like the other expressions of man's permanent instincts, is universal, characteristic of humanity in all time and in all stages of development. And hence, if we hold in any degree the modern theories of development, we must believe that it has performed some vitally necessary function. This is true for the individual and for society. It has been religion which has held together our Hebrew friends through long centuries of physical dispersion and cruel prosecution. It was religion which made Arabia an important element in the history of the world, when the Prophet succeeded in substituting the bond of faith for the tie of blood relationship; and it is religion which has welded the diverse elements of the Japanese nation into an effective unity. In the present, as in the past, it is religion which is the most powerful agent in binding man to man.

The most influential ideal now moving men is the vision of the Kingdom of God on earth. The most telling illustration of our own age is socialism, which exhibits in a marked degree the characteristics of religion.

Religion is an expression of the deep trust that there are values which do not perish with the using; that though the individual perish they remain. So in primitive society men religiously believe that the family, the tribe, the nation are more than the individual. Religion binds into one the past with the present and forecasts the future. Its exhortation is: "Seeing we are surrounded with so great a crowd of witnesses let us lay aside every weight and the sin that doth so easily beset us, and let us run with patience the race that is set before us." "It endures as seeing that which is invisible." It feels that there is an inherent irrationality in the notion that all which makes life worth living, the highest and deepest which man knows, disappears without lasting import, so that finally vice like virtue, and lies like truth, are all made alike in an oblivion of nothingness.

Finally, the religious attitude has significance as man reflects upon his own individual ineffectiveness and insignificance. It is only as a part of a greater whole that one's personal efforts after the good, the beautiful, and the true are worth while. We can accomplish so little and our efforts are so unavailing that it is only as we are conscious that we are members of a greater whole, in the group and in the world, that we gain confidence to do our little whole and to quit ourselves like men. Ultimately it is a belief that it is God, however we define that word, who works within us to will and to do of his good pleasure.

Prof. William Adams Brown spoke of religion as the homestead of the soul, contributing stability, inspiration, beauty, and companionship to the life of the individual. He asked if our souls could afford to miss the reinforcement which religion brings as we face the social situation.

Prof. Thomas Hall, in speaking of the contribution of religion to society, asserted that through it our ideals had been created and preserved—created by the prophets and preserved by organization and tradition. Creation and conservation of ideals are necessarily often in conflict. Naturally the prophet is opposed to organization, and organization distrusts the prophet, who, in fact, must justify himself to be accepted.

In the discussion that followed the morning conference Bolton Hall referred to the need of an independent ministry unhampered by reliance upon funds which may be withdrawn in case the minister

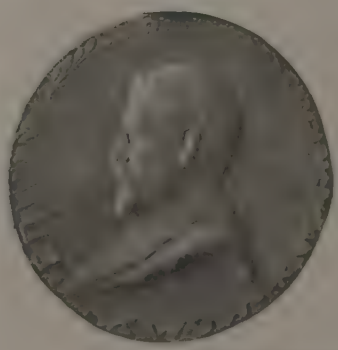
confesses his true convictions. The Rev. Elliott White, in commenting upon Dr. Hall's paper, added that the prophetic and conserving elements are present not only in society, but in each person as well, and that it is especially necessary for the prophetic element to get itself freely expressed.

Jane Addams opened the afternoon session. Is it not significant that there was a larger attendance for this address than for any other? This was not alone a personal tribute to Miss Addams's growing fame as writer and leader, but rather an indication of the thirst in people to hear what are the actual convictions of those most deeply involved in the human conflict. It was the unconscious expression of the ever-deepening conviction that out of life itself, if from any source, must religion spring; that religion, born of human association, is tested by experience alone; that its validity is established in direct proportion to the necessity for its existence and to its utility in daily living.

Miss Addams dwelt upon the fact that the new point of view is being worked out with pain, sorrow, and difficulty. She indicated the passing of the old political economy, and the passing as well of the superstition that possession of knowledge alone can by and of itself induce spiritual unity. She emphasized the need of a norm for fellowship as there is a needs for norms in material development. It is impossible to disregard the fervor of thirty million socialists whose spirit of devotion is not unlike that of the Salvation Army. Wherever there is a common work to do, a common conviction is developing in regard to life as a whole.

The Rev. Henry Fosdick followed with an address on the social workers' need for religion. He dwelt on the necessity for a conviction that the "fight is coming out somewhere." To many present Mr. Fosdick's expression, "all mere social work," seemed to indicate that a distinction exists in his mind between religious and social work. In this connection it may be recalled that years ago a visitor at the College Settlemen inquired if any religious work were carried on there. The young resident who had received the visitor flushed, but unhesitatingly replied, "We think all our work is religious!"

The Rev. Henry Sloane Coffin gave the last address of the day. He said that "every man whose heart is set on righteouness and who wants to see it here is our brother." Dr. Coffin expressed the belief that through common work common convictions would arise, that "Abiding worthfulness" is "our criterion of truth."



Mowbray Clark, Sculptor

Faces of the medallion distributed at the recent dinner given Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia University, to commemorate his twenty-five years of service as scholar, teacher and citizen. A review of this occasion by Professor Seager was published in THE SURVEY for December 3.

WHY TEACHING THE TENANT IS NEEDED.

THE HOUSING AWAKENING[1]

VII

TEACHING THE TENANT

JOHANNA VON WAGNER

EXPERT, LOS ANGELES HOUSING COMMISSION

Teaching the tenant: When that means dealing with people of thirty nationalities, different customs, superstitions and languages, one might well hesitate before embarking on that sea. Once in it, one is carried away by the deep, dark undercurrent, and is well repaid for his efforts to teach the hard-working, greatly underpaid class of society, our tenement dwellers, how to keep afloat.

[1]A series of articles describing housing conditions in typical American cities, large and small, East and West, and the efforts being made to improve these conditions. Published with the cooperation of the National Housing Association. I. Introduction, by Lawrence Veiller, THE SURVEY, November 19, 1910, price 10 cents; II. Socialists and Slums—Milwaukee, by Carl D. Thompson, December 3, 1910, price 25 cents; III. The Awakening of a State—Indiana, by Albion Fellows Bacon, December 17, 1910, price 10 cents; IV. Housing Reform in Cold Storage—Boston, by Edward T. Hartman, January 21, 1911, price 10 cents; V. The Huddled Poles of Buffalo by Frederic Almy, February 4, 1911, price 25 cents; VI. New Tenements and Old Shacks—St. Louis, by Roger N. Baldwin, February 18, 1911, price 10 cents.

Everybody is struggling to reach the light, sometime, somewhere; and those who would remain down deep in the dark, indifferent to better ideals, should be coaxed and pushed and helped until the inertia is overcome. Unless we feel that all of the thirty nationalities of our large cities have to be dealt with as members of one big family, irrespective of color or creed, we fail of our mission and might better choose some other work.

Is it worth while? If it is not worth while for the other fellow, it is worth while for one's self to have helped along in the work of God, "the cause of man," —evolution, economic and spiritual. To make the most of present-day conditions and surroundings, and to awaken desire for better standards of living, is our work. So we start out with good will towards all men, a speaking knowledge

IN LOCKHARDT COURT.

Mrs. Von Wagner interviewing an old woman.

of several languages, the experience in sickness of four years' hospital training, to meet and conquer the two great foes, ignorance and superstition, or tradition and self-love.

At the beginning of my work, twelve years ago, I was rudely made to realize that while I had some things to give, it was a difficult matter for some to receive. My first day as woman inspector was perhaps one of my hardest, because I had to adjust my theories to existing customs. By request of the doctor, I went to the home of an Irish family, an old ram-shackle cottage on a high hill, dirty and vermin infested; a child dying, a new baby expected any minute. The doctor thought that, while the child was probably doomed, the house should be made a little cleaner for the arrival of the newcomer.

Words fail to describe the chaos and pathos of the situation—the child in the kitchen in a cradle, lying on old garments, the pinched little face covered with flies; the emaciated body covered with soiled rags. On the floor, on chairs, everywhere, soiled clothes and pieces of old cloth; dirty dishes on the table, in the sink and on a broken-down stove; flies, flies everywhere! The dirt of ages on walls, ceilings, furniture; the mother sitting by the cradle drunk; the father arranging pipes and glasses for the anticipated wake, drunk also; sympathetic neighbors all around, partaking of the beer, helping to swell the lamentations; the air unbearably oppressive, and with it all, the sultry heat of a summer day.

For a minute I stood overcome. When I stated that I had been sent by the doctor to lend a hand and look after the sick child, a storm of opposition broke loose. "It is Divine Providence that the child shall die; I stand for no interference. One dead, and one born every year, so it has ben for seven years, and this one must go too. O, my baby!" More yelling and more drinking.

No moral persuasion would help here. A minute more and the drunken men would have put me out on the street. "All right," I said, "we will do what we can and leave the rest with God." I said it positively, put my handbag down and asked the sanest woman in the crowd to help me clean up; put on my apron and commanded all out, to give a chance to the baby. There was confusion and threatening, but I stood my ground. I managed to put the mother to bed, to sleep off the effects of liquor. The father was easily persuaded to lie down. Then work commenced. We repaired the fire box, heated some water and, after bathing the baby and reviving it with a little hot water and a few drops of brandy, the woman and I went to work, cleaned the kitchen and washed the child's linen. When that was done I left the woman in charge of the child, and went out to get some necessary articles to work with and telephone to the doctor, besides looking after several other sick babies, as we had at that time no district nurses.

It was several hours before I could return. Climbing back upon the hill in the evening, lo and behold most of my work had been undone; the mourners had returned, the pipes were being smoked, more beer and whiskey consumed, and the baby was almost lifeless. Righteous indignation does not express my feelings! Out, they had to go, and they went, through the front and back door, and

then I gave my attention to the little one, the mother interfering continually. "I tell ye it won't swallow another spoonful, it is going; I tell ye it won't draw another breath." And more like it. I just had to ignore her and do what had to be done.

Fortunately the doctor came in about ten o'clock, and with his help the woman was made to lie down once more in the next room, calling to her husband, "I tell ye she is going to kill that baby, that's what she is doing, and you sit there and watch her." After a while there was silence, and the "watchman," shamefacedly, was only too glad to follow his wife's example and retire.

Thank God I was alone with the baby. The doctor had given little hope, but it was a relief to have had his advice and help in smoothing the difficulties. Alone with the dying child in the dimly lighted kitchen, a sultry night, innumerable bugs and insects creeping from behind broken wall paper, and cracks, and crevices, roaches and bed bugs—shall I ever forget the horror of it! Sitting with the baby on my lap before the kitchen fire to keep the hot compresses on its little body, feeding, drop by drop, the barley water and stimulant, protecting it against flies and vermin with a piece of mosquito netting, from which continually I had to scoop off the bugs falling upon us from the ceiling.

To intensify the horrors of the night, mice and rats began running across the floor, and there was nothing to do but keep my feet on another chair as all my attention had to be devoted to the baby, which by this time showed the symptoms of approaching death. Its whole little body became rigid, the eyes seemed broken, a yellowish fluid exuded from the lids, and there was no pulse at the wrist.

I could not give up the child. I wrapped it up in a blanket, took it out in the garden, walking and praying that it might live. And it lived and began to breathe and get warm; and there out of doors I sat with the baby in my arms until five in the morning, watching the sun rise on a new day. Then the mother appeared on the scene, a pitiful sight, sullen, untidy, dirty. Placing the child in the carriage, I talked to her one solid hour. What didn't I say! The woman cried and saw her duties in a different light, promising by all that was holy to take care of the little life and save it from an early grave. After her promise to care for the child according to instructions, I walked home—there were no cars at that time in that part of the city—for I needed a bath, clean clothes and some breakfast before beginning another day's work.

The following day conditions of home and mother were made more favorable for the arrival of the unborn, and for the first time in her married life there were two living children in the family! The spell was broken and five born since have lived. While the woman never became a very clean housekeeper, she developed into an excellent mother and nurse; the children were kept clean, and the father in his leisure hours did most of the housecleaning. The new baby was named for me, and the children felt they had a claim on me, especially the two elder ones. Drink was practically eliminated from the household; the man may have had a glass of beer with his supper some days, but other than that I never saw signs of it.

During my first week of work, seeing

IN MURILLO COURT.
The babies are always a bond of sympathy.

a child in convulsions in an Italian family, I said to the mother, "Quick, get some hot water to put the child into a bath." She replied, "What do you know about children? I guess I know what to do—a mother of twelve children." "Well, then, send one of the twelve for a doctor. Where are they?" (not seeing one). "I buried eleven." "Well," I said, "you will bury the twelfth if you sit still and wait for the child to recover without help." Without as much as "by your leave" I made a fire, a good mustard bath which brought the sufferer comfort, and perhaps saved the woman her last child. I then went out and sent for a doctor to give medical aid. The mother, who was then quite violently opposed to my advice, later became a very dear friend; the boy is living yet; two more children have been born and lived, because the woman was willing to be taught the care and feeding of infants, besides cleanliness of body and home.

A child had just died in a tenement consisting of two light and two dark rooms. The windows were all on one side and it was absolutely impossible to establish a current of air. The father was given to much drink; the mother took in washing. A beautiful baby, the pet of the family I had known so well, was dead (pneumonia). "How did it happen?" "O Mrs. Von Wagner, it was not my fault. I have been up day and night, never took off my clothes, never opened a window since the baby was sick."

The people had sent for me to care for the child, but could not find me as I was out of the city at the time, and the baby had to die from ignorant care and fear of fresh air. I could not then tell the poor mother the reason why, but later I did, to protect the health of the others. The father, who earned good wages when sober but spent most of it in saloons, was standing by the little coffin, broken-hearted. I went up and talked to him, told him how sad it was that a chance had not been given the beautiful baby; nobody could know how much was lost to the family and to the world; what a great gift from heaven it was to care for a little soul, and that one day we should have to answer for it. The man put his hand on the little cold forehead and then and there made a vow to give up drink—and he kept it. The family moved into a light, airy flat, and the children got a chance for better health and education.

Another experience that stays in my memory was of an Italian tenement in a basement, the kitchen containing a long table, benches close to the wall, chairs hanging upon the walls to make room for the affairs of day; in one corner a small bed in which was a child sick of diphtheria. In an adjoining room, on a high bed, the mother was sick of cholera morbus, and this, the family bedroom, had to serve as the storeroom as well, as the cheap tenements have no closet room for food or clothes.

On ropes overhanging the bed, sausages, peppers, dried fruit, and other eatables; underneath the bed, flour, and macaroni; tomato balls—a preserve of tomato made into a tight hard ball—rolled under the bed in their natural state, and from them pieces were broken off every day for soup or macaroni, plus cobwebs, dirt, and vermin. The toilets were in the yards, necessitating the use of vessels in bedrooms. The doctor whom I called in to see the patients, on being shown the unhygienic condition of food stuffs in the bedrooms, became nauseated and had to leave the room. The family was persuaded to let the child go to the Contagious Disease Hospital; the kitchen was fumigated; all eatables were removed from the bedroom, and the woman was cared for until recovery. With the aid of the father and willingness to be instructed, more sanitary ways of living resulted, the family being persuaded to leave the unhealthful basement and move above ground.

Almost always the Italians rent a tenement large enough to sublet several bedrooms, each having as many beds as the space allows, two or three double beds with a few cot beds between, according to the size of the room. To economize space, the doors are taken off the hinges and put in the cellar and a thin curtain is put in their place. When asked how many men are kept, the number given equals the number of beds. Ex-

perience has taught us that the number of boarders accommodated is far in excess, as many as two or three men sharing one double bed. Very often this number has to be doubled, as there are different occupants of these beds from the day and night shifts of workers.

Night inspections of such premises prove these facts and aid effectually in eliminating overcrowding. While the subletting of rooms swells the income and bank account, the family life deteriorates morally and physically and untold harm is done to the growing children. In talking to the children about having to help with the burdens of the household duties, they often confide their troubles and complain to me. Little girls have said, "The men are nasty and lift up our skirts." Many children have contracted venereal troubles by having to use toilets in common with ten or twelve boarders.

Being present at the funeral of an Italian woman who had died of consumption, leaving nine children and ten boarders, the oldest daughter, crying, said, "She had to kill herself for the men. My father made her keep them long after it was necessary." The bank account was more precious than the mother's life, and the children were the sufferers.

A baby very sick, no doctor, no nurse —I tried to persuade the family to call in a doctor to save the little one, to feed it properly, to take it out of the hot kitchen. The father said, "Never mind, baby die, it's all right, my wife she makee another." But the doctor and the nurse do get there in spite of objections. Sometimes their advice and ministrations are accepted; other times refused, and another life is lost.

The Italians are very independent, so far as their ways of living are concerned and in obeying city ordinances. Most of them are thrifty; their main object seems to be to save all they earn, while on the other hand they are anxious to get all the material help possible, whether needed or not. Mutual helpfulness is not much practiced among them. Often in a tenement, when some woman was sick and a little girl was standing by a sink trying to do a washing, or leaning far out of the window to hang up clothes, I would go from floor to floor asking for help. The neighbors would reply, "Who will help me when I'm sick?" "Have too much work myself", etc. Some lessons in moral obligations have to be taught right here.

Too frequently the Italian landlord cannot be coaxed to comply with tenement house laws, but must be threatened; and even that is useless when he has become a political boss and dares defy the laws.

My experience in another home was instructive. It was a very dirty tenement house, sadly neglected, occupied by colored families having three rooms each. On entering, I saw sacks and sacks of rags and women and children sorting them. Becoming acquainted with the circumstances of the family first, I begged permission to inspect the rooms. It was granted, except that I was asked not to go into one of the bedrooms as the husband was sick in bed. As the wife had seemed anxious to hide the fact, I was just as anxious to be allowed to know the nature of the sickness. After persuading her to let me see if I could give any aid, I entered and found a case of smallpox, with the people sorting rags and taking them away. The man was promptly removed; the premises were fumigated; all rags, bedding, and clothes were burned; the loss was made good, and the whole house, both halls and rooms, was kalsomined. The people had to discontinue their business of sorting rags in the tenements; they were told of the danger of infection and acquainted with the law.

One woman, pleased to get into a new house, took the dark room flat because of the difference in price. When told of the danger to the family's health, she admitted that she would have to move because the gas bill was equal to the difference in rent. Besides, all were suffering more or less with eye trouble, especially the mother, who every time she went on the street had to become accustomed to daylight. Having to get eyeglasses for herself and children she lost considerably in health and money, in her effort to save rent. If the woman had known the value of sunshine and light

A WOMAN'S INFLUENCE IS NEEDED HERE.

she would never have moved into a dark tenement.

Oh, these basement rooms! One I remember well. It was damp, but cheap; the family occupied the kitchen, two women boarders the small bedroom. On one side the diminutive windows opened on a yard, on the other side the doors opened into a dark damp cellar, part of it partitioned off for men boarders. One cold winter day I found the head of the family, a consumptive, lying on a small bed in the kitchen, rocking a cradle by his side. The wife was away in the mills, working to support all. A small fire burned in the stove; the windows were tightly closed; moisture condensed on walls and woodwork; green mould was everywhere—on the walls in the kitchen, bedroom, cellar; even the mattress the sick man was lying on was soaking wet except the upper layer—a terrible dead, chilly air. But a fire, and at the same time an open window, would have seemed to the man like wasting precious fuel, as it is not the custom among these people to open a window at night or during the winter.

And so there was the seventh funeral from this small basement, which looked innocent enough from the outside, even clean; but the grade of the yard was toward the house—no drain, all water soaking under the cellar. After a death the family usually moved out; another one was ready to move in, every one of them losing some member with lung trouble. The tenants earned very little. They thought to save all they could by subletting the only bedroom and even part of the cellar. Man and wife together hardly earned eight dollars a week—sometimes less. All living there were sick, more or less, with bronchitis, rheumatism, and tuberculosis.

The seventh funeral ended the chapter. At my request, the Board of Health vacated this "death trap" for all time. The family, with the aid of the charities, was helped to move into healthier surroundings, and cared for. If the tenants had known that dampness undermines health and in the long or short run spells death, they would have paid a little more rent and lived above ground.

My first day among Slavic tenants made me go out on the street and weep. It tempted me to pray for an earthquake to take us all down! What could I do single-handed, teaching the art of living to those who only struggled to exist? The largest family occupied the kitchen, with two beds and a cradle, benches around the walls, children everywhere—on the bed, on the floor, in the cradle; the stove full of kettles (all coffee kettles), and one large soup pot with the individual pound or half-pound of meat for each family or boarder.

But this is wash day. Wash day happens often during the week, and the woman who sublets the rooms, and incidentally looks after the babies, is rocking a cradle back of her with her foot while washing away at the tub. She must wash for the boarders, cook their food and mend their clothes. The heat and oppressive atmosphere from so much cooking and washing in those close quarters on a summer day, the moisture of the steam and the stale bedroom air on a winter day when all windows are closed, are beyond description. Small wonder that the babes die and the women become consumptives! No wonder that the women say, "Too much trouble to have children, too many boarders;" and the midwives are kept busy, many of the women dying as a result of their mal-practice.

Out of the kindness of their hearts, the baby gets a glass of beer with the rest of the family, or a little wine or whiskey because it is so pale and weak, "to make it strong"; or, as one of the women said when I stopped her from pouring a whole glass of beer down the baby's throat, "It is only for good luck." The others had all died and she did want to save this one.

Behind the scenes, as it were, through gaining their confidence and being able to speak their language, one hears the tale of woe of the women, veritable beasts of burden, and learns of the brutality of the men, who use the knut (whip) if their wives are sick in bed and not able to cook for the boarders. In one instance, I stopped a man from beating his wife two hours after childbirth because she was unable to get up and prepare dinner. There were seven men to cook for.

Often when the woman is a wreck from overwork in carrying heavy loads of wood on her back from the docks up the hilly streets to her home to save the price of fuel, in addition to doing all the rest of her work, if you insist that her husband, who by this time has a bank account, shall pay for proper care and food for her, he says, "No, sir, she is no more good to me, she'll go in the box." Only the arm of the law helps here—seldom moral persuasion. Frequently the successor of the wornout wife is already installed and mistress of the man.

If in the instances cited I have confined myself to the faults in human nature and a wrong social condition, it is not because I have not been able to see the good and beautiful—these are everywhere, among all nationalities, side by side with the bad.

A bright Jewish girl watching my work, going with me from the cellar to the top of the house to see what I was doing, asked, "Lady, is the Board of Health your husband?" She had come from New York and had seen only men inspectors. "I am so glad it is a woman this time," the mother said, and asked a good many questions regarding the health of her children.

The titles given me in my work have been various; to the boys I was the "city"; to the girls the "health-lady"; to many Slavic women, the "Mrs. Board of Health"; and to one dear Irish friend, the "Lady of the Sanctuary" (meaning sanitary).

The request to come on a Sunday when the boys and girls are home, or in the evenings when the husband is home, to take a meal underground (basement), or under the roof (attic), or somewhere else, is gladly complied with, as personal touch helps much toward promoting confidence and establishing friendly relations. In return, my evenings at home were attended mostly by my friends from the tenements. Much to my surprise, the people who thought it was quite necessary to have in their best room, cheap imitation lace curtains, glaring colored

carpets, and painful chromos (which are so easily obtained from the ever-present "installment plan" man in tenement houses), admired my inexpensive furnishings, from the cheese-cloth window curtain to the social cup of coffee. Prices and recipes were asked, patterns taken, and many pleasant hours spent in mutual benefit.

"What do we have to teach?" you ask. Is there anything that is not to be taught? The people must know the laws of health; the mothers must be taught how to get that health in the home. They must know the principles of sanitation as applied practically in the home: cleanliness of air, of food, of body, of rooms, of kitchen utensils; right removal of all dirt and dust, especially the care of garbage; the dangers of defective plumbing; symptoms of declining health; defective eye sight, hearing, the beginning of tuberculosis, etc. With each family the situation differs. The more knowledge, plus common sense, the worker has, the better for the people. We give and we take, because we can also learn much from those we meet.

THE RELATION OF ECONOMICS TO THE LAW

FRANK J. GOODNOW
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Blackstone in his Commentaries on the Laws of England, which was first published in 1765, defines law as "a rule of civil conduct prescribed by the supreme power in a state, commanding what is right and prohibiting what is wrong." In explaining the last part of this definition he says:

> Those rights then which God and nature have established, and are therefore called natural rights, such as are life and liberty, need not the aid of human laws to be more effectually invested in every man than they are; neither do they receive any additional strength when declared by the municipal laws to be inviolable. On the contrary no human legislature has power to abridge or destroy them. . . . For that legislature in all these cases acts only, as was before observed, in subordination to the great lawgiver, transcribing and publishing his precepts. So that, upon the whole, the declaratory part of the municipal law has no force or operation at all, with regard to actions that are naturally and intrinsically right or wrong.

Blackstone evidently conceived of law as the formation of certain abstract and universally applicable principles of justice, which man by searching could find out. His definition of law has been criticised by later authorities, not so much because it attempted to impart to law the characteristic of permanence, as because it confounded law and ethics, ethics being regarded as embracing the rules of individual conduct which man regardless of legal sanctions was expected to follow.

Blackstone wrote more than fifty years before the theory of evolution had been perceived or formulated, and under the influence of what, in place of a better term, we may designate as the theological attitude toward life. The essential characteristic of this attitude was that it was based on the assumption of a divine revelation of the truth, which broadly speaking was considered to be applicable to all conditions and to all times. The close connection between religion and early law had made it seem natural for the lawyers of the eighteenth century to conceive of law as having some of the sanctity of a divine command, and as being the expression, imperfect it is true, of eternal principles whose apprehension by the human mind was possible through a process of reasoning largely *a priori* in character.

Brooks Adams, writing more than a century later, says in Centralization and the Law:

> Legal right, broadly, is what the dominant force in society, deflected more or less by opposition, requires or authorizes.

Mr. Adams evidently conceives of law

as not in its nature having any close connection with what we have been accustomed to assume to be abstract justice, but as being the determination, reached as the result of compromise between social clases whose interests are conflicting, of the relations which those classes shall have to one another, so far as concerns the recognition which shall be accorded to them by the supreme social power, *i. e.*, the state.

Which of these views is true is really a much more important question than at first blush appears. For if we are ethically inclined, as we must assume ourselves to be, else the whole basis of social organization disappears, we are bound to endeavor to approximate in our law a realization of the principles of that abstract justice which we assume to exist, and we must resist with all our force attempts to depart from our ideal which are based on motives of temporary political or social expediency. If, on the other hand, we do not assume that there are eternal principles of justice, but accept frankly that the law does not really attempt to realize any such principles, but is on the contrary rather the result of the compromise of conflicting class interests, and is primarily governed by considerations of political or social expediency more or less perfectly apprehended, no ethical scruples need stand in the way of realizing what seems to be in the light of existing conditions politically or socially expedient.

That Mr. Adams was more nearly right in his views than Blackstone would appear not susceptible of successful refutation. The making of law has in the past been in the hands of the property owning and employing classes, since democratic government, which is theoretically at any rate the exercise of legislative power by the propertyless and employed classes, is, comparatively speaking, of only very recent origin. Without accusing the property owning and employing classes of conscious selfishness, we may say that judges belonging by birth and association to those classes and legislatures chosen by them are apt, without being conscious of the fact, to consider that the preservation of the social system under which they live is absolutely necessary to the existence of all social order, and therefore are also apt to consider that the law must be framed so as to favor the preservation of that system. This attitude on the part of judges and legislatures is not inconsistent with their honest belief that, in framing the law so as to be in the interest of the classes they represent, they are really endeavoring to apply those eternal principles of justice which so many judges and legislatures have in the past felt to be the basis of the law. Furthermore, it cannot be denied that often what was deemed to be just was, at the time it was made law, socially and politically expedient.

What has so far been stated in a rather abstract form may perhaps be made clearer by certain concrete examples. It is well known that early in the last century there were introduced into our law three rules governing the relations of employer and employed, which have had a most important effect upon the lot of the working classes. These rules were, first, that the employed could not recover damages from the employer for an injury which was due in any degree to his own negligence; second, that he could not recover for an injury due to the negligence of a co-servant, and third, that if knowing that there was danger in continuing at his work he still remained at work, he assumed the risk and therefore could not recover for an injury resulting from the dangerous conditions of which he had knowledge. These three rules, called the contributory negligence rule, the co-servant rule, and the assumption of the risk rule, received widespread application at a time when both the judges were by reason of birth or association more in sympathy with the class of employers than with that of the employed, and when, because of our developing industrial life, it was socially expedient to favor the employer in order to encourage the investment of capital in industrial enterprises. Their adoption was therefore only natural, if we assume that law is rather the result of the compromise of conflicting class interests, than the expression of eternal principles of justice. Furthermore, assuming that

there are such principles, it is difficult to comprehend how they were applied when these rules of law were formulated. For we can hardly refrain from inquiring why it is just to relieve the employer from all liability where he as well as the employe has been negligent, where he, rather than the employe, has chosen the servant whose negligence caused the injury, and where it is he, rather than the employe, who can control the dangerous conditions the risk of which the employe is deemed to have assumed.

If now we admit that Brooks Adams is, broadly speaking, right in his definition of the law, we may, freed from the reproach of immorality or of departure from eternal principles of justice, endeavor to ascertain, with the aid of the faculties with which we may be endowed, what, in the social and economic conditions in which we live, is demanded by considerations of social, political, and economic expediency.

Now lawyers and judges constitute the class which probably has the most potent influence on the making of the law, whether by the courts or by the legislatures. By American custom those on the bench are chosen from those at the bar. It is a matter, therefore, of the greatest importance that education for the bar shall include something more than the study of mere legal literature. The lawyer who as advocate is to influence the decisions of the bench and the actions of legislatures, and as judge or legislator is to make the law, should study systematically at some time in his career the economic history and conditions of the country in the shaping of whose law he is to aid. This knowledge he will not obtain in sufficient amount if he confines himself to judicial decision and legal treatise. For, unfortunate as it is, it is none the less true that our ordinary legal literature as a general thing treats economic history and conditions with contempt, if it treats them at all, and is still quite generally permeated with such notions of eternal principles of justice as are exemplified by the doctrines of natural rights and social contract. There is perhaps no subject whose distinctive literature has been less influenced by the evolutionary idea than the law. Eternal principles of universal application are, as a rule, still the basis of most legal treatises and the reliance of most lawyers and judges. Apart from that branch of the law which is known in the United States as constitutional law, little attempt is made to show the gradual development of specific legal principles. None at all is made to show the influence upon such principles of the social and economic conditions in existence at the time they were being formulated. The ordinary lawyer or judge who is called upon either to influence or make the law is not, as a result of the distinctly professional training which he has received, prepared for the work which he has undertaken, and the development of the law suffers as a consequence.

The disadvantage of such conditions is peculiarly marked in a country like the United States, where written constitutions impose limitations upon legislative activity, the extent and effect of which are to be determined by the courts. In the case of the United States constitution these limitations are practically unalterable, except as a result of a change in judicial interpretation. It is therefore extremely desirable that the courts both be acquainted with the economic and social conditions sought to be regulated by the legislative acts whose constitutionality is to be determined, and be willing to accord them their proper influence. It will be disastrous in the extreme if, on the supposition that there are principles of universal application, courts adopt a view which is derived from a consideration of what are considered to be such principles. For their decisions made in such a way may be absolutely unsuited to the conditions to which they have to be applied.

The comprehension and application of the principle that a rule of law should be framed in view of the conditions existent at the time of its formulation, and as a matter of fact is largely the result of compromise between conflicting class interests, are finally peculiarly desirable at a time like the present, when great

changes in economic conditions are taking place and are taking place with remarkable rapidity. Rules of law with regard, *e. g.*, to what is restraint of trade, which were developed in a period of intense competition between independent trade rivals, are inapplicable where those rivals are now living in harmony under the protection and management of one great corporation.

It is therefore peculiarly necessary in this country, and at this time, that lawyers and judges should have an extensive knowledge of economic conditions. The acquisition of such knowledge should be a part of their training for their profession. It may be added also that just as the lawyer must, to be successful, keep up his legal studies after admission to the bar, so the really great and successful lawyer and judge must keep up his economic studies, if he is to wield the proper influence he should have on the development of the law.

ANOTHER STATE IN LINE

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK
NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE

As a preliminary to the opening of state legislatures in more than thirty states, another victory for working women in the courts is auspicious. In December the Supreme Court of Michigan handed down a decision upholding the constitutionality of the recently enacted fifty-four hours law for women.

This decision carries us a step further on our march towards the goal of conserving the health of working girls and women—a march still wavering and far from its terminus—upon which England started the world more than a century ago.

The Michigan law, now held constitutional, was enacted in 1909, one of the harvest of laws reaped after the favorable (1908) decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Oregon ten-hours case.

The Michigan law is, in some important respects, more advanced than any legislation for working women yet held constitutional. It provides that women may not be employed more than an average of nine hours in any one day, and never more than ten hours in any day. It prohibits more than fifty-four hours' work in one week. It includes not only women working in factories and laundries, but also those employed in any store or mercantile establishment, or in any clothing, dressmaking, or millinery establishment.

The constitutionality of the law was attacked by the International Lock and Seal Company, a corporation which manufactures seals used by railroad companies and shippers of freight for locking the doors of freight cars.

The attack upon the law expressed itself in the two old war cries, familiar in every attempt to discredit such legislation in the courts: that the law was unconstitutional, first, because it interfered with the laborer's property, that is, her right to labor and contract with her employer; second, because it was "class" legislation.

It is worth our while to examine these two arguments somewhat in detail, since they are not at all local or theoretical, but apply directly to the practical business of protecting girls and women from overwork.

First, then, as to the claim that a law limiting women's hours of work is unconstitutional because it interferes with their freedom to contract and work at will.

So far as the federal constitution is concerned, the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Oregon case, settled this matter for the first time and for all time. The court held, as is well known, that the states may, under their police powers, interfere with individual property rights in many ways in the interest of public health and welfare, even though the fourteenth amendment specifically guarantees to every

person possession of "life, liberty, and property." This well-known phrase was inserted into the constitution for the protection of slaves, newly freed, and by one of life's ironies had been so distorted as to deprive working people of protection from exploitation in the name of their so-called "right" to contract for any number of hours. In the Oregon decision the judges of our highest court rejected the fiction of the free contract, as regards the working woman, and declared that her physical nature and the evil effects of overwork upon her and her future children "justify legislation to protect her from the greed, as well as the passion, of men."

This was the first great judicial victory for working women, freeing them from the misinterpretation of the fourteenth amendment of the federal constitution.

They were freed from a like incubus in a state constitution by last year's decision in the Illinois ten-hours case. We must bear in mind that these laws limiting hours of work must be in harmony not only with the federal, but with state constitutions. An earlier Illinois law for women met shipwreck precisely on that section of the Illinois state constitution which is identical with the fourteenth amendment, guaranteeing individual liberty. Illinois had to wait fifteen years before her supreme court, following the Oregon precedent, reversed the earlier decision, and declared in 1909 that the ten-hours day, whether it invades property rights or not, is a legitimate, because a necessary, exercise of the police powers of the state.

Now Michigan shows us an easier method out of the dilemma, by avoiding it altogether. The bogie of the fourteenth amendment of the federal constitution was laid by the Oregon decision. The bogie of a state constitution need not arise at all! It did not arise in the Michigan case, because the constitution of Michigan contains a section specifically authorizing the Legislature to enact laws "relative to the hours and conditions under which women and children may be employed."

Here we have a perfectly feasible and reasonable way of avoiding a danger. Let every state constitution which does not contain it, copy section 29 of art. v of the revised constitution of Michigan, and the obstacle will automatically disappear upon which have split the only state laws limiting women's working hours which the courts have held unconstitutional, in Illinois, New York, and Colorado.

The second point of attack upon the Michigan law—that it is class legislation—involves a much larger and more fundamental issue; one, indeed, at the basis of our democracy, the right of the legislature, undeterred by the courts, to use its discretion in determining the scope of laws. In their review of legislation, it is the function of the courts to determine whether the legislature had any reasonable grounds for its action; not whether the laws as enacted are inherently and in themselves good or bad, but whether the legislature was justified in its conclusions as embodied in the laws.

Obviously, in enacting any laws limiting hours of labor, the legislature must use its discretion in choosing among various alternatives, such as the number of hours to be fixed, the persons to be protected, and other similar points. Opponents of these laws have usually raised the cry that they were unfairly discriminatory, because certain persons or classes of persons were included or left out.

In the Illinois case, for instance, it was claimed that the law was unfair "class" legislation, because it included women working in factories and laundries, not in other occupations. In the Michigan case the law was attacked as "class" legislation because a different class of workers is omitted.

In both these cases the court performed a great service by upholding and reasserting the freedom of the legislatures to use their discretion as to the scope of the laws. "If all laws were held unconstitutional because they did not embrace all persons," said the Illinois court (quoting another decision), "few would stand the test." And it concluded that the law was not class

legislation, although it did single out those workers who seemed to the legislature most in need of protection. The Michigan court again throws the responsibility for the scope of the law squarely upon the discretion of the legislature, quoting with approval from Cooley's Constitutional Limitations on this point, "the legislature must judge." The law cannot be called unconstitutional because "it does not apply to all callings."

This emphasis upon the freedom of the legislature all lovers of democracy must heartily welcome, even though legislatures, like all human agencies, are liable to err and prove false to their trust.

II.

The freedom of legislatures is essential in a democracy; it carries with it responsibilities.

In the law at bar the Michigan Legislature has been culpably at fault. One of its sections is thoroughly vicious. It totally exempts from the protection of the statute all women "engaged in preserving perishable goods in fruit and vegetable canning establishments."

No condemnation can be too severe for the total exemption of this industry. On this point we thoroughly endorse all that counsel for the International Lock and Seal Company says regarding the Legislature's action: "that they were not looking to the health of the women, but rather the preservation of fruits and vegetables. It is purely the spirit of commercialism, without any thought of the health of the women or the number of hours that they shall be employed; in other words, the provision means simply this, that in order to protect the commercial interests of that class of citizens who are engaged in preserving perishable goods and who invested their money in canning establishments, (the canneries) may work women any number of hours in order that their profits may be increased and their business not interfered with."

In many states, the canners have claimed what they succeeded in inducing the Michigan Legislature to believe and enact into law—that their business is so different from all others that they must have special privileges over other manufacturers and longer working hours. It is true indeed that the canners cannot stay the hand of nature, nor delay the sudden ripening of crops which at times fills the canneries with a glut of raw materials. But no impartial observer can learn of the management of the canners, their lack of efficiency in providing beforehand for their emergencies, without realizing that they have simply rested on their alleged necessity for overtime work, and devoted to the management of the workers none of the skill which has perfected the technical mechanical processes of the business.

The outrageous duration of working hours in the canneries is a matter of common knowledge. Renewed investigation last summer showed that in New York state, where the ten-hours law has never been enforcible in the canneries, women were worked fifteen hours a day on successive days of the week. This continues under a management so inefficient that the burden of proof still rests on the canners to show that they cannot carry on their business without so exploiting women's strength and health.

The Michigan law, by freeing the canners from all legislative restrictions as to working hours, simply invites a repetition of such conditions if they do not already exist.

Just because the canners have greater difficulties than other manufacturers in obtaining their raw material regularly, the workers need the protection of specific laws. On the other hand, "by the famous might that lurks in reaction and recoil", such laws protecting the workers have been found in all civilized countries the best stimuli to improvements in management and efficiency.

After all, the emergencies in the canning trade are not essentially different from those which may arise in all businesses. With the fickleness of modern fashions and the extraordinarily sudden changes, the market for most commodities is precarious. All the articles of men's as well as of women's clothing—garments, neckwear, footwear, orna-

ments, jewelry—the furniture of our houses, the service upon our tables, sports like bicycling a few years ago and motoring today, the very songs of the music halls, echoing in the streets and in the innumerable musical instruments whose manufacture develops from year to year—all these things are subject to changes in fashion more violent than a former generation could dream of.

Are we, then, driven to conclude that all these manufacturers must have special concessions and privileges of overtime, allowed by law, such as the canneries claim? No. In this country we have with single exceptions recorded in our legislation (and are now facing the problem of enforcing) our contention that, so far as working women and children are affected, the seasonal necessities must be provided for by good management within reasonable working hours; that, in a word, production must be limited to conserve the workers' health and welfare, which are the health and welfare of the nation.

In exempting the canneries, then, from all restrictions, the Michigan Legislature took a step backward. As the Supreme Court of Nebraska said in a fine decision nine years ago, upholding the women's ten-hours law in Nebraska:

"The moment the police power is destroyed or curbed by fixed or rigid rules, a danger will be introduced into our system which would be far greater than the results arising from an occasional mistake by legislative bodies in exercising such power."

THE PREMIUM ON ABNORMALITY

SCOTT NEARING
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Could we, in pursuance of De Quincy's advice, select our ancestors, a cursory examination of modern social facts would, I am sure, induce those of us who yearn for the comforts of life to join the ranks of the defectives, dependents, or delinquents, rather than to eat our lot with the family of an unskilled American workman.

Such a choice would be inevitable, because the child who is being cared for in a modern child-saving institution is not only assured of a constant supply of the necessaries of life, but is actually receiving more of these necessaries than the child in the family of an unskilled workingman. For the sake of clearness we shall ignore the problems of mal-nutrition, insanitation, overcrowding, sweated work, and street life, which, while universal in the homes of the poor, are wholly absent in the modern child-saving institution. This gives, at the outset, a handicap in favor of the home. Nevertheless, by contrasting the actual expenditures in each case, I purpose to show that the child in the institution is better supplied with the economic necessaries of life than is the child in the unskilled worker's home.

The most recent investigation of wages covered the 9,000 employes in the Bethlehem Steel Company's plant at South Bethlehem, Pa. Of these workers, thirty per cent were receiving $1.50 a day or less, while the wages of sixty per cent were less than $2 a day. As this showing in the Bethlehem Steel Works is very similar to conditions described in Pittsburgh by the Pittsburgh Survey, we may safely accept these wage figures as typical of wages in the steel industry at large. Hence, conclusions based on an analysis of the wages of unskilled labor in South Bethlehem may with justice be applied to the families of unskilled laborers in many other sections of eastern United States.

These wage figures are cited merely to establish the facts. The personal experience of every reader will furnish abundant proof of the statement that unskilled labor wages in the eastern part of the United States range from $1.25 to $2, centering about $1.50.

The next point that must be estab-

lished is the relation between $1.50 per day ($450 a year) and the income of the average child in such a family. Accepting the usual "man, wife, and three children under fourteen" family as standard, and employing the figures of the United States Department of Agriculture (man—1, Woman—.8, Children —.2 to .9), $450 per year for such a family provides $128.57 per year per adult man and $77.14 for the average child (.6 of a man).

The children of the 2,700 South Bethlehem steel workers who were earning $1.50 per day would therefore be required to live on not more than $77.14 per year, provided, first, that there was no stoppage of wage due to sickness, accident, or unemployment; and, second, that there were not more than three children in the family. Any unemployment or any addition to the family would still further decrease this meager sum. For these employes receiving $2 per day ($600 per year) the amount per child would be $102.84. The children of such families, in cases where their share was not squandered or unwisely expended by their parents, would therefore receive between $77.14 and $102.84 annually as their rightful share of family income.

How do these sums compare with the amounts expended by public and private philanthropy for the care of (1) dependent children, (2) defective children, and (3) delinquent children?

Between the $77.14 which the dollar-and-a-half man with a family of three may spend on each child and the amount expended on children who have become public charges, a startling discrepancy appears. The expenditure for dependent children (orphans and homeless) seldom falls below $104 per year; in the case of the New York Orphan Asylum, (Hastings on the Hudson) it rises to $228.12 per year, while the Seybert Institute, Meadowbrook, Pa., spends $329.66 per child, and the Haddock Memorial Institution, Philadelphia, spends $521.56 annually. The abundant provision made for dependent children is almost equalled by that made for delinquent children. In the House of Refuge, Glen Mills, Pa., the per capita yearly expenditure for the 855 boys was (1909) $174.84, while for the 381 girls the expenditure was $225.73. Turning from these expenditures for dependents and delinquents to the expenditure for defectives (feeble-minded and epileptic) a like situation appears. The average expenditure in such institutions is considerably over $100 per capita per year, amounting in Indiana to $148.91, and in Vineland, N. J. to $230. The normal child in the family of a dollar-and-a-half-a-day laborer is therefore at a distinct disadvantage as compared with a child who is being cared for in an institution for abnormal children.

The wage statistics of the South Bethlehem Steel Works show that one-third of all of the workmen are receiving wages so low as to be unable to provide for their children an income equal to that of the child in the most ordinary child-saving institutions, while another third are able to provide per child only $102 a year, or an amount about equal to the average for child saving institutions ($104). Is such discrimination justifiable? Certainly not. The institutional children are at best a social cost, and at worst a social menace, while the children in the families of the unskilled workers will be called upon to assume the responsibilities of citizenship and to do the work of the new generation. The institution is supporting social wastage while the home is charged with the care of future society.

The argument, it will be remembered, has been placed entirely on the side of the home by assuming, (1) that insanitation, mal-nutrition, and overcrowding were eliminated; (2) that employment was continuous, and (3) that the income was not squandered. These assumptions are on their face ridiculous. The most casual observer knows of the prevalence of insanitation and congestion; sickness, accident, and stoppage of work are constant source of unemployment, while the ignorant among the poor are continually squandering their incomes through unwise expenditure, or dissipation.

The inequality between the normal and the abnormal children is accentuated by the inefficient systems of expenditure

and consumption in private homes and the large scale, efficient devices with which all modern institutions are equipped. The methods of domestic economy in the households of the poor are nearly always extravagant and frequently wasteful. Popular superstition to the contrary notwithstanding, this wastefulness is due to ignorance and inefficiency rather than to dissipation. Be the cause what it may, the effect on the child is the same, depriving him of even the scant standard which his $77.14 should provide. Sharply contrasted with the wastefulness of the home is the catering in institution, which is carried forward under the most auspicious conditions. Freed from the payment of taxes, and secured by private bequest against changing depreciation of their equipment, these social life-saving stations may devote all their energy to providing the most efficient and economical organization that money or ingenuity can secure. While the normal family struggles forward, shackled by ignorance and cramped by lack of capital, the institution prepared for the care of abnormal children is equipped by the best procurable modern systems of maintenance.

The child of an inquiring turn of mind, after due consideration of its ancestors, would therefore discover that society is not only expending more per capita upon its dependent, defective, and delinquent children than it is upon its normal children, but that the amounts expended upon these social charges are in some cases in excess of the amounts which a dollar-and-a-half-per-day man has to spend upon his entire family. If in addition to inquisitiveness this embryo being were gifted with reason, it would be but a short cry to the discovery that, if he wished to be well fed, clothed, and housed, it were infinitely more desirable to come into the world with a misshapen brain, or a tendency to predatory activities, or even to start life as an orphan, than to begin a losing fight in the family of a common laborer.

Even a child might observe that society is taking more effective care of the abnormal than of the normal children of its unskilled laborers,—that it is placing a premium on abnormality.

CO-OPERATIVE PHILANTHROPY

ADMINISTRATION OF RELIEF DURING THE STRIKE OF THE CHICAGO GARMENT WORKERS

ZELIE P. EMERSON and KATHARINE COMAN

Ethelbert Stewart of the Federal Tariff Commission, speaking recently before the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthrophy, said "that the relief funds of the striking Garment Workers, for the short space of time in which the system was planned, were administered in the most efficient and economical way that he had ever seen." The commissary stores, the form of strike benefit developed and used during the strike, have been called a permanent addition to organized labor's equipment.

The strike had not long been on before the leaders realized the pressing need of the utmost economy of resources, which must be limited, while the demands were great and ever increasing. John Fitzpatrick, president of the Chicago Federation of Labor, and Mrs. Raymond Robins, president of the Women's Trade Union League, early realized the extravagance of cash benefits, and concluded that the only adequate way to cope with the situation was to establish commissary stations in the districts most affected by the strike. Of the economy of the system there is no question; a well organized body is able to purchase supplies in quantity—always at wholesale price and sometimes at cost—and can frequently draw in this crisis, as it did, upon the good feeling of merchants and dealers and thus receive large contributions of bread, coal, and other commodities.

Accordingly, stores were established at 1,272 North Lincoln street, where

ONE OF THE COMMISSARY STORES DURING THE CHICAGO GARMENT WORKERS' STRIKE.

By a careful system of investigation supplies were given only to those in real need. The distribution was safeguarded by tickets, one of which is shown on another page. Over 32,000 people were aided, and many immigrants received incidental lessons in the relative nutritive values of foods.

GROCERIES WERE BOUGHT AT WHOLESALE.

most of the Poles and Lithuanians live; at 1,853 Blue Island avenue, in the heart of the Ghetto; at 1,015 Johnson street, in the Italian district, and at 610 West Fourteenth street, the Bohemian center. Mr. Cain of the Cigar Makers' Union, to whom the Chicago Federation of Labor paid a salary, and Mr. O'Neil, whose services were given by the firemen, purchased the supplies, while the four clerks of each store saw to distribution of the food under the direction of a superintendent.

The tickets, of which 500 were issued for each store for each of the six days of the week, were given out by Agnes Nestor of the Women's Trade Union League and Emmet Flood, organizer for the American Federation of Labor, to the fifty and more shop chairmen. Each chairman was responsible for a certain number and he gave out the tickets to those whose need was known to him. Each ticket, properly numbered and assigned, entitled the holder to a month's supply of food and fresh bread every day. In the first weeks of the strike the tickets called for supplies on two days of the week, but it was found impossible to handle so many people and the order was changed to once a week. When the cards were presented at the store and the week's supply of provisions was given out, the recipients signed receipts. This system made fraud impossible and no further investigation was necessary. Thus nearly 32,000 people were at least kept from starving. Incidentally a great many foreigners learned the nutritive value of articles of food hitherto unknown, such as beans and oatmeal. Hereafter they will probably demand a higher class of ordinary groceries than before.

James Mullenbach, whose experience in the relief work at Cherry Mine made his advice most valuable, helped Mr. Fitzpatrick and Mrs. Robins in planning the family rations, both as to quantity and nutritive value. The weekly rations for the variously sized families, with potatoes, and for the Italians, macaroni, follow:

FAMILY OF TWO PERSONS.

Bread	7 loaves
Sugar	2 lbs.
Oatmeal	1 pkge. (small)
Coffee	1 lb.
Beans	2 lbs.
Ham	8 lbs.

FAMILY OF THREE PERSONS.

Bread	11 loaves
Sugar	3 lbs.
Oatmeal	1 pkge. (large)
Coffee	1 1-2 lbs.
Beans	3 lbs.
Ham	10 lbs.

FAMILY OF FOUR PERSONS.

Bread	14 loaves
Sugar	4 lbs.
Oatmeal	2 pkgs. (small)
Coffee	2 lbs.
Beans	4 lbs.
Ham	8 lbs.

FAMILY OF FIVE PERSONS.

Bread	18 loaves
Sugar	5 lbs.
Oatmeal	2 pkgs. (large)
Coffee	2 1-2 lbs.
Beans	5 lbs.
Ham	10 lbs.

FAMILY OF SIX PERSONS.

Bread	20 loaves
Sugar	6 lbs.
Oatmeal	3 pkgs. (small)
Coffee	3 lbs.
Beans	6 lbs.
Ham	12 lbs.

Articles not listed in the regular supplies were furnished occasionally to afford variety, *e. g.* lard and sardines; but all luxuries were soon abandoned. Ham or corned beef was provided until Thanksgiving, when these were deemed too expensive and salt cod-fish and herring were substituted. By January 1 these, too, were given up and the diet was reduced to cereals, beans, coffee, and bread.

In all, twenty-two car loads of food and 200,000 loaves of bread were furnished. Here is the list of several amounts given out:

147,060 lbs. granulated sugar.
108,108 lbs. rice.
37,486 lbs. ground coffee compound.
16,725 lbs. roasted whole coffee.
103,973 lbs. navy beans.
52,859 lbs. rolled oats.
240 cases pancake flour.
57,331 lbs. lentils.
21,243 lbs. flour.
15,256 lbs. pearl barley.
569½ doz. tins syrup.
445 cases macaroni.
440 small packages macaroni.
12 cases tomato paste (250 tins in a case.)
416 2 lb. tins of tomatoes.
30½ cases ¼ lb. oiled sardines (100 tins each).
51 barrels imported Holland herring.
63 round shore herring.
180 cases mustard sardines (48 tins each).
40 cases condensed milk (small tins.)
258 cases condensed milk (large tins.)
185 cases boneless codfish (40 tins to a case.)
55 cases Pacific peas.
16 cases North Star peas.
45½ cases mackerel, in tins.
140 cases lima beans.

When the stores were first started, people who had had experience in this sort of thing feared that there would be more or less crowding and cheating at the stores. Fortunately, owing to the self-respecting and law-abiding characteristics of the workers—for the most part foreign born—the rations were distributed quite as at any other shop. Each store had five hundred patrons a day, but they wasted no time picking and choosing. In two hours 148 people were served at one store.

With the stores taking care of the families, the next great problem was the best way to provide for single men and girls, of whom there were about 18,000, many of them absolutely alone in this country, without friends and unable to speak a word of English.

For ten weeks meal tickets for 3,000 people were issued weekly by the *Jewish Labor World* and the Jewish Working Men's Conference. They were issued in series good for seven fifteen-cent meals.

The Women's Trade Union League maintained a lunch room in a little Polish Bakery at 1,014 Noble street, where a cup of coffee and two cheese or ham sandwiches were given at cost to 200 single men and girls. Here the thoughtfulness of the strikers for one another was exhibited to a marked degree. When asked to take a second sandwich many would say, "I had breakfast this morning; give it to someone who needs it more than I." It was found that special provision must be made for certain little girls of strict training, Jews and Poles, who explained to Mrs. Robins with tears in their eyes that it was impossible for them to go into a restaurant where there were strange people because it would not be decent. A special fund was set aside for them, and each girl received two dollars a week to tide over the time of trouble.

The strike was well advanced when Christmas came, and many philanthropic people began to ask for names and addresses of strikers to whom they might send Christmas baskets. About 1,200 baskets were given out through churches, settlements, individuals, and the newspaper offices. On the Northwest Side, where the more radical element held its meetings and where the spirit of brotherhood was most intense, it was almost impossible to secure names for the distribution of baskets. When asked for addresses many would say, "Oh, my children are too little to know what Christmas means; give it to someone who has older children"; or, "My children have had many nice Christmases; give it to someone who needs it more than they do." At the suggestion of the chairman of one hall Christmas parties were given in several places of assembly. Christmas tree parties, with presents for the children and speeches and music for the older

people, were the order of the day. Everybody felt that at least the "spirit of Christmas" was not on strike.

The Citizens' Committee, appalled at the suffering of thousands of babies and children who could not eat the food furnished by the Commissary Department, started a milk fund. Mrs. Joseph F. Bowen made the first contribution of $1,000 and more than $8,000 was secured. An attempt was made to handle the milk supply at the stores, but as that would have necessitated more clerks and larger rooms, it was found advisable to have the milk delivered at the homes. It took some time to reach all the people in this way, because many did not know their streets and numbers and some, when they came to headquarters with credentials from their shop chairman, could not make themselves understood. However, at length everything was straightened out, and for two months 2,000 quarts of milk were delivered daily.

The Women's Trade Union League undertook to provide coal for needy families on the presentation of the grocery ticket or credential from the shop chairmen. This was delivered at the homes by one of the large retail dealers in quarter and half-ton lots, which the people understood must last at least two weeks. Many took special pride in making the supplies last longer by letting the fire go out at night and banking it with ashes when not in use for cooking. In cases of sickness, or when it was impossible to use soft coal in the stove, hard coal was sent, but not until the situation was investigated. Here again the difficulty with addresses arose, although great care was taken to get them correct, as the company refused to take responsibility for delivery except where the street, number, part of the house, cross street, and quarter of the city were given clearly. Delays in delivery, caused by mistakes in addresses, often occasioned suffering, and in any case it takes a long time to deliver 720 tons of coal in quarter-tons. The relief agencies are much indebted to the skill and patience of the retail company entrusted with this service.

The Strike Committee did not attempt to handle the gas bills, so where gas was turned off the people were told to buy candles. It is impossible to discover in how many houses gas was turned off, as the company did not record who were strikers among delinquents and who were not.

The special committee appointed to deal with rents and evictions decided to use the same methods as are used by the United Charities, and to pay only for moving and the first month's rent when the tenant was about to be evicted. In every instance a call was made upon the landlord, who was asked to wait for his money until the strike was over. In most cases the landlords, although themselves poor men, agreed to wait, the strikers promising to pay as soon as possible. There were only four actual evictions in the course of the four months the strike lasted, and two of these could have been prevented if the advice of the committee had been taken.

The people themselves helped solve the problem of housing single men and girls. Families living in four rooms, for instance, would move into two and give two to young strikers. Many hundreds were taken care of this way; and many landladies, although in need of money, moved by the plight of their lodgers, kept them, regardless of a debt which could not be paid for months. For those unprovided for in such ways, special arrangements were made through the shop chairmen.

The strike started on September 22 when the weather was still warm. Fortunately the cold held off until November. Then the children began to need warm clothes and there was no money to buy them. "Old clothes" supplies at various settlements were secured, but this resource was soon exhausted. Pitiful tales of the suffering by little newly-born babies were reported. Touched by these, Mrs. J. F. Morse issued an appeal for baby clothes and received and distributed 750 layettes, the need being investigated in every case. In addition, about seventy-five barrels of clothing and shoes were distributed from Northwestern Settlement, Henry Booth House, Hull House, and Mrs. Morse's home.

Only in the most pressing cases of destitution was money given, and then

only after a thorough investigation. Since the strike beneficiaries were not on the lists of the United Charities or of the Hebrew Charities, about 3,000 calls had to be made to determine just how the relief should be afforded. One visitor with a record of 800 visits in two months, in widely separated parts of the city, reported only five cases where relief was not, to her mind, absolutely necessary.

The Lying-In-Hospital and the Maternity Ward of the Presbyterian Hospital took care of an unusual number of maternity cases. Here also the Visiting Nurse's Association did its share of the work. However, taking everything into consideration, there was comparatively little sickness. Physicians familiar with the district observed that the people were unusually vigorous, and many of the strikers, because of long days spent in the open air and freedom from nervous strain, went back to work physically improved.

GIVING OUT SUPPLIES.

The picture shows the interior of a commissary store in the Bohemian quarter. The man in shirt sleeves is the manager. The girl at the table is checking off strike orders.

The sick people were not overlooked in the general plan of relief. As soon as any sickness was reported to headquarters, doctors, who gave their services, and of whom two were specialists, were called in. If the case needed hospital care, arrangements were at once made for the sufferer to be taken there. If the patient was able to remain at home, the visiting nurses were called in.

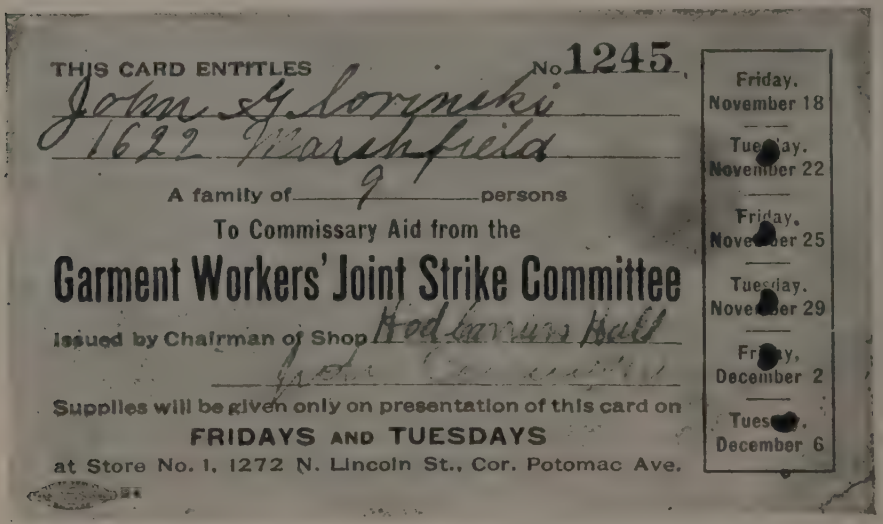
Even with this elaborate system of relief assistance was given only to the most destitute strikers. Thousands never came to the stores or strike headquarters, living on the hard-earned savings of years, or else borrowing money of their more fortunate relatives or friends and loading themselves down with debt.

The total amount spent in relief was divided as follows:

Commissary supplies	$43,875.06
Meal tickets	36,000.00
Milk	8,519.39
Coal	4,255.80
Money relief	1,552.00
Rent	150.00
Restaurant, Women's Trade Union League	700.00
Total	$95,052.25

Of this sum all but $25,000 was contributed by working people. The most considerable contributors were the Chicago Federation of Labor, the Woman's Trade Union League, the Jewish Working Men's Conference, the United Garment Workers, and the United Mine Workers of America.

Every strike has its demoralizing side, but so far as the giving of relief is concerned the strike of the Chicago garment workers was remarkably free from pauperizing tendencies. Many strikers were engaged in raising funds, sometimes by house to house canvass in the poorest quarters of the city, and they knew at what cost the money was given. All the garment workers understood that their resources were limited and that a desperate struggle was before them. Thus the spirit of self-help was stimulated rather than weakened. The *esprit de corps* developed by the sense of common purpose and mutual responsibility was one of the most extraordinary features of this great industrial war. When the strike was called off the people said: "We are tired of being beggars. We will go to work and save money, so that when we strike again we shall have funds of our own to live upon."


THIS CARD ENTITLES No. 1245

John G. Lovinski
1622 Marshfield

A family of 9 persons

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THE COMPENSATION COMMISSIONS

A REVIEW OF LEGISLATION PROPOSED IN SEVEN STATES WITH RESPECT TO WORK ACCIDENTS

P. TECUMSEH SHERMAN

NEW YORK

UNDER VARIOUS NAMES, SEVEN COMMISSIONS ARE REPORTING THIS WINTER TO THE LEGISLATURES OF ILLINOIS, MASSACHUSETTS, MINNESOTA, NEW JERSEY, OHIO, WASHINGTON, AND WISCONSIN ON THE SUBJECT OF COMPENSATION FOR WORK ACCIDENTS. LAST YEAR THE NEW YORK STATE COMMISSION MADE ITS REPORT, AND THE YEAR BEFORE THE PITTSBURGH SURVEY FOLLOWED 500 FATAL CASES BACK FROM THE CORONER'S OFFICE TO THE HOMES OF THE KILLED WORKERS, AND SHOWED BY ITS FINDINGS THAT UNDER THE COMMON LAW, IN A TYPICAL AMERICAN INDUSTRIAL DISTRICT, THE BURDEN OF WORK ACCIDENTS STAYS FOR THE MOST PART WHERE IT FIRST FALLS, ON THE SHOULDERS OF THOSE LEAST ABLE TO BEAR IT.

THE MOVEMENT HAS GATHERED HEAD NATIONALLY. CONSTRUCTIVE STATESMANSHIP IS NEEDED IN CRYSTALLIZING THE AROUSED PUBLIC SENTIMENT INTO FAIRER LAW. AT SUCH A JUNCTURE MR. SHERMAN HAS PERFORMED A PUBLIC SERVICE IN HIS COMPARATIVE REVIEW OF THE OFFICIAL REPORTS WHICH HAVE COME FROM THE PRESSES IN JANUARY AND FEBRUARY.

TO HIS ANALYSIS HE BRINGS AN EXPERIENCED JUDGMENT, BOTH AS LAWYER AND AS A FORMER SUCCESSFUL COMMISSIONER OF LABOR OF ONE OF THE GREAT INDUSTRIAL STATES—NEW YORK.

In order to understand the review of the reports of the various state commissions on the subject of employers' liability which follows, it is necessary first to comprehend wherein lies the difference between their recommendations and the existing laws, and the obstacles in the way of accomplishing the purpose of those recommendations

Under our common law an employer is liable to an employe in full damages, as for a *wrong*, for any accidental injury due to the employer's negligence or fault —unless the employe's negligence or fault contributes to it (defence of "contributory negligence"). For accidents due to the ordinary risks of the employment (defence of "assumed risks") or—with some exceptions—to the negligence of a co-employe (defence of "fellow-servant"), the employer is not liable. Under the common law, therefore, as interpreted by the courts during the past fifty years, injured workmen seldom have had any right to relief from their employers; and in the hazardous industries particularly, it has been generally most unfair to them. Therefore in recent years that law has been variously amended in the different states by statutes (popularly entitled "employers' liability laws"), to make the employer liable not only to the injured workman personally, but also to his next-of-kin if he is killed, to limit the defences of "contributory negligence," "assumed risks" and "fellow-servant," and in other ways to extend the conditions under which the employer should be liable for full damages. These statutes, although uncertain in their results in particular cases, have on the average improved the workmen's position; but, on the other hand, they have generally entailed an entirely disproportionate cost and frequent gross injustice upon employers, and many other serious incidental evils.

In Europe and the colonies of Great Britain this method of curing the defects of the earlier law has, in general, been long abandoned; and in place of the liability for negligence or wrong there has been substituted, either wholly or partially, and either in all employments or in hazardous industries only, a novel liability whereby the question of fault or wrong is largely or wholly eliminated, and the employer is made liable gener-

ally to "compensate" his employes or their dependents for approximately a certain fixed proportion (generally fifty per cent) of their wage losses from injuries incurred in the employment. In addition to the mere liability for such compensation (the English system) Germany, Austria, and some other European countries require the employer to insure its payment in some prescribed manner. Under the European laws the liability for and the amount of compensation, etc., are variously determined by agreement, by voluntary arbitration, by compulsory arbitration, by special boards of experts, or by the ordinary courts. These foreign laws, in respect of the public welfare and of private justice between employer and employe, are infinitely superior to our obsolete system of liability.

We have now suddenly awakened to a realization of that fact; and it is the purpose of the recommendations of the reports of all the commissions which are reviewed below to substitute, or to make a move in the direction of substituting, the "compensation" principle of liability, which is the basis of those foreign laws, in place of the "negligence" principle of liability, which is the basis of our common law, and of the "employers' liability" statutes by which we have been seeking to correct its defects. But the problem of framing a system of liability law based upon the "compensation" principle is peculiarly difficult with us, owing to the necessity of its conforming in every respect to the provisions of our written constitutions, and is further complicated, as between the different states, by the fact that the constitutional provisions of those states differ among themselves. These differences, and differences of opinion as to the effect of certain common constitutional restrictions, as to what form of compensation law is the ideal, and as to the expediency of changing the law immediately to the ideal or of moving towards it by gradual steps, are the cause of the more material difference between the legislative proposals put forward by the several commissions.

These bills, however, are not the first efforts in the direction of the European system. New York has already enacted a "compulsory compensation law" in certain dangerous trades (Laws 1910, Chap. 674), and also an elective compensation law for voluntary adoption by employers in other lines, which would put them on practically the same footing as employers in the dangerous trades specified (Laws 1910, Chap. 352); but the latter has proved so impracticable as not to call for consideration; and Maryland and Montana have already experimented, or are experimenting, with "compulsory insurance" of mine-workers.

NEW YORK

The New York law deserves explanation for purposes of comparison. That law applies only to a few exceptionally hazardous occupations and industries, and only to those injuries therein due to the fault of the employer or of "fellow servants," or to "trade risks."

The "compensation" liability which it imposes is *additional* to the older liability for damages; and the option is given the injured employe, after the accident, to choose between them.

It provides for compensation as follows:

In case of death: If there are total dependents, a lump sum equal, to three years' wages, but not to exceed $3,000. If only partial dependents, a proportion of the foregoing. And if no dependents, medical and funeral expenses not to exceed $100.

In case of disablement: Weekly payments, of fifty per cent of wages if the disablement is complete, or of fifty per cent of impairment of earnings if it is partial, but of not more than ten dollars, beginning at the end of the second week and continuing during disablement but not longer than eight years.

Disputes are to be settled by arbitration or by action at law. A judgment in an action is to be for a lump sum only, equal to the sum of the payments prospectively due.

ILLINOIS

The Report of the Illinois Employers' Liability Commission presents a bill which applies to all employments in the course of trade or business; to all employes not "casual"; and to all accidental injuries and deaths caused in the course of the employment, except those due to the serious and wilful miscon-

duct of the injured employe, and those not causing disablement for more than one week.

It is a mixed "negligence" and "elective compensation" law. It abolishes the defences of "assumption of risks" and "fellow servant" in the law of negligence; and then gives the employer the option to *elect* liability for compensation alone, upon condition that he manifest such election in a prescribed public manner. In default of such election the employer is made liable under both laws. If he elects the compensation liability, a contract is presumed between him and each of his employes (except such employe as by written notice expresses a contrary election on his part) to substitute that liability for all others, except where the injury is caused by the wilful failure of the employer to comply with "statutory safety regulations," in which case the employer is to be liable for full damages.

The compensation payable is as follows:

In case of death: To a widow, parents, and descendants if any, towards whose support the deceased has contributed within five years, three years' wages but not less than $1,500 nor more than $3,000. Otherwise, to other collateral dependents, a proportion of the foregoing. And if no such dependents, not more than $150 to the personal representative of deceased. The sum above provided for as compensation to dependents is payable for the first six months in installments, like wages, and thereafter in a lump sum or in installments, at the option of the person entitled thereto.

In case of disablement: Periodical payments from the date of and continuing during disablement, or until the sum of the payments equals the amount which would have been due in case of death,[1] as follows: If disablement is *complete* a weekly payment of fifty per cent of wages but not less than five dollars nor more than ten dollars, for eight years; and thereafter, if complete disability continues, eight per cent of the amount which would have been due in case of death, payable in monthly payments during life. The loss of both eyes, or of both hands, etc., is always to be deemed complete disablement. If disablement is only *partial*, a weekly payment of fifty per cent of the impairment of earnings, not to continue longer than six years; but other definite proportions of wages in weekly payments for fixed periods are prescribed for certain specified injuries, (*i. e.* the loss of a hand, of an eye, etc.). Where weekly payments have continued six months and the disablement is determined to be permanent, an option is given the injured employe to demand in settlement a lump sum equal to four years' compensation, less the amount of payment received.

Also, for the first ninety days, the employer is to furnish necessary medical care, appliances, etc.

[1]The effect of this provision upon the following provisions is uncertain.

Compensation may be determined by agreement. Disputes must be settled by arbitration.

This bill did not receive the approval of a majority of the commission, which therefore does not recommend it for enactment. The employers on the commission objected to that provision which would leave an employer liable for damages for an accident due to his wilful failure to comply with "statutory safety regulations." The labor representatives on the commision filed two sets of objections to the bill. Two of them endorsed the demands of the Chicago Federation of Labor, that an advanced "employers' liability law" should precede a "compensation law." Four of them, on the contrary, objected that the "compensation" liability should be made compulsory instead of elective, and that the compensation provided ("three years' wages" for death and "four years' wages"[1] for complete disability) would be inadequate.

WISCONSIN

The Report of the Special Committee on Industrial Insurance of the Wisconsin Legislature recommends a bill which applies to all employments; to all employes except those whose employment is but casual or not in the usual course of the trade, business, profession, or occupation of the employer; and to all injuries and deaths proximately due to accidents incurred where the employe is performing service growing out of and incidental to his employment, unless caused by wilful misconduct (whether of the injured employe, of a fellow servant, of the employer, or of a stranger).

It is a mixed "negligence," "elective compensation," and "compulsory compensation" law. It abolishes the defences of "assumption of risks" and "fel-

[1]A careful study has failed to reveal any such provision in the bill. But what the bill does provide is a conundrum, and this may be the correct answer.

low servant" in the law of negligence (except as to railroads, as to which those defences have already been modified); then imposes instead the compensation liability alone upon the state, and each county, city, town, village, and school district therein; and then gives every private employer the option to *elect* liability for compensation alone, upon condition that he manifest such election by filing notice with the Industrial Accident Board, which notice binds him until withdrawn in the manner in the bill prescribed. And unless an employe, at the time of hiring, notifies the employer in writing of his election not to be subject to the compensation law, the liability thereunder is to be the exclusive remedy against the employer for accidental injuries and deaths. It is to be noticed that this leaves the employer liable for damages under the law of negligence, as amended, for accidents due to his "wilful misconduct."

The compensation prescribed is as follows:

In case of death: If there are total dependents, a sum (less the amount of any payments for disablement previously made) equal to four times the deceased's average annual earnings (to be taken at not less than $375 nor more than $750) payable in weekly installments, unless the Industrial Accident Board shall direct payment in gross. Wife, husband, and children, under certain conditions, are to be conclusively presumed to be total dependents. If there are only partial dependents, the foregoing compensation is to be proportionately reduced; and if there are no dependents, the expenses of burial, not to exceed $100.

In case of disability: Nothing for the first week. Thereafter weekly payments as follows: If the disablement is complete, of sixty-five per cent of average weekly earnings, or if it be so complete as to render the injured person so helpless as to require a nurse, of one hundred per cent of such earnings; if the disablement is only partial, the foregoing payments to be proportionately reduced; such payments to continue during disablement, but not longer than fifteen years, nor to exceed in the aggregate four years' average earnings. (Average yearly earnings are to be taken at not less than $375 nor more than $750; and average weekly earnings, at one fifty-second thereof.) Payments may be withheld for twenty-nine days after disablement, and if the injured employe recovers in the interval no payment is to be due.

In addition, the employer must furnish necessary medical and surgical treatment, medicines, appliances, etc., for ninety days; and in case of his failure to do so he is to be liable to others for the cost thereof.

If, after permanent disablement, death results from an independent cause, the employer is nevertheless to be liable for compensation as for death, less the amount of compensation for disablement already paid.

A State Industrial Accident Board is established, to consist of three members. Every compromise (settlement?) of a claim for compensation is subject to review by this board within one year. And every dispute concerning compensation is to be determined by it, subject to review by the courts upon certain questions of law only.

Voluntary mutual insurance schemes are permitted, but not as a substitute for the legal liability.

NEW JERSEY

The Report of the New Jersey Commission on Employers' Liability recommends a bill which applies to all employments, to all employes except "casual", and to all injuries or deaths in the course of the employment, unless intentionally self-inflicted.

Like the Illinois bill, it is a mixed "negligence" and "elective compensation" law. It abolishes the defences of "assumption of risks" and "fellow servant" and restricts the rule of "contributory negligence" in the negligence law; and then provides that employer and employe may contract for the "elective compensation" liability alone, and that such a contract shall be presumed in every case, unless a contract to the contrary is made in writing.

The compensation payable under this bill is as follows:

In case of death: If there are total dependents, weekly payments of varying proportions (from twenty-five per cent to sixty per cent) of wages, depending upon the number and relationship of the dependents, but of not less than five dollars nor more than ten dollars, and not to continue longer than 300 weeks. If there are only partial dependents, such weekly payments are to be proportionately reduced. And if there are no dependents, not more than $200 for expenses of last illness and burial. Children over sixteen and non-resident alien dependents are not to be deemed dependents.

In case of disablement: Weekly payments, beginning at the end of the second week, of fifty per cent of wages if the dis-

ablement is complete, but of not less than five dollars nor more than ten dollars, and to continue during disablement but not longer than 300 weeks, if the disablement is temporary, or 400 weeks, if it is permanent. If the disablement is only partial, the foregoing rates are to be proportionately reduced;—but in certain cases (*i. e.* the loss of a hand, a foot, or an eye, etc.) fifty per cent of wages for definite numbers of weeks is specified.

In addition, the employer must furnish necessary medical and hospital services during the first two weeks, not to exceed $100 in cost.

Payments may be commuted for a lump sum, only where, upon application, the court decides it to be "in the interest of justice."

Compensation may be determined by agreement. Disputes are to be settled by the courts "in a summary manner."

The representatives of labor on the New Jersey commission objected to that provision in the bill which fixes the maximum compensation in case of death at ten dollars per week for 300 weeks or $3,000, and contended for a maximum of 400 weeks or $4,000.

MINNESOTA

The Report of the Minnesota Employes' Compensation Commission recommends a bill which applies to all employments in industries conducted for gain or profit, (nominally only to those which are dangerous, but every industrial employment in which an accident shall occur is naively declared to be dangerous); to those employes only who are commonly known as laborers and workmen, or technically as "servants"; and to all personal injuries arising out of and in the course of the employment, unless occasioned by drunkenness or purposely self-inflicted, (both with some qualifications).

It is a strict "compulsory compensation law"; and, where it applies, is exclusive of all other liabilities.

The compensation payable is as follows

In case of death: Funeral expenses, not to exceed, $100 and: If there are total dependents, periodical payments (not less frequently than monthly) of fifty per cent of wages, continuing during the condition of dependence, but not longer than five years nor to aggregate more than $3,000. If there are only partial dependents the foregoing payments are to be proportionately reduced. And if there are no dependents, medical and hospital expenses, not to exceed $100.

In case of disablement: Medical and hospital expenses, not to exceed $100, and: If the disablement is complete, periodical payments (as above) of fifty per cent of wages (but the annual amount of compensation never to exceed fifty per cent of $2,000), commencing at the end of the second week and continuing during disability but not longer than five years. If the disablement is only partial, the payments are to be fifty per cent of the decrease in wages (or if wages exceed $2,000, fifty per cent of the decrease below $2,000). But the percentage of wages is to be increased in certain specified cases of maiming.

Payments may be commuted for a lump sum or by the purchase of an annuity, but only with the approval of the Board of Arbitration.

A system of boards of arbitration is established, with one board composed of three officials in each county, and a code of procedure therefor is provided. Settlements and agreements as to compensation are subject to the approval of the proper board; and all disputes are to be determined in first instance by that board, with the right of appeal to the courts.

Detailed provisions governing the insurance of the liability for compensation are laid down. Voluntary mutual insurance schemes are permitted upon conditions, but not as a substitute for the legal liability.

One of the three members of the Minnesota commission objected to the bill on the following grounds: (1) That some adaptation of the German system of compulsory insurance is preferable. (2) That industrial chaos is to be feared if the bill should be enacted and the law subsequently declared unconstitutional. (3) That the question of cost has not yet been adequately considered.

MASSACHUSETTS

The Report of the Massachusetts Commission on Compensation for Industrial Accidents presents no bill. The commission expresses itself as greatly impressed by the pronounced opposition of both employers and employes to the tentative draft of a compensation bill which it published some weeks before its report, and recommends that further investigation and study should be undertaken before a measure is submitted for enactment.

The tentative draft bill referred to applies to every employment in which the employer has more than five persons continuously in his employ for at least three days; to all employes except those who by reason of advanced age, etc., are more liable to accidents or to more serious consequences from accidents, and who have, with the approval of the Accident Board, agreed with their employers not to claim the benefits of the act; and to all injuries arising out of and in the course of the employment, except those due to the injured employe's deliberate intention, his deliberate breach of statutory regulations, or his intoxication.

It is a "compulsory compensation" law; and the liability imposed is exclusive of all others, except where the circumstances are such that the employer would be liable at "common law," in which event an option is given the injured employe either to sue for damages at common law or to claim compensation.

The compensation payable is as follow:

In case of death: If there are total dependents, weekly payments of fifty per cent of wages, but of not less than four dollars nor more than ten dollars, for 300 weeks. Wife, husband, and children are to be deemed total dependents. If there are only partial dependents, such weekly payments are to be proportionately reduced. And if there are no dependents, expenses of last illness and burial, not to exceed $200.

In case of disablement: Weekly payments, beginning at the end of the second week, of fifty per cent of wages, but of not less than four dollars nor more than ten dollars, if the disablement is complete; or of fifty per cent of impairment of earnings if it is only partial; to continue during disablement, but not longer than 300 weeks from the date of accident *i. e.* for 298 weeks.

In unusual cases a weekly payment, after it has continued for six months, may be commuted for a lump sum, subject to the approval of the Accident Board.

All insurance policies, which cover the liability of employers under this proposed law, must make the insurance company liable directly to the injured employe.

A State Accident Board of three members is established. Settlements and agreements as to compensation are subject to the approval of that board. All disputes are to be determined in first instance by a board of arbitration, two members of which are to be selected by the employer and the injured employe respectively, and the third is to be a member of the State Accident Board. From the decision of that board an appeal is allowed to the courts on all questions except the *amount* of compensation.

Voluntary mutual insurance schemes, in lieu of the legal liability for compensation, are permitted upon conditions, provided that they be approved by the Accident Board and be not obligatory upon employes.

WASHINGTON

The bill recommended by the Washington Commission on Industrial Accidents and Employes' Compensation is what is known as a "compulsory insurance law," and is essentially different in method from the preceding.

It applies only to employment in "extra-hazardous works" (which are enumerated and defined to include practically all machino-facture, mining, quarrying, lumbering, transportation, engineering and electrical work, besides many specific occupations, and to which are to be added, by administrative determination, such other occupations as may prove in fact to be extra-hazardous) or where the employer elects to come under the law; to all classes of employes; and to all injuries received unless due to the deliberate intention of the injured.

Every employer to whom the proposed act applies is to pay annually to the state a fixed percentage of his annual payroll (varying from .015 in some industries to .1 in others), no part of which he may deduct from wages, for an Accident Fund; and four cents a working day for each employe, two cents of which he may deduct from wages, for a First Aid Fund; and upon paying such premiums he is to be relieved from all further liability, except for intentional wrong or for violation of safety regulations—for which latter he is liable to the state substantially in damages for the accidents caused thereby. Default in paying the required premiums subjects an employer to double liability—both for "damages" and for "compensation."

Out of the First Aid Fund injured

workmen are to be paid compensation of five dollars per week for not to exceed three weeks; and employers are to be reimbursed for the expenses of necessary medical and surgical care, which they are obligated to provide immediately after accidents.

Out of the Accident Fund compensation is payable as follows:

In case of death: Funeral expenses not to exceed seventy-five dollars, and to dependents, if any, monthly payments varying from ten to thirty-five dollars, depending upon the number and degree of relationship and dependence of the dependents, with appropriate limitations as to duration, but under some circumstances to continue for life.

In case of disablement: Monthly payments, beginning from the end of the third week, of varying sums, depending upon the degree of disablement and the number of dependents, but of not more than thirty-five dollars in any case and of not less than twenty dollars in case of complete disablement, such payments to continue during disablement or for life;—except that for permanent partial disablement the payment is to be a lump sum, "equal to the extent of the injury" but not more than $1,500. Certain specified injuries (loss of limbs, loss of sight, paralysis, etc.) are always to be deemed to constitute permanent complete disablement, and certain others, permanent partial disablement. Payments may be commuted for a lump sum, upon the request of the beneficiary.

A State Industrial Insurance Department is created to administer the funds. The Accident Fund is intended to be exactly self-supporting, and provision is made for segregating special funds to meet liabilities as they are incurred, and for the repayment of surplus premiums and for assessing further premiums to make good deficiencies. If the fund is insufficient to meet a liability the employer must pay it, but a right is given him to reimbursement from the state. If any establishment, on account of poor or careless management, is unduly dangerous in comparison with other like establishments, the department may raise its premium rates. From the decision of the department in any matter affecting premiums, compensation, etc., an appeal lies to the courts.

It is the idea of the bill that the proposed department shall exercise wide discretion, and that the Legislature shall frequently amend the rates of premiums prescribed in and other minor provisions of the proposed act, as experience may dictate to be proper to carry out its purpose.

OHIO

The Report[1] of the Ohio Commission on Employers' Liability recommends a bill which applies to all employments under the state or any of its counties, towns, school districts, etc., in any establishment wherein five or more persons are regularly employed or for any employer who complies with the provision of the proposed act; to all employes in such employments; and to all accidental injuries and deaths, not self-inflicted, from accidents arising in the course of the employment.

It is a "compulsory insurance" law, with provisions for voluntary election by those employers upon whom it is not made compulsory. It requires every employer to whom it applies to pay into the State Insurance Fund annual premiums based upon his payrolls according to rates of risks to be fixed annually by the state actuary. The employer may deduct one-quarter of those premiums from wages. Upon making such payments the employer is relieved from all other liability. If an employer, who is obligated under the bill to make such payments, fails to do so, he is made liable for damages both to the state *and* to the injured employe, under the law of negligence amended by the abolition of the defenses of "contributory negligence," "assumption of risks", and "fellow servant."

The compensation, payable out of the Insurance Fund, is as follows:

In all cases: Necessary medical and hospital services and medicines not to exceed $150 in cost.

In case of death within one year after the injury: Funeral expenses, and: If there are dependents residing in the United States, monthly payments of sixty per cent of wages, for 300 weeks from the date of the injury, but not to amount to more than $3,400, or less than $1,500. Husband, wife, children, father, mother, sisters, and brothers only are to be classed as dependents. Dependents residing outside the United States are to be entitled to one-half the above compensation.

In case of disablement: Nothing for the first week. Thereafter monthly payments beginning at the end of the first week as fol-

[1]This report was received too late for careful and accurate analysis.

lows: If it is complete but only temporary, of sixty per cent of wages, continuing during total disablement, but not longer than 300 weeks, nor to amount to more than $3,400 or less than $1,500. If it is complete and permanent, such payments to continue for life. If it is only partial, payments of sixty per cent of impairment of earnings, but not more than twelve dollars nor less than five dollars per week, to continue during disablement, but not longer than 300 weeks.

Periodical payments may be commuted for lump sum payments by the State Board of Compensation Awards.

A State Insurance Fund is established and a state actuary and a State Board of Compensation Awards are created;—the latter board to consist of five members, with power to appoint an examining physician to represent it in each county. That board is charged with the disbursement of the Insurance Fund and the determination of all claims for compensation. From its determination on certain questions an appeal lies to the courts.

In addition to the provisions hereinbefore summarized, all the measures reviewed provide for prompt notice to the employer of an accident and of a claim for compensation, and for medical examinations of injured employes, at reasonable intervals, by the employers' (in Washington and Ohio, the state's) physicians. They also all provide for the modification of the rate or the discontinuance of compensation, when the conditions upon which compensation depends vary or cease to exist; etc.

From the foregoing review it will be perceived that there are many substantial differences between the schemes proposed. But all that will be possible in brief space is to explain the causes of the principal differences and to offer a few comments upon them.

ELECTIVE AND COMPULSORY FEATURES

The first point of difference to be noted is that in Illinois, Wisconsin, and New Jersey it is an "elective compensation law" that is proposed; that in New York there is, and in Massachusetts and Minnesota there is proposed, a "compulsory compensation law," and in Washington and Ohio a "compulsory insurance law." The compulsory and elective compensation laws reach practically the same end, by different means, while the compulsory insurance law is practically a compensation law which goes beyond that end and accomplishes a further purpose. The only reason for an elective compensation law is doubt as to the constitutionality of a compulsory law. Because there is little doubt of the constitutionality of so far increasing the employer's liability under the law of negligence as to render his position intolerable, and of then permitting him to escape it by assuming the compensation liability instead, the elective form gets around the constitutional difficulty and results in a compensation liability, which although theoretically elective is practically compulsory, except as to small employers in comparatively safe employments. The compulsory compensation bills, on the other hand, go directly to their purpose, in the faith that the constitutional objections to the compulsory compensation liability are not sound. The arguments against its constitutionality are that under our constitutional restrictions the state has the power only to make the employer legally liable for injuries due to his faults—his own personal faults or those of his agents or agencies,—which power is exhausted when the defences of "contributory negligence," "assumption of risks," and "fellow servant" are abolished; and that, if it is desired to extend the liability further, it can only be done by the voluntary act or election of the employer. The New York compulsory compensation law seeks to avoid this difficulty by making the employer liable only for accidents due wholly or in part to his fault, to the fault of fellow servants, or to "trade risks."

But the broad compulsory compensation bills—those of Minnesota, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Washington—go further, and make the employer presumptively liable for all injuries, with exceptions—the burden of proving an exception resting upon the employer. Such laws would frequently result in making the employer liable for compensation for injuries due solely to some fault of the injured workman himself, or to "acts of God" or of strangers; and it is contended that such a liability is forbidden by the "Bill of Rights" in our constitutions. In answer, it is argued in favor of the con-

stitutionality of such a liability, that foreign experience demonstrates that a broad compensation law effects a far higher average degree of justice in practice, as between employer and employe, than any form of the law of negligence, and therefore does not in fact offend against constitutional provisions designed to insure justice; and our own experience indicates that it is necessary for the welfare of the state to compel the proprietors of industries to pay some compensation, in all but exceptional cases, in order to prevent the continued reduction of large masses of victims of industrial accidents to a condition of destitution, and to relieve the public from the heavy burden of wasteful litigation caused by the "employers' liability laws."

"But the Ohio and Washington bills go further than compensation for accidents regardless of fault. They also compel employers to insure the payment of such compensation. The practical advantage of "compulsory insurance" over the simple liability for compensation is that it protects injured workmen against the possible insolvency of their employers. The objections to it are that its constitutionality is yet more doubtful than that of simple compulsory compensation, and that it does not avoid all danger of insolvency, for the insurance fund itself may become insolvent.

The German scheme of compulsory insurance (generally esteemed the best), which is a complicated system of checks and balances, has successfully avoided all danger on that score. But the Netherlands and Norwegian schemes of "state insurance," after which those of Washington and Ohio are patterned, have manifested serious weaknesses and defects. It must be said, however, that the Washington bill contains provisions designed to correct those defects, and on the whole appears to be a carefully studied measure. So great are the advantages of compulsory insurance that an experiment in it on a small scale, as in Washington, would be desirable; but compulsory state insurance is too liable to complete miscarriage, through the slightest political misdirection or actuarial mistake, to make it other than an extra hazardous experiment, if it should be tried on a large scale in any of the great industrial states.

OCCUPATIONAL SCOPE

The next point that calls for attention is the scope of the proposed laws. For reasons too lengthy and technical to be set forth here, the arguments for the constitutionality and justice of and the public necessity for a compulsory compensation law apply with particular force to the more hazardous industries. A large proportion of the European compensation laws apply only to such industries. And in England, where the existing compensation law (the act of 1906) applies to nearly all employments, it was preceded by an earlier law (the act of 1897), which applied only to hazardous industries; and there is a good deal in English experience to support the opinion that whether we eventually follow England's example to the extreme of the act of 1906 or not, it would be more expedient to follow a similar course of gradual approach, and begin with a compensation law applying only to hazardous industries. Consequently there is a strong body of opinion in favor of what may be called the hazardous industry limitation for the first compensation laws. The objection to that limitation is that it is difficult to define the hazardous industries so as to include within the application of the law all occupations which are in fact equally hazardous, and to exclude all which in fact are comparatively safe; yet unless the classification be reasonably correct there is danger that it will offend against that other constitutional provision which forbids unreasonable discrimination in the law between persons and classes. The New York law follows the hazardous industry rule, for it applies only to a small list of exceptionally dangerous employments. The Washington bill does likewise, only it applies to a much broader list of dangerous employments and also to other employments which may be found to be equally hazardous. The Minnesota bill nominally follows the same rule and applies only to dangerous industries; but it attempts to "straddle" the difficulty of classification by classing all industries as hazardous, and thus in effect extends

its scope far beyond the truly hazardous industries. The Illinois, Wisconsin, New Jersey, Ohio, and Massachusetts bills, on the other hand, do not recognize the hazardous industry rule, and have a far wider scope.

Even if the application of a compensation law is not to be limited to the more dangerous industries, it does not follow that it should be without limitations. Because the compensation liability is generally right, it does not follow that it is right always and under all conditions. There are many employments or conditions of employment in which the common law rule is still the more just and expedient. To illustrate: few, if any, of the European compensation laws apply to high salaried employes; there are strong reasons for excepting purely casual labor; the application of the liability to those workmen who are aged, infirm, or of unknown health or habits undoubtedly causes discrimination against them in employment and tends to increase the number of the unemployed; and where the position of the employe approaches that of an independent contractor the justice and public policy of the compensation liability is questionable.

The broad-scope bills under consideration all recognize the necessity for some limitations upon the scope of the liability, but adopt different limitations. Thus the Illinois and Wisconsin bills are limited to apply only to employment in the employer's trade or business—a reasonable limitation, but not so definite in practice as it appears upon first impression or as is desirable. The Minnesota bill has practically the same limitation, but is further limited in application to workmen and laborers (a class meant to be distinguished from clerks, salaried employes, etc.). The New Jersey bill has the widest scope, and excepts only "casual" labor, and the Wisconsin bill also excepts "casual" labor; (but "casual labor" is also a phrase of doubtful meaning, which is liable to be construed so as to exclude from the benefits of the law some of the most dangerous kinds of labor, such as dock labor, which most unquestionably should be included). The Massachusetts bill seeks to let out small employers by excluding those who employ not more than five persons, and provides a way by which the aged and infirm may be excepted from the application of the law. The latter exception is good; but there are serious objections to the former, for it would except from the application of the law some of the most dangerous employments, and would make the application of the liability and the right to compensation depend upon a fact, which is often most uncertain and difficult to prove. The similar exception in the Ohio bill is better, because it is more definite and has a practical relation to the "fellow-servant" risk.

LEGAL MACHINERY PROPOSED

In another direction the bills differ in their scope. At the one extreme the New Jersey bill, for example, is confined closely to its subject, *i. e.*, the change in the substantive law governing the liability of employer to employe. The Minnesota bill, at the other extreme, besides reaching into the field of insurance law, establishes a novel system of official boards and a code of procedure for the control and determination of settlements and disputes concerning compensation. There is no disagreement but that when a compensation law is established its operation may be improved by regulating insurance of the liability, by controlling private settlements, and by establishing boards of experts to aid or—in first instance—to replace the courts in the determination of disputes. But it is objected to the Minnesota project (and to the somewhat less ambitious projects of the Wisconsin and Massachusetts bills) that the attempt to cover all these subjects at once, especially where it entails an expensive system of novel boards of officials, more than doubles the doubts and dangers of the experiment in compensation; and that it would be more expedient, as a first step, simply to enact the compensation liability—as in the New Jersey bill—and later to make such corrections and improvements in procedure and in collateral branches of the law as experience may dictate to be appropriate.

Involved in this topic is the right to trial by jury. There is no doubt but that

much of the uncertainty and miscarriage of justice under the present law arises from trial by jury. It is therefore desirable to avoid that method of determination of the liability and of the amount of liability as much as possible. But in some of the states the right to trial by jury is preserved by their constitutions and cannot be absolutely abolished; while in other states that constitutional restriction is less clear or does not exist; and consequently we find that the measures under review differ widely in this particular. The New York law, for example, makes no attempt to avoid jury trials, except to permit voluntary arbitrations. Under the Wisconsin, Illinois, and New Jersey bills, the compensation liability is to be assumed by contract, by which contract the right to trial by jury is to be deemed waived. Under the Minnesota, Ohio, and Washington bills, a preliminary trial, before a board of arbitration under the first, and a determination by a state department under the two latter, must precede any resort to the courts. And under the Massachusetts bill a method of arbitration is provided as an alternative to resort to the courts. How far these methods would succeed in their ultimate purpose of avoiding long drawn out and uncertain litigation, and how far the substituted methods of determining compensation would be satisfactory, is problematical.

EXTENT OF THE EMPLOYER'S LIABILITY

The next point of difference to be noted is the extent to which the liability of the employer—who is made liable or has elected the liability for compensation—for full damages for negligence is retained. The compensation liability is based upon the theory that physical accidents are generally unavoidable, and due not so much to fault or wrong as to necessary risk, the consequences of which employers and injured workmen should share between them. To carry out that theory the compensation laws require the employer to pay his injured workmen some equitable proportion of their wage-losses from accidents, except where the injury can be shown to be due to the injured workman's wilful misconduct. If that theory and practice be just, then the employer, on his side, should be left liable for full damages only for accidents due to his wilful misconduct. But here we encounter the objection, that it is probably unconstitutional to deprive an employe of the right to recover full damages for an injury due to his employer's personal and positive wrong, whether wilful or otherwise.

The Minnesota, Ohio, and Washington bills are based upon the opinion that this objection is not sound, and relieve the employer from all liability for damages to employes under any conditions. The Massachusetts bill successfully avoids this objection by leaving the employer liable for damages under "circumstances where he would be liable at common law." The New Jersey bill avoids it by making the liability a matter of contract, by which contract the liability for compensation is substituted for all others. The Illinois and Wisconsin bills do the same, except that the Wisconsin bill leaves the employer liable for damages for "wilful misconduct," and the Illinois bill leaves him similarly liable where he wilfully fails to comply with "statutory safety regulations." This last exception is designed to promote safety, but it aroused the opposition of Illinois employers. The reason for their objection to it is that statutory safety regulations are often far from definite; —they may provide, for instance, that machinery shall be made "as safe as possible," or be guarded "where practicable," and it is the prevailing expert opinion that they are must effective in that form. It is always a matter of expert opinion whether such regulations have been complied with; and although an employer may have exercised his best judgment in complying therewith, yet, in case of accident, it is always possible to procure an alleged expert to testify to an adverse opinion. Such testimony is sufficient to carry a case to the jury; and a jury is always prone to decide to some extent against the employer. Consequently, the effect of such a provision would be to leave the employers still liable to actions for full damages in a large proportion of cases, and to perpetuate the evils of the

negligence law as against them. Therefore, while apparently reasonable, this proposed provision is really most unfair and harmful. The effect of a similar right reserved under the Washington bill, to hold the employer liable for the practical equivalent of full damages *to the state*, would probably be different; for there the question would be tried upon its merits, unbiased by sympathy, and according to a consistent line of expert opinion as to safety methods. The New York compulsory compensation law follows an entirely different course. It imposes an additional liability for compensation and leaves the employer liable for damages as before. To the injured employe is given an option between the two liabilities, after the accident. This tends to perpetuate the evils of the negligence law, which the compensation law is designed to cure. Nevertheless many working people (as is illustrated by the objection of the Chicago Federation of Labor to the Illinois bill) are inclined to insist upon it; and their insistence is excusable The only relief they have known from the injustices of the "common law" has been obtained from the "employers' liability laws," and they are reluctant to abandon that path of apparent improvement in favor of "compensation laws," with the results of which they are not familiar and of the purpose of which they are naturally suspicious.

VOLUNTARY RELIEF PLANS

Many of the most humane and considerate of American employers have been disposed to oppose the movement for compensation laws, because they have established or are establishing in their industries schemes for the insurance of their workmen against accidents, sickness, etc., which a rigid compensation law would seriously interfere with.

Experience in England indicates that often such schemes are far more beneficial to the workmen affected than the general compensation law, because they are better adapted to the particular industry to which they respectively apply. Therefore the English law permits such schemes, as a substitute for the liability for compensation under the law, provided that they yield benefits to the workmen equivalent to those of the law; or, if the workmen contribute, equivalent to those of the law in addition to the contributions of the workmen. It is most desirable that this permission should be incorporated in our proposed American laws; and that it should be most liberal in its terms, provided that its conditions be substantially complied with. Of the measures reviewed, only the Massachusetts bill contains any such permission. The Wisconsin and Minnesota bills permit voluntary mutual insurance schemes —which may require contributions from the workmen,—but only upon condition that they provide compensation *exactly* in accordance with the provisions of the bills.

COMPENSATION PROVISIONS

We turn now to the compensation schedules. It is in this respect that comparative uniformity is most desirable in the laws of the different states, in order that the cost of compensation may be uniform in all. But, in this respect there is extreme diversity,—although it is not apparent upon first impression, for the reason that the principal factors of cost in a compensation law are the problematical results in practice of apparently minor provisions. For example, if we should compare some two of the above mentioned bills, it would be a mistake to conclude that the one which allowed the higher maximum rates and the longer continuing periods of compensation would necessarily be the more expensive. And it would be an equal mistake to conclude that the bill which would cost employers the more would therefore be the more beneficial to the victims of accidents;—it might, on the contrary, build up a class of parasites upon compensation.

It will be noticed that in case of disablement, the New York law and the Minnesota, Massachusetts, and New Jersey bills provide for no compensation for the first two weeks. The Wisconsin bill gives none unless the disablement lasts longer than twenty-nine days, and even then none for the first week. It is a condition and not a theory which compels this apparent hardship. Human nature is so constituted that men will gen-

erally, upon slight excuse, take a vacation upon half pay, and foreign experience indicates that without this "waiting period" a large proportion of trifling injuries would be turned into apparent disablements and the cost of compensation consequently *approximately doubled*. The Illinois bill runs the dangers of this consequence when it allows compensation from the date of the injury. In Washington this difficulty is met by making the compensation and medical expenses, etc., for the first three weeks payable out of a First Aid Fund towards which the workmen contribute one-half. The purpose of requiring such contributions from them is that they may be made to feel the consequences of impositions upon the fund, and thereby be impelled to support all measures found to be necessary to prevent such impositions.

There is a similar danger with the provisions in these bills which require the employer, immediately after an injury, to furnish medical and surgical attendance, supplies, treatment etc., for long periods (*e. g.* ninety days). It is not the liability for such expenses in serious cases which employers have to fear, but rather that they will be held liable up to the maximum in nearly every case, however unnecessary. Foreign experience indicates that under such provisions there is serious danger that there will grow up a class of "ambulance chasing" doctors to replace our "ambulance chasing" lawyers. And this danger is not altogether avoided by providing that the employer himself shall provide the physician, medicines, etc., where he is also made liable to others for their cost if he does not provide them, unless jurisdiction to determine the necessity of such provision be lodged in some readily accessible person. The English law is based upon the assumption that no such provision is necessary, because the employer's self-interest to reduce his liability for compensation will impel him to provide all that is necessary to cure the injured workman; and English experience, on the whole, sustains this contention.

In the objection cited to the maximum limitations upon the amount of compensation in the New Jersey bill, there is to be noted an insistence on the part of the representatives of labor that compensation for death should be equal to compensation for permanent and complete disablement. This is a survivance of the idea of revenge, of blood-money, of reparation for a wrong, which was the basis of the older laws which we are seeking to displace. Compensation, on the contrary, aims to relieve material distress. In case of death the workman is gone, and it is only his dependents who are left and whose needs are to be provided for only so far and so long as they cannot provide for them themselves. But where the workman is completely disabled there is one more person to be completely provided for; and if he is permanently disabled that condition continues for his life, which may be long. Therefore there is every reason why the maximum compensation for complete and permanent disablement should be larger than that for death, and that it should be as large as industry can bear. Under the English law, compensation for such disablement continues for life (while that for death is limited to three years' wages). It is in that direction—after compensation is first established on a milder scale and insurance rates are adjusted and worked down to a normal basis—that the workingmen should seek to obtain an extension of the maximum of compensation.

There are two ideas which influence the measure of compensation. The first is that of private justice, which requires that compensation should be in some degree proportioned to the wage loss; and the second is that of social welfare, which requires that, except for his own certain and serious fault, no victim of accident should thereby be reduced to destitution and made dependent upon public charity. The simple compensation bills which have been reviewed are formulated principally in accordance with the first idea; the Washington bill, on the other hand, is based entirely upon the second. That bill provides for equal compensation for all injured workmen or their dependents, regardless of differences in wages. It provides a very low

rate of compensation, to continue, however, during disability or condition of dependence without time limitation. Its one purpose, towards which all its provisions are consistently directed, is to prevent absolute destitution. Beyond the provision for bare maintenance which it assures, it leaves upon the higher waged workmen the burden of insuring themselves. It is an interesting synthesis of state-socialism and individualism, which may produce most beneficial social results. The simple compensation idea, however, is more in accord with our constitutional principles.

Only the New Jersey and Ohio bills mention non-resident alien dependents. The first would give them no compensation; the second would give them half compensation; while all the other bills would give them equal treatment with citizens. The last course would subject employers to numerous false claims, induced by the much larger comparative value of money abroad, which it would be difficult and expensive to disprove. The first course would be clearly unjust to the real dependents of immigrant workmen. The middle course, therefore, appears to be the most just and expedient.

It will be noticed that all the measures discussed call for the payment of compensation weekly or otherwise periodically;—only the New York law provides a lump sum payment as compensation for death. It would appear that the authors of these measures have not fully comprehended the practical difficulties in the way of such a procedure, for they have not fully regulated the conditions and methods of such payments. The workmen anticipate that such payments will be made to them in cash at their residences at hours convenient to them. Employers anticipate that such payments will be made in the same manner as the payment of wages to their regular employes or else be forwarded by check. Neither of these methods will be mutually satisfactory and either will involve serious hardships, difficulties, and expense upon one side. And the difficulties are increased and dangers incurred in the case of payments to numerous dependents who reside at or have removed to a distance from the employer, and whose right to payments will depend upon the continuance of certain conditions. Although the inability of the working classes generally to manage lump sums of money profitably make periodical payments generally preferable, yet it is questionable whether it would not be fairer to employers and preventive of many probable disputes and abuses, to provide for lump-sum payments in case of death, and then, if found desirable, to provide for the management and distribution of such sums and their income by special court or administrative officers.

The foregoing comments touch merely upon a few of the salient points and principal points of difference in the measures discussed, and by no means cover the field or give an adequate idea of the complexities of the problem. Enough, however, has been presented to support the wisdom of the recommendation of the Massachusetts Commission: "that further investigation and study should be undertaken."

So much space has been required to discuss the main features of the bills presented that none is left for a consideration of the material contained in the reports of the commissions. It can only be stated for the benefit of the reader who may desire to study the subject further, that a digest of the foreign compensation laws, a good history of the compensation movement in America, and a thorough brief upon the constitutional law involved are to be found in the Minnesota Report; an equally thorough brief on the constitutional law is in the Washington Report; instructive explanatory notes upon the provisions of the proposed bill and some accident statistics are in the Wisconsin Report; a great deal of valuable statistical material is in the Illinois Report[1]; and a digest of the foreign compensation laws, accompanied with exhaustive studies of the English and German schemes and other valuable national material, in the Ohio Report.

[1]For the latest and most complete statistical information bearing upon the probable cost of "compensation," see *Bulletin of Bureau of Labor* (U. S.), No. 90, September, 1910.

INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF THE MONTH

PERSONAL EQUATIONS IN INDUSTRIAL STRIFE

GRAHAM TAYLOR

While personal equations when over emphasized unnecessarily complicate our industrial problems, they are shown by recent events to be inevitably influential. To charge that real industrial differences are due to unjust and hard-hearted employers or to bad and hot-headed walking delegates of labor unions frequently aggravates a situation already dangerously difficult. Overhearing a little group of employers accounting in this way for an interruption of business that extended all over the city, another of larger mold remarked: "The trouble with these men is that they do not know their difficulties to be due to the clash of world-wide forces at variance over real issues." For the lack of just this historical background, and of knowledge sufficient to interpret the present by the past, many a conflict is needlessly begun and disastrously continued.

PERSONAL MEDIATION OF PEACE

Nevertheless, the personalities involved in these fatuous struggles magnify or minimize their worse and better results. The most amazing transformation scene ever brought about in American industrial warfare by a change of personal management is witnessed in the outcome of the prolonged, determined, and bitterly contested issue between the Buck's Stove and Range Company and the American Federation of Labor. While the conflict raged, conciliation seemed as impossible to the outsider as was anything short of the annihilation of the other to each contestant. Yet no sooner had the management of this company passed, on the death of the leader of the fight, to the hands of his successor, than this apparently irrepressible conflict was found to be amenable to a settlement by the parties themselves, which is officially reported to have been "adjusted upon mutually honorable terms, satisfactorily to all concerned." The company's attorneys were at once withdrawn from the case against the federation pending before the United States Supreme Court, which thereupon threw it out of court as "a moot case." Former friends and foes straightway shifted their positions to opposite sides in the fight.

"Minority stockholders" sought to restrain the company and the federation from carrying out their pact of peace under a claim for threefold damages of $750,000. The Federation of Labor, whose executive officers were still under suspended sentence for contempt of court in the alleged publication of the boycott against the company, recommended "that every legitimate effort be made to overcome the antagonism now being directed at the Buck's Stove and Range Company." These very officials, with their liberty still hanging in the balance, declared that this company, which had been their implacable foe, is now "entitled to the courtesy, consideration, and patronage of all." Its new management was congratulated "for its exhibition of fairness and good judgment in agreeing to the settlement," and in turn the new manager presented with his compliments, through President Gompers, a souvenir to each of the delegates to the convention of the federation.

It would surely be the irony of fate if, in these piping times of peace, Messrs. Gompers, Mitchell, and Morrison should have their sentences to jail for contempt of court sustained after the original case had been thrown out because of the withdrawal of the plaintiff's prosecution.

EMPLOYERS LEAD IN LEGISLATION

Personal influence has recently been recognized to be potent in securing equitable industrial legislation where the distrust of both parties interested had long prevented its enactment. No more notable recognition of this fact has been given than by the labor members of two legislative commissions in Illinois. Addressing their colleagues at the success-

ful conclusion of the work of drafting the law for the health, safety, and comfort of employes, which the Legislature enacted without opposition, they said: "As representatives of labor we believe that the spirit of fairness manifested by the members of the commission representing the employers emphasizes greatly the value of conference and discussion of our problems, to the end that we may find the common ground upon which both sides may stand without sacrifice of either principle or self-respect." Referring to the representatives of the public as those whose duty it would have been, under less favorable circumstances, to hold the balance of power and to act as mediators, they declared that their mediation was rendered unnecessary "owing to a truly remarkable spirit of harmony and mutual confidence by which the division lines were at once practically abolished."

More than to any other member of the commission this harmony was due to one of the employers, who was also appointed to serve as chairman of the commision on employers' liability. At the conclusion of its work his labor colleagues again expressed their appreciation of his services in the following toast:

> Here is to Charles Piez! One of the best fellows of our long remembrance; one of the finest of Chicago's citizens; one of the most unselfish and public-spirited of Illinois's captains of industry; whose good fellowship has been our good fortune and pleasure; whose sterling citizenship has been our inspiration; whose unselfish public-spirited service has been the glory of a worthy life. All hail, Charles Piez!

It is as great a misfortune to the laboring population of Illinois as it is to all employers and other citizens of the State, that the opposition of the Chicago Federation of Labor prevented this commission from rendering a unanimous report. It is hoped, however, that its just and carefully studied conclusions, which have been embodied in a bill pending before the Legislature, may be enacted into a law combining the regulation of compensation for loss by accident or occupational disease with such provision for employers' liability as will not involve the surrender of the right to enter suit for damages. The State Federation of Labor is supporting this measure in accordance with the action of the American Federation of Labor, which recommended the "utmost endeavors to secure the enactment of a comprehensive and liberal workingmen's compensation law, as uniform as possible, in every state of the Union."

TOO PERSONAL LEADERSHIP

Personality has recently played a sinister part in the leadership of the United Mine Workers of America. The successor of John Mitchell in the presidency of this great union never proved to be a large enough man to concede the greater popularity of his predecessor without resenting it as a reflection upon himself. Consciously or unconsciously, this narrow self-consciousness seemed to affect his official policies and his personal attitude toward large groups of his constituents. The loss of nearly a year's work and profits to the coal miners and operators of Illinois was due more to a strike against the president of the United Mine Workers than to any serious differences between the mine owners and their men. When their issue was taken to the United Mine Workers' Convention by the miners' leaders in Illinois, President T. L. Lewis failed of re-election by a vote of 98,000 for his successor, John P. White, to 72,000 for himself. Then it was that a reprisal was sprung in the passage of an action condemning the National Civic Federation, which will compel John Mitchell to resign either his position at the head of its department of trade agreements or his membership in the United Mine Workers of America. If this hasty, ill-advised, and narrow action, which was foisted upon the convention, were referred to the rank and file of the United Mine Workers, their love and loyalty to John Mitchell would be expressed by a vote far more overwhelming than that by which they repudiated the jealousy of their former leader.

WHERE FAIRNESS FRAMES THE LAW

It is a pleasure to attest the fairness and good fellowship of the representa-

tive operators and miners serving on the mining investigating commission of Illinois in framing a bill for a law to conserve life and property in the mining industry of the state. They are all frank, fearless, manly men, vigilantly intent, indeed, upon serving the interests of those whom they respectively represent, but generously just in seeing and conceding one another's claim to justice. No more patient or painstaking care could be taken in meeting the demand for technical knowledge and practical experience in legislating justly for these complicated interests than these men have exacted of themselves and one another.

All the mines of the state are heartily and promptly complying with their bill for protection from fire in mines, which has already been enacted. A disaster such as the Cherry mine suffered from a fire without any explosion will scarcely be possible if the provisions of this law are strictly enforced.

FOR THE HEROES OF CHERRY

The trustees of the Art Institute in Chicago have honored themselves and the manhood of their state by deciding to build a memorial fountain as a tribute to the memory of those who lost or risked their lives on duty or in the rescue work at Cherry mine. The Carnegie Hero Fund Commission has illumined its list of heroes by adding the names of the eleven rescuers who died in the descent and of the two brave miners, Walter Waite and George Eddy, whose experience and courage saved their own lives and those of eighteen others who were entombed for eight days. Illinois may well be proud of having made the most generous provision for the families of those who died at Cherry that such sufferers have ever received, as a partial compensation for their irretrievable loss.

BOOKS FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

LILIAN BRANDT, Contributing Editor

AN AMERICAN CITIZEN; THE LIFE OF WILLIAM H. BALDWIN, JR. By John Graham Brooks. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston. 1910. Pp. 340. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.61:

It is a stalwart figure of a man that stands out from the pages of Professor Brooks's biography—strong to achieve success and to resist temptation; prepared to make the enormous routine work of a railroad office slip smoothly along, or to meet the government's emergency of equipping and tracking a terminal for Cuban War troops on six days' notice; diplomatic enough on one hand to hold his men from a hasty strike, and on the other hand to secure for them full justice from the directors. Here was a glutton for work, known in his first meager clerical job out West as a "tremendous overtimer", a man who reorganized and gave substance to flabby roads in his twenties, was president of the Long Island Railroad at thirty-three, when he had been out of Harvard but ten years, and died at forty-one after a life so full and purposeful that the 300 pages of the book give only glimpses of the work he did in the world and of the good causes he served. It persuades us once more of the truth of the old story, now discredited on many hands, that any American boy who has it in him can become president.

The angle of his approach to social work was unusual. All through college he had planned that in some way he would serve his fellow men. When the time for decision came, he chose business with the definite purpose of rendering his service through it. His great contribution to us was the practical demonstration that in the most commercial of ages and of surroundings—for the Long Island presidency brought him into close contact with Wall street—a man may succeed, not in spite of his ideals, but in conformity with them. Any reader must be in hearty agreement with the author's main expressed purpose to bring this lesson home to young men, particularly to those in college.

It is interesting to see how his social service grew out of his varying tasks. From his general railroad experience he became a believer in trades unions and in the railroad Y. M. C. A. From his work in the South he was interested in the Negro. And from his residence in New York he came to have so vivid an appreciation of the life of the poor and of the immigrant, that he gave uncounted hours and thought as chairman of the Committee of Fifteen, which struck stoutly at some

of the most crying miseries that afflict the weak.

It was characteristic of the man that the two causes he served more than others were fundamental—perhaps the oldest and most stubborn of our social problems—the race question and the social evil. Equally characteristic is the evident lack of written or printed material he left on them, for he was the working member, the shrewd adviser, the inspiring chairman, the leader, and to show his attitude on this question or that Professor Brooks had to quote at length from more vocal associates with whose opinions he was in agreement.

How real these causes were to him is well shown by an incident in the work of the Committee of Fifteen. The investigations undertaken soon proved that the exploitation and commercializing of vice would be tracked by clear footprints to the door of Tammany Hall. As chairman of the committee, Mr. Baldwin would be held chiefly responsible for the ink that was poured in the footprints so that they were seen of all men. But Tammany controlled the city government from which his railroad must secure franchises. His action was prompt and characteristic. He handed his resignation to the railroad without show of martyrdom, and was surprised when it was not accepted.

Of the charm of his manner, the breadth of his sympathies, his vigor and keenness, his great power over men, his particular faculty of inspiring his subordinates to do better work than their best, there is not room to speak here. They are brought out in flashes in Professor Brooks's book, which is not a consecutively told "life," but a series of chapters showing his attitude on various problems, and perhaps the more telling for the sharp concentration possible on one thing at a time. A later book on what business men thought of him, an attempt to measure the results and reactions of such a social worker on his railroad associates, would be of prime interest. For he was, by most deliberate choice, a business man. The service he rendered as chairman of the General Education Board and of the Committee of Fifteen; as trustee of Tuskegee, of the New York City Club, of Hackley School, and of Smith College; as member of the Civic Federation, the Charity Organization Society, the Tenement House Committee, the Armstrong Association, the Citizens' Union, and the Civil Service Reform League—all was added to the day's work of a railroad president who was moreover a director of thirty-seven corporations.

What did the corporation directors think of him and his mature opinions of trades unions, of the ethics of railroad finance, of government regulation and full publicity, as against government ownership of railroads, of the possibility of cleaning up business methods and morals by capturing the little group of men who control all the others and demanding from the top that business be fair? In these questions, it may be, Professor Brooks has a theme for his next book. A. P. K.

GUIDE TO READING IN SOCIAL ETHICS AND ALLIED SUBJECTS. Edited by Francis Peabody. Harvard University. Cambridge. 1910. Pp. 265. Price $1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY $1.35.

An attempt is made in this volume to give brief, carefully selected lists of reading, for the use of "not a superficial reader, nor yet a learned scholar, but an intelligent and serious-minded student who is willing to read substantial literature, if it be commended to him as worth his while and is neither too voluminous nor too inaccessible." The lists are compiled by Prof. Francis G. Peabody and twenty-two of his associates in Harvard University, and each editor assumes responsibility for his own section. Few references are made to works in foreign languages or to periodicals.

It is not easy to tell from the table of contents which is "social ethics" and which are "allied subjects," but that is after all a matter of academic interest, and the forty-odd subjects listed are descriptive enough for all practical purposes.

The lists of course vary in the degree in which they attain their avowed object, and no doubt in every case another equally-qualified compiler would make a more or less different selection of references and would dissent from some of the estimates given. For the stranger in these particular fields of knowledge, however, the Guide cannot fail to be serviceable; and for those who are already at home in these fields it will be of interest to see what the editors have included and what they have to say about the books they recommend.

Typographical errors are not lacking. A familiar title, for example, takes on a strange appearance when it is written (p. 69) "Work, accidents and the law."

CIVIC BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR GREATER NEW YORK. Edited by James Bronson Reynolds for the New York Research Council. Charities Publication Committee. New York. 1911. Pp. 206. Price $1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.63.

On an altogether different plan from the Harvard Guide is this bibliography, which has been prepared by three well-qualified persons under the direction of Mr. Reynolds for a committee called the New York Research Council. It is limited in its field to "social conditions past and present in Greater New York City," but within these limits "the aim has been to provide a practical handbook for workers in such form as to give them access to all important material in print in their several lines of work or investigation." Periodicals, reports, pamphlets, and government documents furnish naturally by far the greater number of references. One feature which will be especially appreciated is that at least one library is mentioned where each work referred to may be found. A full table of contents and an elaborate index are also helpful accessories. The length of this list of references on social conditions, in New York city alone,

is impressive testimony to the volume of this literature. One may speculate as to how much shorter it would have been if writings of problematical truthworthiness and slight value had been eliminated, but such discrimination would have been exceedingly difficult to accomplish.

We notice with regret some typographical errors, in spite of the careful proof-reading which the book has received: on page 144, for example, "Preventative."

The Research Council has begun with the task which is fundamental (though unfortunately not always recognized to be so) in any research—finding out what has already been done before starting on anything new.

THE NATION AS A BUSINESS FIRM. By W. H. Mallock. Adam and Charles Black. London. 1910. Pp. 261. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.11.

On the first page of this volume we are told that all social improvements which it is proposed to effect through modifications of the economic constitution of society are "business propositions," and that those who advocate such changes are in the position of the directors of a company, or of candidates for such posts, who are asking for support from the shareholders, to whom the citizenship of a nation is compared. An obligation therefore rests upon "reformers" to be as accurate in their arguments for the adoption of a new policy on the part of the nation as the executive official of a company must be when asking for authority to take a new and radical step.

The burden of the book is much the same as that of Mr. Mallock's lectures in this country a few years ago. By somewhat intricate statistical reasoning he undertakes to make convincing proof of the fallacy of the claims of socialists and single taxers. He shows by elaborate argument that the poor as a class have prospered as much since 1800 as the rich; that the vast bulk of the incomes of the nation are earned as distinct from unearned; that, in brief, "the poor do not become ever poorer and poorer," but that on the contrary the poor man's income has doubled in a hundred years. No consideration is given to the multiplication of wants which have come to be necessities. For most people his points would be more telling if he did not go over essentially the same ground so often, especially since much depends on opinion or guesses and complete accuracy is therefore impossible. Unless one is fond of mathematical conjectures the repetition is bound to pall before the end is reached. On the other hand, the work commands respect for the ingenuity shown in handling the material from so many points of view.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND THEIR COMPENSATION. By Gilbert Lewis Campbell, B. S. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston. 1911. Pp. 105. Price $1; by mail of THE SURVEY, $1.10.

This little volume, the seventh of the Hart, Schaffner and Marx prize essays, adds nothing to the literature of industrial accidents, but it brings together in compact form, from both primary and secondary sources, what facts we have in regard to the number of work-accidents in the United States, employers' liability laws and insurance, together with some useful material showing the number of accident benefit societies. The last chapter gives some idea of the principles of compensation. Though not written in as interesting a style as some of the more authoritative sources, Mr. Campbell's book should by its brevity serve as a good introduction to the subject, which could be followed up through the bibliographies contained in the footnotes of each chapter.

THE CONFLICT OF COLOUR. By B. L. Putnam Weale. The Macmillan Company. 1910. Pp. 332. Price $2; by mail of THE SURVEY, $2.17.

An interesting, suggestive, learned, dogmatic, apprehensive, unsafe, and altogether British presentation is B. L. Putnam Weale's discussion of what he considers the inevitable impending conflict between the great races of the world. He sketches historically the steps by which the scene of action has been shifted from the western hemisphere, which might except for various minor incidents have been the unhappy battleground, to the Old World, and trembles before the awful consequences of the possible future supremacy of the yellow, brown, or black race—he does not know which.

Thoroughly impressed by the rapidly increasing population of the civilized world he indicates most plausibly the necessity of clash which must result from the overflow of the natural frontiers which have hitherto served as checks. The problem is no longer one of petty interaction of related European nations, but is one of fundamentally differentiated races, of which color is not only the most convenient index, but in some way or other the deciding factor. He discusses in turn the yellow, brown, and black problems. His treatment of the Mongoloid aspect is able, sure, and suggestive; the chapter on the Brown peoples is less convincing; and his handling of the Negroid phase, while equally assured in tone, is naive and often questionable from the anthropological standpoint. The impression is made, and it is probably the truth, that the author writes from first hand knowledge and long personal observation of Eastern Asiatic conditions; from less intimate acquaintance with the problem of nearer Asia of the East Indies, and with practical ignorance of African and Negroid anthropology.

It is not a book that can be dismissed with a phrase, for with all its narrowness and often irritating assurance in doubtful fields it is an impressive statement of a great world problem, and read from that point of view commands attention and deserves it. It is in his analysis of the enormously complex factors of the problem that the author fails. The task is simply too great for any one man, or even for any number of men who have thus far made their appearance.

The book could only have been written by an Englishman. The eternal destiny of the Anglo-Saxon is a pleasant concept to fall asleep with and useful for rousing an audience

to enthusiasm, but it becomes less dazzling in the perspective of geological ages, or even of the traceable period of human history. For Mr. Putnam Weale the responsibility is even more closely defined: to quote his own words, "The problem of colour becomes finally an almost British problem." Of course this may be true, but then again it may not.

THE TREND OF THINGS

By Jacob Fischer in The Fra.

I met her on the Umbrian Hills,
Her hair unbound, her feet unshod;
As one whom secret glory fills
She walked—alone with God.
I met her in the city street:
Oh, changed was her aspect then!
With heavy eyes and weary feet
She walked alone—with men.

* * *

It turns out that the diseases of civilization: Brights Disease, gout, apoplexy, need only the homeopathic treatment of more civilization to cure them, according to Woods Hutchinson in *Hampton's*. It turns out, too, unfortunately, as he tells us, that these diseases are not the peculiar possession of the rich, but batten upon overwork, on toxins left in the body from lack of convalescent care after infectious diseases, or neglect in their early stages, and probably only to a much smaller degree on alcoholism and high living. Cure or prevention is thus by no means impossible for the rich, who "have more of these diseases than the poor chiefly in the sense that they have more time to lay off and enjoy them and more money to pay doctors for listening sympathetically to their symptoms." Civilization, in the sense of better scientific knowledge, can help the rich; and civilization, in the sense of social legislation, that shortens the hours and improves the sanitary conditions of work, is already taking the first steps toward curing among the poor the diseases that it has helped to cause.

* * *

The *Masses*, a monthly magazine published in the interests of the co-operative movement within the Socialist Party in America, started with the beginning of 1911. In the February issue Piet Vlag, manager of the American Wholesale Co-operative, states that two hundred co-operative wholesale and retail stores throughout the United States have been organized as a result of the educational propaganda of the American Wholesale. One of these, the Astoria Co-operative, did a business of $20,000 from January to July of last year. After operating expenses were deducted $2,000 profit was left, of which twelve and one-half per cent went to the sinking fund, the same amount for socialist propaganda, two and one-half for bonus to employes, and seven and one-quarter for purchasers' dividends.

The February issue contains, also, articles by John Spargo, Ellis O. Jones, George R. Kirkpatrick, and others, as well as translations from the German.

The Masses is edited by Thomas Seltzer, and is published at 112 East Nineteenth street.

* * *

The "best chief of police that New York ever had," to use Boss Croker's old tag for him, broke silence before the Credit Men's Association of the Building Trades in New York. These are the sub-contractors and dealers in building materials, 500 of whom have organized to make sure among other things that they get a square deal from the architects and general contractors. Said Mr. Devery, according to a New York *Times* reporter:

"I don't know as I'm prepared to make any remarks, but after listenin' to your speeches this evening I gather that you wait to join in till you get nailed peekin' under a gate; then you holler and go to the association. Some of you fellows here, I bet, have scratched all of the hair off your heads trying to beat one another. My friends, you may talk all you like about fair play and a square deal, but when the long green is in sight, let me tell you friendship ceases."

Why not a paper by Mr. Devery before the next meeting of the American Economic Association on the materialistic interpretation of history?

* * *

The *Farmer's Voice* for February tells of a recent church conference on rural problems, where the Rev. Clair S. Adams presented a "survey" of the social and religious needs of fourteen communities in Illinois. He reported, in brief, a decay in agriculture, little interest in education, little or no organized recreational facilities, a church attendance of less than fifty per cent of the population—representing an absolute decrease in membership in thirty-five out of seventy-seven churches, an increase in only twenty-five—and a tendency of population to leave the farms and concentrate in the towns. R. E. Bone of Rock Creek told of the successful work of the pastor of that community in establishing a rural social and religious center, and the Rev. Matthew B. McNutt of DuPage, Ill., reviewed his ten years' experience with a little rural church that had before his coming been practically abandoned. Following the principle that the country church should be not only a spiritual but a social and educational center, Dr. McNutt organized recreation, athletics, and lectures, started a library which has now 1,000 volumes, and is at present organizing courses in scientific agriculture and the domestic and social sciences. From a mere handful the attendance at church, lectures, or clubs has grown to almost a thousand, and the wooden one-room church has been replaced by a ten-thousand-dollar brick structure.

* * *

"The playgrounds," says Dr. Henry B. Favill in an address to the Chicago Chamber of Commerce, "hitch up close to the juvenile court, and the juvenile court hitches up close to the hospital, and the hospital hitches up close to the efforts for public health, and then we make a circle round and round and find that we cannot touch one without logically, and in immediate sequence, taking up some sort of activity in the others."

SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE NEEDLESS DEATHS OF BABIES

On the rue Falguière in the Latin Quarter of Paris there is a unique monument to a distinguished physician. Professor Landouzy, dean of the medical faculty of the University of Paris, said at the inauguration of this monument that it was finer and more lasting than any monument which could have been erected of costly marble, of gold, or of bronze. This superb memorial is the Pierre Budin Foundation, and its object is the instruction of mothers in the feeding of infants. Two years earlier, when Dr. Budin lay dying, he dictated this brief message to his friend, Senator Paul Strauss, and eight former pupils:

> Dear Friends: I entrust to you the interests of the babies of France. I rely upon you to continue on your own account and through your disciples the propaganda in behalf of instruction to mothers in the nursing of children. BUDIN.

The foundation, which has a small but well-equipped building, and is supported mainly by annual contributions, is the direct response to this appeal. Quite as valuable as the professional service of its medical staff are the enthusiasm and energy put into the enterprise by Madame Budin, who takes part in this memorial of her husband's work as a labor of love, by Madame Strauss, and by their associates. These ladies not only raise the necessary funds, but in their white uniforms, under the direction of the doctor, do the actual work of handling the babies in the clinic, mingling freely with the mothers and giving them the necessary counsel, encouragement, or warning, as the case may be, always directed toward the nursing of the infants at the mother's breast. Madame Budin and her co-workers are not "volunteers" in the ordinary sense. By their regularity in attendance, by their submission to discipline and training, and above all by their single-hearted devotion to this special task, they become as much professional experts as are the volunteer physicians.

Away over on the other side of the Latin Quarter, among a remarkably interesting group of philanthropic agencies which owe their inspiration and direction to Mademoiselle Chaptal, a trained nurse and the daughter of a French countess, there is a similar life-saving station. Here, as in the Budin Foundation, devoted and capable physicians examine nursing babies who are brought to them, and tell their mothers what mistakes they are making, and what special care their particular children require. All the resources of medical science, of woman's intuition, of human experience, and of common sense are brought to bear upon the prevention of the needless sacrifice of infant life.

We are not compelled to go as far as the Latin Quarter of Paris to discover the need of such work as is undertaken by these two institutions, or to find physicians and public-spirited citizens who have undertaken to meet it. In many American cities the initial steps have been taken in the crusade against infant mortality. As we write, there lies on the table before us an urgent appeal for an annual fund of $300,000 to be expended for this purpose in New York

city, until such time as the city is able to make a more adequate appropriation than the $40,000 set aside for this year to maintain municipal milk depots in Greater New York. We infer that the appeal is confidential, because of its red ink serial number; but that it is perhaps not so very confidential, because the particular number borne by this appeal is 94,398. We trust therefore that Mrs. J. Borden Harriman and her associates in the finance committee of the Committee for the Reduction of Infant Mortality of the New York Milk Committee will forgive us for expressing thus publicly our profound interest in the success of their appeal. It is unthinkable that any contributions to this great fund would be at the expense of the diet kitchens or dispensaries, or at that of the great relief agencies which, proportionately to their resources, supply milk as a matter of course, as they do other kinds of relief. We would look with misgiving upon the direct distribution of milk by the municipality. If, however, from the surely as yet unexhausted resources of private philanthropy $300,000—or whatever sum is necessary—can be supplied to do such work here on a large scale as is done in Paris on a small scale by Mlle. Chaptal's dispensary and the Budin Foundation, this would seem to us the greatest single contribution which could just now be made to the saving of human life.

What we need to realize is that infantile diarrhœa is essentially a preventable disease. Dr. Rowland G. Freeman says that of babies well cared for and properly fed, only one in 150 dies in the first year. Of all children born in New York at present one in seven dies in the first year. But it is not long since it was two in seven. There has been progress; there is room for progress; and there is the possibility of progress. We must get in our minds a vivid picture of what it would mean if nineteen out of twenty of the babies who now die in the first year of their life were saved. For the most part, it is nothing in their heredity that slaughters them, but, as all physicians testify, the lack of care and of proper food.

That proper food is mother's milk. Dr. Woods Hutchinson is quite right that even the best cow is a poor substitute for the mother. "Cows' milk," he says, "while admirably adapted for raising calves, is a very poor thing for children, and the substitutes for cows' milk are worse." If therefore the function of the milk committee were merely to furnish milk, even if certified, pasteurized, or modified in the highest degree, we would not endorse its appeal. But out of its experience there has come a broader program, indicated by the name of its sub-committee—on the reduction of infant mortality. It is a program primarily of public education and individual instruction. We assume that the committee intends to put foremost the danger of weaning young babies; and to enforce by every means in its power the inherent right of the newborn babe to its natural food. We assume that if milk is to be sold at a reduced price or is to be given away when necessary, this is primarily as food for the mother herself and for older children; and that only as a last resort is it to become a substitute for the mother's breast in the case of infants of nursing age.

The milk depot as a place for the distribution of clean milk has doubtless a certain limited justification, so long as commercial milk is either infected or prohibitive in price. As genuine life-saving stations, as centers for individual attention to infants and individual instruction to mothers, they may become the very foundation stone of the rational safeguarding of human life.

March 11, 1911.

THE COMMON WELFARE

SOME BILLS THAT FAILED

Congress failed to pass ten of the eleven bills before it which have been of especial interest to readers of THE SURVEY as embodying some specific measure of social advance.

The one which passed was the bill urged for many years by railway employes and boiler makers, providing for inspection of locomotive boilers throughout the United States. Some states have inspection, but the country as a whole has made practically no provision for it.

The bill establishing a children's bureau passed the Senate but failed in the House. The National Child Labor Committee, its sponsor, believed that it had a clear majority in the House, but it could not be brought to a vote and thus was lost when its prospects seemed brightest.

The other measures which failed were Senator Owen's bill establishing a National Department of Health and Congressman Mann's bill in the House changing the name of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service to the Public Health Service—a measure not at all acceptable to the Committee of One Hundred on National Health; the Goulden and Gillette bills proposing, from different standpoints, to establish a system of pensions for civil employes of the government; the bill establishing a parcels post; the Esch and Mann bills prohibiting the use of poisonous phosphorus in match manufacture; the bills incorporating the Rockefeller Foundation and the Carnegie Peace Endowment Fund.

"3,000 Brooklynites, mostly children, die annually as a direct result of dark rooms." – Jacob Riis.

"How can one expect good citizens to be raised in a place like this?"— Theodore Roosevelt.

LETTING THE LIGHT IN AND THE CHILDREN OUT.

Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Riis were members of a party including city officials which made an autmobile tour through the tenement districts of Brooklyn. This opened a campaign of publicity which it is hoped will arouse public sentiment agninst the 49,000 dark interior bedrooms in the borough. The New York tenement house law applies to Brooklyn as well as to Manhattan. Failure to enforce it in old buildings in Brooklyn is believed by the Tenement House Committee and the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis to be due chiefly to lack of an insistent public demand.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Harvard University is announcing a course of vocational guidance to be given in the next summer school. Inasmuch as Prof. Paul H. Hanus, the head of the education department, is also chairman of the Vocation Bureau executive board, it is altogether fitting that the course, based on a work in which he has been active with such co-workers as A. Lincoln Filene, Mary Morton Kehew, should be undertaken under his auspices.

This is the first course of its kind, and applications have come from all parts of the country from school superintendents, heads of vocational schools, social workers, college men charged with advisory duties towards students, and men and women who desire to equip themselves for this service. Meyer Bloomfield, who has been director of the Civic Service House for ten years and is now in charge of the Vocation Bureau, will be the lecturer. It was in the neighborhood house of the North End of Boston that the first Vocation Bureau in the country was started under the leadership of the late Prof. Frank Parsons.

A book by Mr. Bloomfield, The Vocational Guidance of Youth,[1] has just been published by Houghton Mifflin Company. It presents the problems of mis-employment and mis-direction, and points out how organized information and intelligent guidance of youth, keeping always in mind the social investment of the child rather than its individual employment, would greatly mitigate such conditions as have been pointed out by the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws in England and by other authoritative investigations.

That the vocational guidance movement should have met with a response from the whole country, as it has, indicates a two-fold need of adjusting the educational system so as to quicken what President Eliot calls the "life-career-motive," and of shaping conditions of employment so as to encourage vocational efficiency.

[1]The Vocational Guidance of Youth. By Meyer Bloomfield. Houghton Mifflin Company. New York. 1911. Pp. 123. By mail of THE SURVEY, postpaid, 60 cents.

Interest in vocational guidance is not confined to educators and social workers alone. A fortnight ago Mr. Bloomfield was invited by joint resolution to address the Wisconsin Legislature on the subject, and for over an hour there was a lively cross fire of questions and answers. Needless to say the potent influence of the University at Madison, with such men as President Van Hise, Professor Commons, Dr. McCarthy, and Dean Reber, has prepared that state to think seriously about the vocational needs of its youth.

In Boston the school system is committed to a thoroughgoing policy of vocational guidance just as Massachusetts is committed to a comprehensive program of vocational education. A course for Boston public school teachers has been conducted since the opening of school last fall, to which every school sends its vocational counsellor, so called, a teacher or principal's assistant appointed through an order of the School Committee. At this course representatives of the vocations that employ boys and girls come to answer questions and to present the problems of their respective occupations.

To supplement this work the Vocation Bureau is issuing a series of Bulletins on Vocations for Boston Boys. The Bulletins on the Machinist and Banking have appeared. The Girls' Trade Education League is now sending to press a series of Bulletins on Vocations for Boston Girls. It is hoped through this printed material, which is to be reinforced by the intelligent sympathy of the school people, to help the children to a better chance of finding themselves, to bridge the yawning gulf between school life and working life, and most important, to prolong the educational life of youth.

The Harvard course of ten lectures open on July 7, and continues on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays for three weeks presenting the following topics:

Elements in the choice of a vocation.
The necessity of vocational guidance, as recognized in various countries.
Vocational guidance in the school system.
a. The public schools.
b. Guidance and private philanthropy.

The duties and equipment of the vocational counsellor.
How to study the vocations.
Vocational guidance and the problem of employment.
The foundations of vocational efficiency—educational, economic, and personal.
The employer's point of view in vocational guidance.
Social gains through vocational guidance.
Summary of the course, and cautions.

In this connection *Service,* the monthly leaflet of the Juvenile Protective Association of Philadelphia, announces the inception of a movement for a vocational bureau in that city.

The purpose of the proposed bureau is: first, to gather facts relative to the opportunities in the various industries for boys; second, to disseminate these facts to the schools and other places where boys may be gathered; third, to encourage a greater interest in the advising of the young into the various industries; fourth, to examine boys as to their special fitness for the various lines of industry and to advise them as to the opportunities open to them in the industries to which they are most fitted.

JUVENILE COURT LAW UPHELD IN KENTUCKY

The state Court of Appeals has handed down an opinion upholding the juvenile court law of Kentucky. The law was attacked in a case in which a girl had been committed by the County Court of Jefferson county (Louisville) to the Convent of the Sisters of the Good Shepherd. It was sought, first, to secure the release of the girl by a writ of habeas corpus, and failing in this to have the judgment reviewed on appeal to the Criminal Court. The law was attacked upon three grounds: That the creation of the juvenile court was not authorized by the constitution; that the judgment of the court being for the confinement of a delinquent child for an indeterminate period, or until she reached her majority, was the imposition of such punishment as clearly authorized an appeal under the criminal practice; that the act was unconstitutional in that it denied to the delinquent the right of trial by jury, and therefore deprived the child of its liberty without due process of law.

The court overruled all of these objections. The reasons assigned for overruling the second and third objection are of general interest. The law, following generally other laws, declares that the proceedings shall not be deemed criminal. Speaking of this declaration in the law, the court says:

> If they (the proceedings) were in fact criminal, the declaration to the contrary could not have the effect of changing their nature; but such declaration at least shows the legislative intent. This intent is to protect rather than punish the child. . . . The object of the act is to give the court authority, acting for the best interests of the child, to place it in the care and custody of someone capable and willing to do for it that which its natural parents either are unable or unwilling to do. Such an act is in no wise a criminal proceeding; nor can any restraint imposed under the act for such a purpose be regarded as a punishment for crime.

Citing numerous other cases, the court held that the child was not deprived of its liberty without due process of law in that no jury trial was allowed it, resting its conclusion upon the theory that the proceedings are not criminal, but are

> merely the services of the government called into play for the purpose of protecting, training, and correcting a class of children, who, through misfortune or lack of parental guidance and care, are unable or unwilling to care for themselves.

BRITISH SCHEME OF STATE INSURANCE

The next step in the program of social reform promised by the British Liberal Party is state insurance for sickness and invalidism. The work of preparing the tentative proposals recently made public by the chancellor of the exchequer began many months ago, and the final draft was drawn up at a series of conferences between Lloyd George and representatives of the various benefit societies in the British Isles, the intention being to make use of these societies so far as possible as agencies for distribution of the fund for compulsory state insurance. The societies are estimated to have a membership of over 6,000,000, and funds of over £46,500,000.

The government scheme of compul-

sory insurance covers the whole working population whose yearly income does not exceed £160. Five shillings a week is the amount of the proposed weekly state contribution, all benefits beyond this limit coming from purely voluntary membership in the benefit societies. Persons between sixteen and seventy years old are eligible, all beyond this age passing into the class of old age pensioners. Half the contribution toward the fund is to come from the insured, half from the state, the amount to be calculated by government actuaries.

It is impossible to calculate the expense on the basis of present actuarial tables, for unlike friendly or industrial insurance companies, the government would accept both those with good and those with frail constitutions. The most distinctively social element in the plan is, indeed, this development of the system of free hospitals and free medical treatment in the home, by which the state would undertake, or at least share, the financial support of those with frail constitutions, or those whose constitutions have been undermined by unhealthful occupations.

The boards of administration are to be made up of representatives of the government, of the friendly societies, and of employers of labor; the beneficiaries, except those who are members of the friendly societies, will not be represented.

CONSTITUTIONALITY OF LIABILITY LAWS TESTED

Two interesting developments have recently taken place in connection with the federal liability laws. On January 20 President Taft sent a message to Congress, together with his approval of a bill for the relief of the family of a workman, Samuele Badolato, killed while in the employ of the government on the Panama Canal, recommending a general act that should practically remove the three months' time limit now set for applications for compensation. He points out that special legislation has been necessary in granting compensation in the Badolato case, which was not brought up within this time limit, and that since the passing of the compensation act of May, 1908, no less than twenty-one cases have failed to receive compensation for this reason alone.

Even more important is the opinion handed down by Judge Rellstab in the United States Supreme Court, District of New Jersey, upholding the federal liability law of April, 1908, which applies to employes engaged in interstate commerce. Shortly before the present law was passed, the United States liability act of 1906 was declared unconstitutional, because it affected employes engaged in intrastate as well as interstate commerce. The later law was broader in its application than that of 1906. It also sought to remove the constitutional difficulty, and its constitutionality was not challenged until, in the Hoxie case, Judge Simeon E. Baldwin, now governor of Connecticut, held it unconstitutional on the same grounds as the 1906 law. In the case of Anderson *vs.* Lehigh Valley Railroad, Judge Rellstab challenges Judge Baldwin's decision and upholds the constitutionality of the law, as borne out by his own and a number of Supreme Court decisions previous to Judge Baldwin's.

In New York, too, the constitutional question has arisen, in connection with the compensation act of September, 1910. This is in the application of Earl Ives for seventy dollars damages from the South Buffalo Railway, for an injury sustained in consequence of no negligence on either side, but of the necessary risks and dangers of his employment. The case has been carried before the Court of Appeals. It is in effect a test case to which both sides agree, to decide the constitutionality of the first state law that substitutes the principle of automatic compensation for trade risk for the principle of employers' liability for proved negligence. In view of the movement for compensation in other states, the final decision in this case will be of the greatest interest and importance.

PENSION PROPOSAL FOR NEW YORK CITY

Following directly on a report on the subject by the Citizens Union pension committee, of which Arthur Williams

was chairman, Assemblyman Cuvillier has introduced a bill in the Legislature to amend the New York City Charter to provide a retirement fund for city employes.

The bill proposes to establish a board consisting of the mayor, the comptroller, and the city chamberlain, which shall have general jurisdiction over a fund made up of deductions from the salaries of beneficiaries of one per cent for five years' service and proportional increase for each five-year period until six per cent is reached, when the amount becomes stationary, together with donations, legacies, and other forms of gift. Membership in the fund is voluntary. Application must be made within a year after entering the service and none is eligible for a pension who has not contributed a sum equal to half the average salary received for the three years prior to retirement.

Fifty years is the minimum age of retirement, under ordinary circumstances, and the amount of payment depends on length of service, and one-half the average salary for three previous years after thirty years' service, and a proportional sum after between twenty-one and twenty-nine years. No age limit is set for persons mentally or physically incapacitated, or those who lost their office through no fault of their own, who are eligible after ten years' service.

The proposed law is designed to cover all the city departments—of which there are sixteen—except the departments of education, fire, and health, which already have pension systems of their own.

Senator Cuvillier's bill departs from the suggestions of the pension committee in making no provision for sickness or accident, in not providing for return of the contributions of those leaving the service before they are eligible for the pension, in being on a voluntary and not an obligatory basis, and in requiring no contribution from the city.

The report of the committee of the Citizens' Union shows that in 1910 the four departments now giving pensions paid out about $3,000,000, of which $400,000 came from the city budget, the rest from gifts, from fines paid to or licenses given out by the department, and, in all cases but the Fire Department, from deductions from salaries.

SUFFRAGETTE PLANS FOR PRISON REFORM

It will be remembered that Winston Churchill's plans of English prison reform, outlined in THE SURVEY of September 3, 1910, contain a clause providing for more reasonable treatment of suffragettes and other passive resisters but make no special separate provision for the care of women prisoners in general. Prison experience, however, has taught the suffragettes something about the character and special problems of the ordinary woman prisoner, and a certain section of the suffrage group, whose spokesman is Silvia Pankhurst, now lecturing in the country, is starting an agitation through the British press to secure for women the sort of protection that the juvenile court affords children, to extend the same curative treatment that the industrial school gives boys to young women prisoners, whose usual offense, prostitution, calls quite as much for protection and rehabilitation.

Miss Pankhurst's reform would begin with protection in the court and detention rooms by the separation of men and women prisoners, and the provision of police matrons and of women lawyers.

On the curative and preventive side she would do away with the practice of sending any but hardened offenders to prison. All the younger offenders should be sent to state schools, where their activities should not be limited, as now in many private reformatories, to routine household drudgery, alternating with complete idleness. Instead she advocates a system of technical education suited, as far as possible, to the bent of each girl's mind and to the length of her term, and designed to prepare her for industries which are in need of workers. Logically a system of employment bureaus, or perhaps an extension of the labor exchanges, should, she holds, accompany this educational system, whose ultimate object is to equip the girl better for the industrial struggle which, in many cases, was the cause of her moral mishap.

In addition, Miss Pankhurst's plan

would include physical rehabilitation, not only through good food and medical care, but through athletic training and instruction in habits of cleanliness.

PITTSBURGH BIG WITH DEMANDS

From local option to the street car tangle and on through a new school code, municipal courts, public utility, and municipal art commissions, measures and bills are being brought before the Pennsylvania Legislature by Pittsburgh, in such numbers and of such radical character that the state's lawmakers at Harrisburg show signs of bewilderment. Based upon popular dissatisfaction with present forms of city government, and urged by recently acquired recognition that neither state commissions nor municipalities possess adequate powers to deal with street car and railroad matters, a wave of unrest is stirring western Pennsylvania. Other parts of the state have felt the movement and eyes are turned to Harrisburg as never before.

"How much do you think we'll get?" is the current question. Even the most enthusiastic supporters of the progressive legislative program can hope for success in but part of their demands.

The proposed new form of city government, known as the Pittsburgh Plan, and similar in many respects to the Boston Plan, is foremost in the public mind. Perhaps second in popular interest is the probable fate of the school code, a measure generally endorsed by educators. Yet two years ago a similar bill was so changed in intent and possible application by amendments that a sigh of relief rolled over the state when it met Governor Stuart's veto.

Either the abolishment of the State Railroad Commission and the substitution of a bureau of public utilities, or the strengthening of the commissioners' powers will be assured by the passage of one of the alternate measures. To all intents and purposes the present power of the Railroad Commission is limited to recommendations, with which railroad and street railway corporations may conform if they choose, the sole compulsion being the weight of public opinion. The bills are part of the legislative program relating to traction matters, for which the mayor of Pittsburgh, W. A. Magee, has stood sponsor.

Pittsburgh in its intermittent war on and never ceasing friction with the Pittsburgh Railways Company, has been in the peculiar position of having the right, according to the terms of franchises granted in the past to underlying companies, to take possession of street car lines, yet the Legislature has never granted the municipality the power to possess by purchase or construction a foot of track. Therefore the club over the head of the railway company is apparently nothing but a jester's slapstick, and will so remain until the legislators act. A companion bill will hasten the abolishment of grade crossings by empowering the city to make the improvement, and by providing for the appointment of viewers to assess benefits against both railroad and street car companies.

Another legislative measure fathered by the Pittsburgh city administration is intended to further the extension of corporate limits and assimilation of adjoining boroughs. It is entitled the Greater City bill. Under existing conditions an adjacent borough or township may petition for annexation to the city by majority vote. The proposed act would make annexation depend on the combined vote of the city and its tiny neighbor. This joint-vote scheme worked well in 1907 in bringing Allegheny City into the fold. A storm of protest has been aroused in the populous residential boroughs surrounding Pittsburgh by this year's measure, and the taxation features of the proposed legislation are receiving scrutiny.

In the field of capital and labor, which is inevitably closely related to civic affairs in an industrial district, Governor Tener in his inaugural address recommended a compulsory arbitration law and the appointment of a commission to investigate all phases of employers' liability.

The various proposals enumerated come from a great variety of sources, and when viewed in the light of their backers some of them make strange bedfellows. They are all, however, in a

sense an expression of that "coming to self-consciousness" of the Pittsburgh district, as a civic unit, which was outlined in Mr Burns's article in the February magazine number of THE SURVEY—a metropolian industrial community, beginning to feel its coherence, wishing to break down old civic barriers, seeking at once larger local self-government and simpler and more direct channels through which to express the popular will, and seeking also more effective instruments (whether school board or railroad commission) through which to execute the public work.

Pennsylvania's constitution stands in the way of immediately wiping out the nefarious aldermanic courts, often selling places for petty judgments, yet Pittsburghers think they have found means for relief, if not cure, in a bill establishing minor courts of justice. A recent turning of the spot light upon methods and practices of two aldermen has renewed conviction as to the necessity for change.

Pittsburgh artists, architects, engineers, and citizens susceptible to the aesthetic have a bill ready providing for the appointment of a Municipal Art Commission to approve plans for public buildings and bridges, and to act as the final court on all questions of art concerning the city. Private builders of imposing edifices may voluntarily submit plans to the proposed commission.

Many persons believe a great advance will come through the new school code and new charter measures. The code abolishes Pittsburgh's small ward school boards and centralizes authority in fifteen men to be appointed by the circuit court bench for the first term, and afterwards to be elected at large. A comptroller is provided to audit all financial matters of the school system, in contrast to the present irresponsible expenditure by ward boards. Local interest is to be kept alive and make itself felt through ward boards of visitors of three members each, reporting to the central bodies and making recommendations.

A nine-months' popular campaign waged by Pittsburgh's civic bodies in the interest of a changed form of city government is reaching its culmination in a series of proposed amendments to the present charter which would reduce the number of councilmen from a bicameral body of sixty-seven men to one chamber of not over nine members, elected at large; would pay such councilmen salaries not exceeding $6,500 a year; would wipe out party symbols on ballots, abolish primaries, and provide for nomination by petition of five per cent of voters at the last election; would confer upon the citizenship the power of initiative on petition of fifteen per cent of the voters, referendum on ten per cent, and recall on twenty-five. The duties and powers of the mayor and comptroller would remain unchanged and the former would still appoint heads of departments, the framers of the Pittsburgh Plan being convinced of the desirability of clinging to the principle of centralized responsibility.

Scranton, as the other second-class city of Pennsylvania, would share with Pittsburgh in any changes in the form of municipal government.

REPORT OF NEW YORK CONGESTION COMMISSION

The report to Mayor Gaynor of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population gives official standing to much propaganda of the volunteer congestion committee. The commission was appointed by the mayor last May, a majority of its members being aldermen. It has held twenty-one meetings, its various committees fifty-one meetings, and 164 witnesses have been examined. Original investigations have not been made. The secretary of the congestion committee, Benjamin C. Marsh, has served without pay as secretary of the commission and has borne the brunt of the work. During the same time he has been secretary of the State Commission on Distribution of Population which attacked congestion from the preventive side—by popularizing the farm and heading off slum growth in smaller cities—as reported in last week's issue of THE SURVEY.

The city commission's report comes to a sharp focus in the statement that in the past five years the population of

Manhattan Island south of Fourteenth street (which includes the lower East Side and the older parts of the city) has increased 27,165. Of the 122 blocks which in 1905 had a population of 750 or more per acre, sixty-five have increased in density and six of them have increased by 300 or more per acre. Room crowding is growing in Manhattan and Brooklyn and spreading in the Bronx. Serious physical, economic, and moral results are shown—"the greater the room overcrowding the higher not only the death rate, but the sickness rate as well." The tenement house law has not stopped this. The report puts it, in effect, that while the law is not responsible for making two men sleep where one has slept before, neither has it turned one of them out of bed.

Congestion and room overcrowding are discussed under five headings: conditions, effects, causes, methods of prevention here and abroad, recommendations for improvement. When printed it will make a volume of several hundred pages with hundreds of statistical tables and independent reports by twelve committees. At this writing only a summary has been given out.

The commission finds fourteen main causes of congestion in the following words:

Poverty, defined as inability to maintain a reasonable standard of living.

Concentration of factories and offices.

Consolidation of the five boroughs.

Intensive use of land.

High price of land due to intensive use.

Lack of control over aliens and citizens.

Long hours of work.

Cost of transit and the transit policy of the city, since transit has been regarded as a matter to be governed by commercial and not by social consideration, although the commission shows that the cost of transportation for large classes in the community is a distinct waste that could be eliminated by distribution of factories.

Lack of a definite city plan.

The present system of taxation, under which until very recently the owner of the land improved with buildings has been penalized, while the man who holds land out of use, so that he may secure the speculative increases of land value, has been helped by the taxation policy.

Failure to prepare land for housing purposes.

Methods of public and private charities, but especially of private charities.

Failure of the city to adopt a policy to attract people to outlying boroughs.

Immigration and failure to distribute and control immigrants.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION

The commission's recommendations have in large part been embodied in bills and ordinances to be introduced later. The findings are so voluminous that only the barest outline can be given here. Chief among them are measures directly limiting the "cubage" of all buildings hereafter erected or altered south of One Hundred and Eighty-first street in Manhattan—in other words, requiring a very large lot for a large building and outlawing the skyscraper; requiring fireproof construction; establishing a system of zones for buildings of different heights and for factories; and changing the system of taxation.

Following are the main headings of the recommendations with their purposes as interpreted in a digest given out by the commission:

Lot Occupancy of Buildings Other than Tenements. Requiring at the back of factories an open yard the width of the lot and of a depth equal to one-tenth the height of the building but not less than ten feet.

Heighth of Tenements. Providing that height shall be greater than the width of the widest street on which the building stands; no tenement shall be more than four stories high except south of One Hundred and Eighty-first street, Manhattan, except that one story may be added for every fifteen per cent of the lot area left unoccupied less than the present legal occupancy; requiring fireproof construction for tenements of four stories or fifty feet height; limiting tenements in outlying districts to three stories and other buildings in proportion; modifying the tenement house law in regard to three-family tenements in such a way as to encourage construction of them.

Room and Apartment Overcrowding. Making ninety square feet a minimum tenement room (it is now seventy), with one room in each apartment of at least 150 square feet (now 120); a minimum per apartment of 600 cubic feet of air space for each adult and 300 for each child under twelve, with a fine of twenty-five dollars for each violation (it is now 400 and 200, respectively, per *room*); requiring the Tenement House and Health Departments to placard each apartment with the number of occupants permitted; requiring a license to take lodgers; creating a bureau of

occupancy in the Department of Health to enforce the law against overcrowding.

Conditions of Labor. Appointing a deputy state commissoner of labor for New York city with more factory inspectors; creating a city industrial commission of three persons appointed by the mayor from nominations by the Employers' Association, the labor unions, and one by the mayor himself, to investigate conditions, wages, and disputes; creating a series of employment offices through the state with a number in New York city, or a municipal employment bureau with at least one office in each borough; creating a national department of labor to give wide publicity over the country to the opportunities for work, and to conditions, wages, and permanency of employment in all sections.

Distribution of Factories. Raising the cubic air space for each employe from 250 cubic feet as at present to 500 for each day and 600 for each night worker; improving the water fronts of each borough for use as factories, and warehouses; building freight lines to connect all boroughs; reducing charges for trucks on municipal ferries.

Parks, Playgrounds, Schools, Recreation Centers. Acquiring land in advance of public needs, and in outlying boroughs dividing the cost among the property benefited, the borough, and the city; limiting schools outside Manhattan to 1,500 pupils and rooms to forty seats; purchasing with each school yard area adequate to the needs of the children of the neighborhood; increasing instruction in physiology and hygiene and teaching children the results of room overcrowding; increasing school gardens, parks, playgrounds, and recreation centers.

Cheap Land and Good Cheap Housing. Making the rate of taxation upon all buildings "half the rate of taxation upon all land and that this reduction be secured by an equal change in each of five consecutive years"; recommending that the city government consider a tax on unearned increment; terminating the existing perpetual franchises of transit lines "as opportunity offers by forfeiture"; extending transit systems to utilize to their full capacity the subways, bridges, and elevated lines; running lines into all sections of the city whether or not they would pay at first, because they will be profitable in "conserving the general welfare and prosperity of the citizens"; extending the city lines to the Queens side of the Queensborough Bridge and through the Steinway Tunnel into the Borough of Queens; providing in all franchises for transfers; constructing a subway to the Borough of Richmond (Staten Island), and pending that to sell forty tickets for one dollar on the municipal ferries; amending the rapid transit law to give the Public Service Commission and city authorities powers over surface lines equal to those over rapid transit lines; preparing a city plan by the Board of Estimate, including the following items: restricting factories to certain districts, providing transit and freight lines, determining the main lines and secondary lines of streets as suggested by Chief Engineer Nelson P. Lewis of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, providing sewers and substructures for pipes, providing adequate sites for parks, playgrounds, recreation centers, and municipal buildings, acquisition of adequate land by the city for all public purposes; reducing streets in outlying districts to thirty feet with houses set back fifteen to twenty feet from the curb in the hope of reducing rents; providing excess condemnation of land so that the city may acquire more than is needed for a specific improvement and resell or rent the surplus.

Health and Safety. Empowering the Tenement House Department to vacate insanitary and dark rooms pending structural changes and making the tenement house commissioner a member of the Board of Health; organizing a staff of medical inspectors to be assigned by the Department of Health to the Tenement House Department to pass upon cases of vacating insanitary tenements or rooms in which there has been contagious disease; requiring that tenement walls be whitewashed every year; prohibiting or adequately regulating manufacture in tenement houses.

Charities and Public Outdoor Relief. Creating a board of trustees of public outdoor relief to dispense such relief to the dependent members of families of consumptives, and to widows with children provided they will move into wards with a density of not over 300 to the acre and live under conditions approved by the board; giving the comptroller supervision over all charitable institutions exempt from taxation; encouraging the removal from congested districts of charitable institutions, except emergency hospitals and similar institutions; acquiring tracts of land for extending the work of the City Farm Colony and for teaching adults agriculture and gardening; urging private charities so to dispense their relief as to encourage distribution of population from congested districts and to encourage recipients to learn trades other than those of congested city life.

Immigration. Legislation abolishing time limit on the government's right to deport aliens for cause; progressive measures looking toward the effective control over aliens by the federal government; encouraging immigrants to become farm laborers and discouraging their segregation in congested sections; preventing artificial stimulation of immigration; establishing city and state farms; publishing information as to opportunities to learn the English language; providing for immediate deportation of convicted aliens in order to relieve overcrowding in state penal institutions.

Delinquency. Closing streets in congested districts during certain hours so that children may use them for playgrounds.

Public Squares and Buildings. Providing each borough with at least one large area for public administration buildings and a series of civic centers.

THE TREND OF THINGS

To point the moral and adorn the tale, to prove, that is, that public opinion in regard to housing is slumbering in Boston, the *Boston Common* is reviewing week by week what has been accomplished in various sections of the city as a result of the Twentieth Century Club report issued thirteen years ago. One week's investigation of one section of town finds some houses gone, only part of them in consequence of the report. Others it finds in worse condition that before, notably one so built around that it cannot be seen from the street nor approached except through the hallway of another house. Others, again, are improved by changes in surrounding conditions. One house ordered vacated thirteen years ago is still occupied, and another condemned eighteen years ago still stands and is occupied. In another place, where stood two houses too bad to improve or occupy, the report advised converting the property into a playground, but the houses still stand. The *Common* concludes, with some show of reason, that public opinion must have gone to sleep directly after the report of thirteen years ago was made.

* * *

From Tannenbaum through Maryland to the Red Flag is a far call, but new times being new issues, which express themselves sometimes through old tunes. Ebenezer Eliot gave a new meaning to the air of God Save the King when he wrote his immortal God Save the People—,

"Not thrones or crowns, but men."

It was William Morris who first adapted the March of the Workers to the tune of John Brown.

Hark, the rolling of the thunder;
Lo, the sun, and lo, thereunder
Riseth wrath and hope and wonder,
And the host comes marching on.

Hamlin Garland followed him with verses not so well known:

A BATTLE SONG FOR THE ARMY.

We have seen the reaper toiling in the heat of summer sun,
We have seen his children needy when the harvesting was done.
We have seen a mighty army dying hopeless one by one
While the flag went marching on.

. . . .

Our slavers' marts are empty, human flesh no more is sold.
Where the dealer's fateful hammer wakes the clink of leaping gold,
But the slavers of the present more relentless powers hold,
Though the world goes marching on.
But no longer shall the children bend above the whizzing wheel;
We will free the weary women from their bondage under steel,
In the mines and in the forests worn and helpless man shall feel
His cause is marching on!

Within the last few months another writer, B. F. Sutherland, makes this contribution to socialist verse, following more nearly the phrasings which Julia Ward Howe had woven into The Battle Hymn of the Republic:

Mine eyes have seen the banners of the marshalled hosts of toil;
They are pouring from the workshops, they are springing from the soil;
They are shouting for the surcease of the weary murk and moil—
The day is marching on.
I have seen a crimson ensign on the rigid battle line;
Lo, it flames, a fiery pillar, beacon of a hope divine;
They are singing in the trenches, though the angry foemen whine—
The day is marching on.
Let us sound the call to labor, for the harvest now is ripe;
Lay the sickle to its reaping, while the cheery bugles pipe;
Wind again the stentor's trumpet, and let loose the tongues of type—
The day is marching on.

Appeal to Reason.

* * *

A "Song of Subsidies," rather than a "Song of Solons," would be the more appropriate title for Dean Collins's verse in the Portland *Oregonian:*

Ho, gallant Solons, 'neath the State House dome,
There are voices calling, calling, from the ones back home,
And a thousand institutions throughout our mighty state
Are urging on a thousand claims, and none of them can wait,
And a thousand things divert you from your other legislation,
Demanding several thousand each for their appropriation;
Then for these impecunious institutions, small and big,
Dig deeply in your coffers, but remember, as you dig:

CHORUS.

To keep your foot on the soft, soft pedal;
Go slow, don't dig too far;
For cash has legs, and it surely can skedaddle,
If the lid is left ajar.
Munificence is lovely, but don't give it too much slack;
'Tis a virtue one should measure by the volume of his stack.
So keep your foot on the soft, soft pedal,
And please don't dig too far.
(N. B.—The melody should wax the more fortissimo,
The deeper in the cash box the appropriations go,
And should make a brave crescendo on the diapason stop,
As the bottom of the coin case comes the nearer to the top.)

* * *

The February *Hustler*, organ of the Boston Newsboys' Club, tells something of the newsboy's trade:

"Beginners often sell for other boys on a commission basis. In this way they secure the advice and protection of the more experienced boys while serving their apprenticeship. These 'strikers,' as they are called, keep one cent for every four collected. Few of them earn more than twenty-five cents a day, while many of them earn less than ten.

"The older boy, working for himself and sometimes employing others, builds up a patronage at some location. This place becomes his 'corner,' which, by newsboy tradition, he occupies without interference. Thus if a boy has sold papers on a certain corner for several years no other newsboy would think of competing with him there. The goodwill thus gained is a valuable asset and is either handed down to a younger brother or otherwise disposed of to good advantage. Two dollars per day is a conservative estimate of what many

of the older newsboys earn. A few make twice that amount.

"Intimately allied to the newsboy is the 'Canada Point.' 'Canada Points' are ex-newsboys employed by certain papers for a fixed salary to distribute by wholesale. Formerly boys were obliged to go to the several offices for papers; now they may be obtained at any one of the twenty points throughout the city.

"Since the busiest time of the day for the newsboy is from four to six in the afternoon, many earn enough during these hours to enable them to attend school. In the English High School alone there are over 300 newsboys; all the other high schools of the city and even the colleges in the vicinity, have their quota of newsboys. These boys, receiving daily the best business experience that can be had, appreciate the value of an education and strive to obtain cultural as well as business training."

* * *

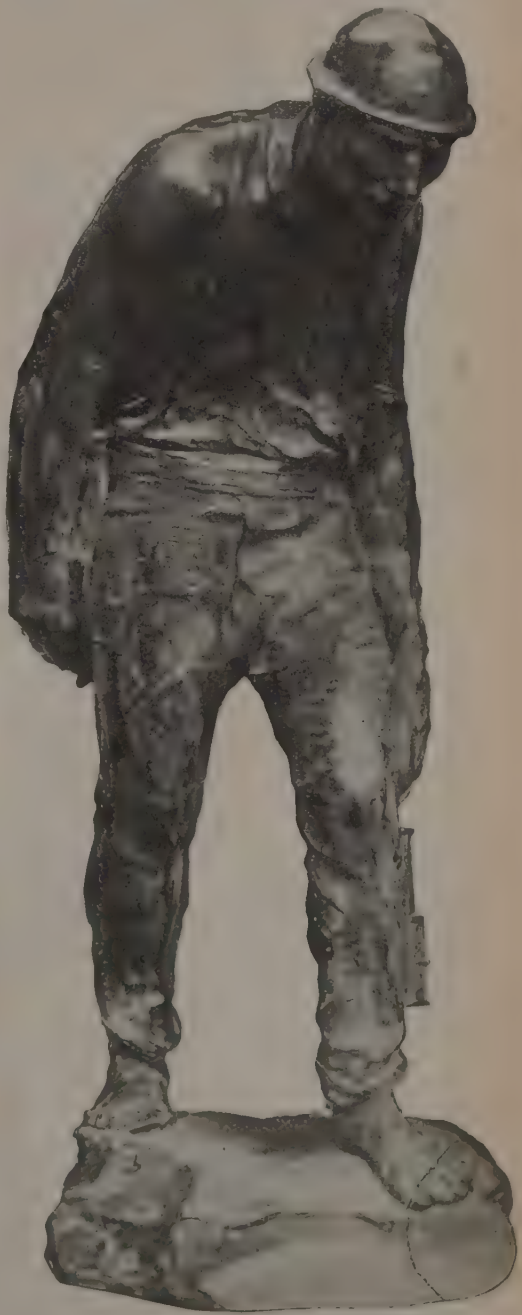
In the February *Craftsman* Cecil I. Dorrian tells of the work of the sculptor, Jules van Briesbroeck, in a social laboring community on the outskirts of Ghent, where "all the grayness and slow grandeur of the north is in the place, and all the dull, age-long monotony of ill-paid labor is in the people." In spite of ill-paid labor, these people have built themselves a strong co-operative community, represented on the municipal government of Brussels, and they have their artist, one of themselves, whose studio was built with their own hands, and who, we are told, makes them in return beautiful images of themselves, combining "the hopeless figures and faces of the toilers" of today, with the soul of man that is to make tomorrow.

* * *

According to the *Courant*, the efforts of the women's clubs of North Dakota revealed on the statute books of that state a law excellent in many respects, but rather lacking in arithmetic, as it contains the astonishing provision that children under a certain age shall work "not more than sixty hours in any one week, and not more than eight hours in any one day."

* * *

The February issue of the *International Socialist Review* contains interesting material on the machine and the workman. In The Passing of the Bottle Blower, Robert J. Wheeler, a member of the Glass Bottle Blowers' Union, tells of the remarkable rise of that union of highly skilled workers, until in 1907 fair workmen could earn from six to eight dollars a day of eight and one-half hours, speeders as much as twelve dollars a day for ten months in the year. In 1904 the invention of the Owens Automatic Glass Blowing Machine caused a turn in the tide. Already, he says, wages have fallen twenty per cent; the number of workers, especially the skilled class, have been vastly reduced, and the first steps toward trustification of the industry have been taken. A like process of substituting the machine for the skilled worker is traced by Thomas F. Kennedy, for twenty-seven years a



Courtesy the Craftsman.

"BELGIAN MINER RETURNING FROM WORK": JULES VAN BIESBROECK, SCULPTOR.

member of the molders' union, who writes on Banishing Skill from the Foundry. He tells how the molding machine with three unskilled laborers turns out 225 molds a day of a pattern of which formerly a single skilled molder could make only seventeen a day! Like the automatic glass blower, the molding machine is leading to rapid concentration in the industry. Further articles are promised.

* * *

Some Nativity and Race Factors in Rhode Island by Carol Aronovici forms part v of the annual report for 1909 of the state commissioner of industrial statistics. The work consists of numerous carefully compiled tables dealing with the increase in the foreign elements, age, and sex distribution, the causes of emigration, conjugal condition, fecundity, assimilation, and criminality. The results, which are somewhat similar to those of studies made elsewhere, show no undue lack of interest among the foreign stock in our political institutions, nor any alarming criminal tendencies on their part; while certain grave problems of present day tendencies in the industrial world are illustrated, particularly in reference to the vexed question of women in industry.

* * *

The Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, in its second annual report on municipal finances, analyzes the fiscal operations for the year 1907 of cities and towns that exceed 5,000 population. Information is also included for 200 small towns which tried to comply with the law requiring them to submit reports to the Bureau of Statistics, but not in the tabular detail in which the statistics for larger places are presented. Fifty-six towns had not made returns for 1907 by October, 1910. The practical value of the statistics to administrators and students of municipal affairs would be greater if they were more timely, but the director of the Bureau of Statistics shows that this is impossible when municipal and town authorities take as long as sixteen months to make their returns, which must later be subjected to verification.

The report could not furnish tables to show clearly expenditures from sums raised by taxation and sums raised by incurring debt, but is obliged to show merely the current costs properly chargeable to revenue. If these payments are in excess of the revenues available for the same, the conclusion is natural that the excess payments might have been met out of receipts from non-revenue sources and in large part probably by bond issues. Much carefully presented and valuable material is included in the report, while the fact that in two years twenty-six cities and towns have had public accountants or investigating committees examine and audit their accounts, with a view to installing a new system in accordance with the classifications of the bureau, promises more for the future.

The *Kindergarten Primary Magazine* thus summarizes Dr. Josephine Baker's advice to mothers, given in an article in the *Globe:*

"Do your children live according to a regular routine?

"Put them to bed never later than 9 o'clock.

"Don't let them bolt their food.

"Have the bedroom window open at night.

"Don't give them coffee to drink.

"Don't let them buy hoky-poky, ice cream, or eclairs, or candy for their luncheon.

"Give them cereals, and milk, and bread for breakfast and an egg if you can."

The same magazine tells of the war on the comic newspaper supplement begun by the League of American Pen Women and the Twentieth Century Club of Washington.

* * *

The Library of Congress has "printed as manuscript" a scheme of classification for literature on all subjects coming under the general heading of Social Sciences. It is very detailed, occupying 551 pages and weighing two pounds and a half. All this may be secured from the superintendent of documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, for sixty-five cents. It would be suggestive to anyone who has a collection of books, pamphlets, or clippings large enough to require a catalogue.

* * *

Does this mean that the London *Times* is congratulating the mine owners of the Rand that there has been no disturbance of the good old sane and conservative system of seven-day work for the Kaffirs?

"Towards the end of November last the Kaffir mining market, it will be remembered, was checked by rumors that the Union government intended to introduce legislation to restrict Sunday labor on the mines. Current reports then were to the effect that the proposal to close down all milling operations on the mines on Sundays emanated from the representatives of the different religious bodies on the Rand, and it was feared the government might, in deference to sentimental considerations, adopt a principle economically unsound and certain to cause undoubted injury to the Transvaal mining industry, with its resultant prejudicial effect on the profits of the producing mines. The opinion in well-informed quarters at the time, however, was that the Union government was not likely to take any step inimical to the mining industry, from which the revenues of the country were so largely derived. This view was evidently the correct one, as a telegram has been received from Johannesburg by the General Mining and Finance Corporation stating that the Draft Mining Regulations contain no vital alteration with regard to Sunday work."

* * *

The "fors" and "againsts" of the coming American woman are epigrammatically set forth by Mary Johnston in the *Woman's Journal.* Some of the planks in the platform,

drafted by the author of To Have and To Hold, are these:

THE WISE HOUSEKEEPER.

Will be against
DARKENED WINDOWS.
Will be for
COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

Will be against
CANDLES BURNED AT BOTH ENDS.
Will be for
ABOLITION OF CHILD LABOR.

Will be against
CARELESS BREAKAGE.
Will be for
ACTS LOOKING TO PREVENTION OF MINE, RAILWAY AND FACTORY ACCIDENTS.

Will be against
HOUSEHOLD DRUDGES.
Will be for
AN EIGHT-HOUR DAY.
Will be against
PENNY WISDOM AND POUND FOOLISHNESS.
Will be for
LIBERAL APPROPRIATIONS FOR COMMON WELFARE.
Will be against
DISHONEST SERVANTS.
Will be for
INTELLIGENCE AND HONOR IN OFFICE.
Will be against
DIRT.
Will be for
CLEAN POLITICS.

Will be against
BAD DRAINS.
Will be for
A FEDERAL DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.

Will be against
SPOILED CHILDREN.
Will be for
A FEDERAL DEPARTMENT OF EUGENICS.

Will be against
A MISTRESS OF THE HOUSE WITHOUT AUTHORITY.
Will be for
THE FRANCHISE FOR WOMEN.

COMMUNICATIONS

No department more clearly emphasizes the co-operative nature of THE SURVEY than the communications. Letters from readers are welcome; appeals cannot be published. Because of limited space, each contributor is asked to be brief so that no contributor will have to be excluded. Communications from 10 to 300 words in length are the most satisfactory and in the long run most telling. Only when the editors are convinced that so much space is needed, will communications over one thousand words in length be handled and the editors reserve the privilege of returning communications over 500 words in length to be abbreviated.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

"Quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes"—VIRGIL

TO THE EDITOR:

I.

THE ECONOMIC ASPECT.

The problem presented to a community of great wealth in possession of the vicious soon solves itself, though much harm may be done in the process. Ordinarily two generations are more than sufficient to distribute it over filter-beds where it is purified and passed into the well-springs of healthy activities. But we are confronted in this country with a more difficult if not more serious problem, for, be it said to their credit most of our millionaires lead exemplary private lives in which they do not spend a tithe of their enormous incomes.

The vastness of some fortunes and their proportion to the average among even the well-to-do are not generally realized; so the following rather curious computation will be suggestive. If Adam was created according to the most generally accepted chronology in B. C. 4,004 and was now alive and had received fifty dollars per day for every day of the intervening 5,915 years, he would have received but a little more than half the sum which one of our millionaires has already given away!

So it is not surprising that in spite of their boundless munificence and private lives, there is a growing feeling among us that some have got more than any one should, because more than any one could acquire solely by sagacity or industry, however exceptional. This feeling leads naturally to the other: that there is some radical wrong in social conditions which make such unequal acquisition possible, and that in some way this possibility should be confined to more reasonable limits, and what might be called the balance of wealth (like the balance of power) should be automatically preserved as far as possible. For the public are beginning to see, what economists have long pointed out, that after wealth has come out of the mint of activities and been stamped with their values, its greatest value is gone; it cannot be restored to the sources from which it came—they are either exhausted or in process of exhaustion—and ready-made wealth, so to speak, that is to say wealth not acquired by activities of the generation which has it, tends either to remove the healthy incentive to enterprise or discourages or prevents its exercise.

These convictions have already expressed themselves in legislation which at first did little more than codify and accentuate previously existing laws, but afterwards added and still propose to add (by such measures as that to conserve resources and to tax incomes at an ascending rate) whatever was found to be required to subdue and thereafter control the Empire of Organized Wealth, which is discovered to exist and to embrace not only this people, but also other nations. (*Vidi* testimony on the subject in oil and tobacco cases.)

Among the many devious ways by which a dominant minority may sustain its rule, few are more effectual than that of "capturing the majority", and the most successful captor is interest. We see examples of the practice every day in town-meetings, legislatures, and Congress, when men are placed in positions and laws are enacted, contrary to the will and sometimes to the pledges of the majority affected. Of the first evil, the senator accredited to Rhode Island seems to be the most conspicuous illustration, for in popular estimation he never properly represented the state to which he was nominally accredited

at all, but the Empire of Organized Wealth to which the people of Rhode Island were through him automatically annexed; while of the other evil, the tariff (for which the same man is generally held responsible) is a still more conspicuous illustration.

It may not be generally known or, if known, appreciated, that (I believe) all the colossal donations which have recently astounded the world have necessarily been in the form of either stocks, or bonds, or both—generally and principally of the so-called "industrials" which are in the Empire of Organized Wealth. Such gifts, on the one hand, must generally make the receivers either active or passive opponents of measures which might tend to reduce or stop their incomes from those sources, and, on the other hand, furnish counsel of defendant "industrials" with a very strong plea against discipline, restraint, or extinction of them—indeed that very plea has been made.

I do not say that it was the motive or even a motive of the donors, but I point out that as a matter of fact every gift of the kind—and particularly the one proposed by charter of Congress—tightens the grasp of the giver on his own holdings of similar properties, and thus virtually is the premium for insurance against social interference with his business and a very important fortification in the chain which protects the Empire of Organized Wealth. If such gifts secure or help to secure results for that empire in the next twenty years like those accomplished in the past twenty years, the gifts will have more than returned themselves to the givers, paying a profit of over 100 per cent!

Therefore, would not the grant of a charter by Congress to the proposed enormous foundation tend seriously to hinder, if it did not defeat, present efforts of a majority of this people to emancipate the nation from industrial and commercial slavery, and to relegate a heirarchy of wealth to its position among those economic forces which are good only in their proper places?

II.

THE MORAL ASPECT.

Consideration of this aspect of the proposed foundation should take into account the following indisputable facts: that since 1884, which is to say for more than twenty-five years last past, news items and editorials on the doings of the Standard Oil Company and its allies have appeared at frequent intervals, not only in local but in reputable metropolitan papers like the New York *Times*, *Tribune*, and *Evening Post*. The editorials which appeared in the *Times* in May and November, 1887, headed respectively A Standard Oil Conspiracy and The Law Defied, are typical illustrations showing the universal tone of such publications, which together with their long continuance, wide distribution, and the general responsibility of the publishers are evidence that they had foundation.

Beside that, the late Henry D. Lloyd (a lawyer of exemplary character) published in 1894-5 (Harper and Brothers), a book of over 500 pages with the title Wealth Against Commonwealth, which was the first connected exposition for lay readers of the doings referred to up to that time, as those doings were disclosed by the sworn testimony in many trials and several jurisdictions. Of this book the late William Lloyd Garrison wrote: "It is a minute and searching examination of the enormous trusts which override and despoil the people of the United States. It is a tale of greed and shame almost incredible"; and the late Edward Everett Hale wrote: "It is the Uncle Tom's Cabin of the present crisis." Forty-three other similar commendations of the book, some of which were editorial, were printed by as many different papers published in eleven different states here, and seven from as many different papers published abroad.

Beside that, Ida M. Tarbell published in 1904 a history of the Standard Oil Company which sketched the life of the man who during all this time was, and I believe still nominally is, the head of the organization referred to, and to whose sagacity its achievements are popularly ascribed.

Beside that, the courts of I think three states have since convicted parts of this organization of offences either specifically charged or implied by the press for over twenty-five years, by Mr. Lloyd, and by Miss Tarbell, for which one court imposed a penalty of over $29,000,000, that, after reduction on purely technical grounds, was stated in the papers to have been paid; and finally, the highest court of the country has at this moment under consideration the termination of the very existence of the principal branch of the organization referred to, because of such offences. The head of this organization offers to found $100,000,000 for general philanthropical purposes provided Congress will give it a charter.

If this vast sum was generally acquired by methods, some of which have been long and widely stigmatized both at home and abroad as unscrupulous, which our courts have declared to have been illegal and for the use of which they have imposed penalties, is not this proposal a masterful effort to escape from such obloquy, for is it not in effect tempting Congress virtually to contradict history, rebuke public opinion, and stultify our courts? Can there now be any doubt about the character of the methods referred to? If not, is it for the dignity of this nation—is it consistent with any respect for law, morals, or religion, so to accept such a gift?

The common law provides every facility for repentance, restitution, or beneficence, and the perpetuation of them, for those who would prevent their good works from being "interred with their bones." Then why should the aid of Congress be asked, if not to an effort to disinfect a heap of unsavory "secret rebates" with the odor of philanthropy?

Fanwood, N. J. WRIGHT BABCOCK.

THE ILLITERACY TEST

TO THE EDITOR:

Certain arguments of the minority of the House committee on immigration, opposed to

the bill applying the illiteracy test, are typical of many arguments hostile to that test. Members of the minority say of it: "If enacted into law it will be ineffective to prevent the admission of the vicious, the immoral, the diseased, the pauper, the criminal, or the anarchistic classes."

Messrs. William S. Bennet and Joseph F. O'Connell say of the test that it will admit practically every foreign-born criminal who has misused early advantages. And J. Hampton Moore goes so far as to say: "The enforcement of such a test would . . , admit unworthy, educated immigrants who will not work and of whom we already have more than we need."

In the words of Mr. Gardner in his majority report, I admit the truth of such statements but not their force. It is nothing against a good thing that it has not also the qualities of some other thing which may be equally good or even better. We should not necessarily refuse beefsteak because it lacks the succulent qualities of the oyster cocktail, or refrain from bread because it is inferior to some other substances as a cure for thirst.

It is true that the illiteracy test does not entirely or specifically keep out paupers, criminals, anarchists, or the mentally defective. It only lessens the proportion of such, while protecting American labor against perpetual depression of its standard of life and wages. It is also true that there is nothing in it (directly at least) to limit child labor, to improve sanitation in factories, nor to lessen the ravages of tuberculosis. But there is nothing in it to prevent the enactment and the enforcement of laws that will accomplish these desirable results. Indeed, so far as other restrictions of undesirable immigration are concerned, the supporters of the illiteracy test have been among the leaders in advocating laws or methods of administration calculated to just these ends.

If any opponents of the illiteracy test on the ground above cited will bring forward any measures that will prove effective in excluding "the vicious, the immoral, the diseased, the pauper, the criminal, or the anarchistic classes" or the "unworthy educated immigrant" in whatever form, they will find the advocates of the illiteracy test their strongest allies in securing the adoption of such provisions. Fetch on your X-ray of virtue and we will help you introduce a dress rehearsal of the day of judgment, at this session if possible. Meantime the illiteracy test itself probably goes as far in that general direction as any practical measure yet suggested.

JOSEPH LEE.

Boston.

ITALIAN IMMIGRANTS IN CITIES

TO THE EDITOR:

May I ask through your columns replies to these questions, which arose in discussing local housing conditions:

1. What is the mortality among Italians, particularly among day laborers employed in construction work and on truck gardening farms?

2. When improved housing conditions have been provided for such Italians, have they taken kindly to them and profited by them? Or was compulsion needed and with what general result?

3. Have the Italians mentioned been known of themselves to demand better housing conditions or encouraged to improve their own conditions successfully? Needless to say these questions have reference to Italian immigrants in our towns and cities.

C. P. WELLMAN.

Winchester, Mass.

COUNTY JAILS AND IDLENESS

TO THE EDITOR:

In all our county jails idleness is probably the worst punishment to which criminals are forced to submit. How provide work for them? That is the great problem.

It is certain, however, if sheriffs were men of the proper stamp, far more could be done to keep men, women and boys occupied than is done at present in all our jails. But what hope is there to get other than political heelers appointed as sheriffs? The law of the state of New York states in regard to *sheriffs*, Article X, Section 1,[1] "An act depriving the sheriff of the custody and control of the county jail and the prisoners therein is unconstitutional," &c., according to the law as amended to January 1, 1910, and now in force.

"Sheriffs shall be chosen by the electors of the respective counties once in every three years," &c. In two counties, of which New York is one, sheriffs are chosen every two or four years.

To complete one of the greatest evils of *idleness* in jails, I need only cite from the New York *Sun*,[2] which states apropos of the Essex County Penitentiary, New Jersey:

"When the prisoners are at work their earnings go to those who are dependent on them. Eighteen or twenty of the cases of destitution that have reached the charitable societies of Essex county each month are those of families of men confined in the penitentiary."

In addition, that iddleness has an obvious bad effect upon the health, moral and physical, of all prisoners is apparent to the average inspector, or visitor, if he has only very moderate intelligence and sympathy.

BEVERLEY ROBINSON, M. D.

New York.

TENEMENT REFORM FOR UNEMPLOYED

TO THE EDITOR:

The keenest interest of labor at present is the unemployed or only partially employed laborers. So great has been the loss of opportunities to produce, that even the conservative newspapers have recognized the difference between the "unemployed," whom "we have always with us," and the "disemployed," or those thrown out of employment by the "hard times".

It is, therefore, not surprising that "labor" is beginning to consider what this means. How comes it in a country of limitless re-

[1] Birdseye's, Cumming and Gilbert's, Vol. I, p. 158.

[2] January 9.

sources, with eighty millions of inhabitants requiring to be housed, fed, clothed, besides having numberless other wants, that there should be scarcity of opportunity to labor? Where does opportunity to labor arise? Who or what increases or restricts it?

In previous industrial depression the real causes have been overlooked in the anxiety to find palliatives, and labor, long-accustomed to oppression, allowed itself to be diverted from causes. But that day has gone by. Palliatives, emergency measures of any sort, can no longer blind the laborer to the fact that something at the root of things is radically wrong. He is seeking a solution, and he will surely find the source of opportunities and then discover what lessens them. When he has learned that man can gratify all his desires and profitably employ himself only through free access to land—the natural opportunities—he will surely secure that free access for himself and his fellows, perhaps by the simple method of taxing land values and destroying all other forms of taxation. When this has been done, labor will come into its own, and be able to establish the form of government it desires.

But while labor is making this discovery and remedying the evil in the slow way of humanity, there remains the necessity to relieve present great needs. A compliance with the tenement house laws would do much to relieve the pressing needs of labor in New York. There still are in this city over 100,000 rooms darker than the law allows, and if the di. employed carpenters and builders were put to work remedying this evil, the result would be a brisk awakening in all lines of work. The advantage of this effort is that it is necessary work, that will redound to the benefit of the whole city, and not merely a fictitious or charitable aid to the unemployed. It is a move that labor, without loss of dignity, can demand at once; it is a compliance with a law that all classes agree to be wise and necessary, and it would help to remove from New York the stigma that now attaches to it. It would reduce the appalling death rate of one in two, among children under five years of age, in the congested and darkened districts of the city. By demanding the opening up of this opportunity, labor would be doing service, not only for itself, but for coming generations. The plan is now before the Central Federated Labor Union.

Improved pavements would also afford an opportunity for disemployed labor. The law requires seven-feet width of paved sidewalk before each lot, but holders of vacant lots generally provided only three feet of paving. As soon as complaint is made the city must require compliance with the law, and the paving must be done at the owner's expense. Even under present wrong economic conditions there is no reason why labor should accept enforced idleness as necessary, until every means of relief within reach has been fully tried. This will clear the way for more radical and fundamental changes.

BOLTON HALL.

New York.

HEREDITY AND SOCIAL WORK

TO THE EDITOR:

The editorial on Heredity and Social Work in THE SURVEY for February 18 suggests a dread which has been voiced often and in a variety of ways. In that article it was put as questions: "Are we in this way perpetuating the grievous social burdens of disease, alcoholism, criminality, and pauperism? Are we breeding from the unfit as no stock breeder would think of doing, and interfering with the normal processes of social evolution?"

The writer begs space to suggest that long-range vision, such as a student of sociology may be expected to take, need see no such menace in modern humanitarianism, even if it does "undoubtedly keep alive many weak individuals who in an unmitigated struggle for existence would perish."

Paradoxical as it may seem, keeping alive is only an indispensable step of progress toward the elimination of the unfit. It is an unnecessarily extravagant waste of human life to allow the same conditions of struggle for existence and consequent survival of the fittest to prevail in human society, because at present in the world of plant and lower animal life such a sorting process seems the unavoidable method of securing an approach to perfection.

As long as society can seemingly avoid the consequences of its ignorance, its mistakes, and its crimes, under the shelter of such a theory, or of no theory at all, it is likely to keep on in error, and for the most part to be unaware of the connection between cause and consequence. But as soon as humanitarianism provides asylums for the insane, colonies for epileptics, hospitals for the wreckage from present industrial processes, homes for foundlings, and charitable organizations to provide for the victims of our economic system, we begin to complain of the burden. Escape by the avenue of neglect is cut off, the only refuge is through investigation of the causes that produced this crop of dependents.

Is not the recent interest in industrial education, in social science, and in eugenics evidence of the leaven of this positive check at work in society to raise us to a degree of intelligence that will not only prevent the dreaded increase of the unfit, but will eliminate them altogether? Then why lament the scruples which have brought us face to face with the ugly consequences of our own wrongdoing? The remedy for the present situation is not less care of the victims of ignorance and crime, but more, till it produces sufficient stimulus for investigation of all the causes that produce the supply of undesirable members of society.

JANE FLOYS HALLOWAY.

Chicago.

THE TAXING OF CHURCHES

TO THE EDITOR:

Some time since the president of one of our oldest universities addressed his class in practical ethics upon this subject: "Is it an allowable deception for a church to use in its construction hollow pillars, which to appearance seem solid stone?"

More pertinent perhaps would have been the inquiry as to the duty of the church to pay its taxes. The New York *City Record* of 1910 shows a total of $163,000,000 of untaxed properties held by churches. Since 1907 rising values have added $13,000,000 to ecclesiastical holdings. There is no reason to doubt that the increase in values will rise from $7,000,000 to $10,000,000 a year before 1915.

What this means to the welfare of the city and the churches is a most serious question. As a church member, not as an anarchist, socialist, or agitator in the heat of a campaign, it seems wise to consider a situation which, sooner or later, will demand attention from either friends or foes of the church. As a friend, good reasons, if there are any, for giving the unearned increment to non-taxpaying societies may be invited.

A study of the assessors' lists will show many modest church properties, valued at about seventy per cent of their sale price at from $500,000 to $2,000,000 each, which business must soon acquire at even higher prices. These sums will be turned over to a very few self-elected and self-perpetuating trustees for rebuilding, investment, and endowment. The clergy, better than any else, know what a drag a too-conservative and too-influential trustee is.

Outside the church the public is alive to what a powerful economic factor an amount already over $160,000,000, increasing at four per cent annually, is destined to become. It sees, perhaps more clearly than those immediately within the church, the benefits open to all citizens which exemption of over $4,000,000 annually would provide. It sees needless economic waste in the infrequent use by the few of that which is created by all.

There are educators who see in our overcrowded schools overworked teachers, and neglected children a demand upon the church for social justice. There are social workers who find in the overcrowded jails an ever increasing class which the ever increasing wealth of the church cannot reach. There are teachers in political science who see in the character of some of our legislation an unfortunate linking of sectarianism and greed. There are politicians who desire to improve the administration of semi-public religious institutions, whose efforts are repeatedly blocked by the concerted action of the various denominations concerned; always at the expense of the helpless in their charge.

These conditions are easily magnified and lead to inflammatory denunciation of religion in general, and to the breaking down of the moral fiber dependent upon the best religious inspiration. The tax assessors' list is definite and the cess is open to the public; so upon the church there rests a great civic responsibility, which it cannot avoid though its mission is to cultivate the souls of men.

The voter may be the last person fitted to decide as to whether unearned increment upon untaxed holdings should go to the few or to the many.

What the movement in Europe has been we all know. Those who love the church and their fellowmen are anxious that its influence in our great cities shall be increased and remain untainted. Judson Harmon has said of corporate bodies, "guilt is personal." The public feel the truth of the statement and the church must be ready to meet its critics with an unanswerable reply upon any question of social justice, in so far as its interest or the interests of its ministers are involved.

ROBERT C. SANGER.

New York.

A B C'S OF FOREIGN CHILDREN

TO THE EDITOR:

A writer in THE SURVEY for January 28 (p. 697) says that "the children of the illiterate foreigner show a larger percentage of literacy than do those of the native born." Can you tell your readers whether this is an established fact? If so it is of great importance in the immigration problem which you are now discussing. F. A.

[This reportorial statement was based on an assertion of Max J. Kohler's:—"The Census of 1900 established the fact that the percentage of illiteracy among the children of foreign-born citizens is appreciably smaller than among those of native-born white parentage."

Neither statement can be proved literally from the census figures, for with respect to parentage there are no classifications of either "illiterate foreigners" or "foreign-born citizens" to go by. In census terms, the underlying meaning probably sought to be conveyed by both statements, namely, that the percentage of illiteracy among children of foreign-born parents is appreciably smaller than among children of native-born parents, is borne out by the following figures made up from the 1900 census:

U. S. CENSUS: 1900

Population groups.	Population between ages, 10 to 19, incl.	Illiterates between ages, 10 to 20, incl.	Per cent of illiteracy.
Native white, foreign parents.	3,733,773	42,677	.011
Native white, native parents..	8,895,343	416,526	.047

The per cent of illiteracy among all whites of foreign parentage (both native and foreign born) in the same age groups as above, is three. In the four states which have the largest foreign-born populations Pennsylvania and Massachusetts show the percentage of illiteracy among native whites of native parents between the ages of ten and twenty to be less than among native whites of foreign parents—the former twenty per cent less, in the latter fifty per cent; in New York and Illinois, however, the reverse is true, the former showing one-fifth more illiteracy among natives of native parents than among natives of foreign parents, and the latter showing three times more. In Alabama and Louisiana the proportion of illiterate native whites of native parents

is four times as great as that of native whites of immigrant parents. The very high proportion of illiteracy among the whites in the southern states undoubtedly accounts for a part of the difference in literacy of children of natives and children of immigrants for the country as a whole.]

BEE AND HUMAN DISEASE

To the Editor:

With extreme regret I call your attention to the suggestive cartoon appearing on page 841 in the issue of February 18. I believe as firmly as you that the human family should be protected first and if necessary at the expense of the lower animals. On the other hand, is it right to decry any and all economic work which does not pertain to the social welfare and health of our citizens? In broader aspect you condemn the work of the economic entomologist, the plant pathologist, the horticulturist—even the sciences dealing with the inanimate world. Very little money is being spent by the Department of Agriculture considering that the bee industry in this country is capitalized at about $25,000,000.

Furthermore you were extremely erroneous in your suggestion that the investigation of the bee diseases is of no value in the control and prevention of human diseases, for there is a good deal of evidence that the cause of the foul brood disease of bees is none other than that causing diabetes in the human family.

University of California, Berkeley. L. I. Nickels.

[The cartoon was one used by the Committee of One Hundred on National Health to awaken interest in the proposed federal department of health. It showed that the loss of earnings among bees on account of disease is one million dollars annually, which the government very properly tries to prevent; while the loss of earnings among people on account of disease is three billion dollars which the government does not take adequate steps to prevent. The implication seems quite plain: since the United States has been foresighted enough to prevent the relatively small loss by bee disease, the argument is all the stronger for doing something to prevent the infinitely greater loss from human disease.—Ed.]

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Homes for the Aged and Infirm
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ANNOUNCEMENT

THE SURVEY A TIME-SAVER

For a second time the mid-monthly SURVEY is reaching its readers in reorganized form. What, editorially speaking, was formerly a single cell, now shows some differentiation in the way of rudimentary body, parts and passions. The material is brought forward under the five heads:

CIVICS
HEALTH
INDUSTRY
CRIME AND ITS CURE
SOCIAL AGENCIES

The plan is not an enlargement but a co-ordination of material. There are reasons for this change, outside THE SURVEY as well as in. There has been, for example, the multiplication of special journals such as the *Playground Magazine*, the *Red Cross Magazine*, *Journal of the Outdoor Life* (half a hundred of them) devoted each of them to the minutiae of technical work in special fields; there has been on the other hand a surprising increase in the publication of books in the social field, relieving THE SURVEY of the necessity of publishing long essays and monographs to the extent which was customary ten years ago. These and other changes have enabled the editors to center their work on developing three journalistic forms, as follows:

THE MONTHLY MAGAZINE NUMBER

Designed especially to interest and hold the general reader, by bringing to the surface and emphasizing the drama, the objective, the appeal of movements to improve living conditions in America.

THE 24-PAGE WEEKLY UNIT

Designed to keep the general reader (and it must be remembered that every specialist is a general reader outside of his technical four-walls) abreast of the important developments, from week to week, in the field of social well-being. By eliminating long articles from our weekly issues, we can do this more effectively than ever before—in Social Forces; in ten pages of news and interpretation; in the team play of short, trenchant contributed editorials; in the Trend which brings into brief compass what is being said and written on social topics in the general periodicals, the trade journals, and the racial papers; in departmental paragraphs giving the gist of books for social workers; in communications from the readers themselves. This 24-page unit, runs through all issues.

THE MID-MONTHLY DEPARTMENTAL NUMBER

Years ago this magazine published departments on specialized topics, such as tuberculosis, children's institutions, the insane. If we attempted to run such departments today we would have to print a hundred pages weekly to handle them, so great has been the flowering out of social movements in the last decade.

On the other hand, the subjects involved cannot be lumped in an undifferentiated issue without neglecting many phases of practice and advance and, also, lumbering up with a great amount of matter in which any individual reader is only indirectly interested.

What we are attempting is to group the subject matter under five main working heads so that with a minimum of effort each reader will now have at his hand the gist of publications and writings, original research and experiment in that range of social work in which he is most interested, and with even less effort can size up the things which are to the fore in kindred fields.

At the same time, by this reorganization, THE SURVEY should be able to cover its field, topically and geographically, more complete than ever before. How well we do it depends largely on the suggestions and contributions of readers. Their co-operation is urged at every point in the new working scheme.

THE SURVEY

Edward T. Devine, Editor Graham Taylor, Associate Editor

A Journal of Constructive Philanthropy

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Ninety-eight More Needed

IF you were using every ounce of energy and ingenuity that you could summon to help along the movements making for a more general well-being, if a part, at least, of your work was essentially educational and therefore non-revenue producing, and if you found yourself in need of funds, **what would you do?** We believe you would make a persistent effort to get the help of those who are interested in, and abreast with, the forces working toward the same ends.

This is our position exactly. The gist of why Charities Publication Committee should appeal for funds for what it calls the educational work of a non-commercial magazine, is stated briefly in its last report (under the title "THE SURVEY and those who co-operate in it"). This was mailed recently to all subscribers of the magazine.

The regular $2 magazine subscription no more than pays for the mechanics of getting out the issues; the Committee's educational work and the field work of its research-reportorial staff must find support in other sources. It must depend on the contributions of those who believe in it.

We need recruits to the coterie of contributors whose support has made the non-commercial, educational work of magazine and Committee possible in the past, and whose co-operation we believe deserves widespread and democratic backing throughout the country.

The Committee has set out to raise an educational fund of $15,000 for the current publication year. It is attempting to raise $3,000 of this by small subscriptions. We ask you to be one of 300 co-operating subscribers at $10; as this issue goes to press the number enrolled is 202.

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FINANCIAL SECRETARY,
Charities Publication Committee,
105 East 22d St., New York City.

I wish to be one of the 300 co-operating subscribers to "The Survey," and therefore enclose $10 to be applied to the work of the fiscal year ending September 30, 1911.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

OVERCROWDING MUST STOP

The report of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population is an epoch-making document. It means that a deliberate and well-considered attack on the evils of congestion has begun. No difference of opinion as to specific recommendations should deter any social worker, any public-spirited citizen, any thoughtful individual who has at heart the deeper interests of humanity, from recognizing the importance of the problem with which this report deals, and the admirable spirit in which the report as a whole deals with that problem. Heretofore no public official in this city, where overcrowding is worse than anywhere else in the world, has even attempted to deal with it in a broad and constructive way. No charitable society, no political party, no civic organization, so far as we are aware, has ever even tried to define it or to devise a solution for it. Housing reform has here been aggressive and triumphant; but it has been so largely because it wisely limited its field and did not deal with the larger aspects of congestion. Tax reform has made headway; but it has not concerned itself especially with the prevention of overcrowding. The transit problem has engrossed the attention of public officials, of the newspapers, and of citizens; but there has been no adequate and clear cut discussion of its social aspects, and the most elementary principles governing the relation between transit and the distribution of population have been almost entirely ignored. Even today such considerations are conspicuous by their absence from the current discussions of the transit situation.

Therefore to Jacob A. Cantor and his associates of the commission, and especially to Benjamin C. Marsh, its undaunted and indefatigable secretary, who has evidently supplied its driving power, we offer the tribute of our admiration and respect, for having begun a movement which will not end until the evils of congestion have at least been fought to a standstill; and let us hope, to change the figure, not until, like the Chicago river, the current has actually been reversed, and the surplus population of the congested districts is freely and advantageously moving into the vacant places.

Unfortunately the commission has made a great many starts at once, and some of them are false starts. We believe it to be a false start to suggest the relaxation of the tenement house law in relation to three-family houses. We believe it to be a false start to attempt to create a special class in the community to be known officially as "the dependent members of a family of a consumptive or consumptives", and another class, to be known as "indigent widows with children", to be dealt with in a special way by a special board of trustees. We believe it to be a false start to assume that the distribution of public outdoor relief on any plan, whether it be desirable or undesirable on its own account, will ever in practice have a favorable effect on the evils of congestion. We believe it to be a false start to connect the establishment of industrial boards of arbitration with

poverty and congestion of population; and to place the demand for public supervision of charitable societies, which is perfectly legitimate in itself, on the ground that they are encouraging congestion, or on the ground that, like universities, libraries, museums, churches, and other social agencies which are not conducted for private profit, they are exempt from ordinary taxation. We believe it to be a false start to propose that the responsibility for the supervision of private charitable societies should be lodged in the city comptroller, instead of in the State Board of Charities where it is put by the constitution of the state. Not for the breadth of its survey should the commission be criticised, for in taking up a new problem of this kind it is necessary to take nothing for granted, and to assume that anything whatever may be related to it. But if the commission had more frequently exercised the kind of discrimination which was shown by its committee on taxation in rejecting, after looking at it, the suggestion that congestion would be lessened by transferring a portion of the inheritance taxes from the state to the city, its recommendations would have been fewer in number, and they would have greater weight.

There will be other occasions, however, on which it will be more appropriate to discuss particular recommendations on which our views do not happen to coincide with those of the commission. Our present purpose is to express gratification that we have at last an attempt to describe in detail the evils of congestion, to search for their causes, to persuade the community that these causes are removable, and to put forward a series of measures which are at least intended to reach such evils as force themselves upon the attention.

Of the fourteen causes of congestion enumerated by the commission the ninth, eighth, eleventh, thirteenth, and second appear to us to reach the crux of the problem. These are, the lack of a definite city plan, the transit policy of the city, the failure to prepare land in advance for housing purposes, the failure to adopt a policy of attracting people to outlying boroughs, and the concentration of factories. A definite program based on the recognition of these and closely related causes, worked out on a logical and consistent plan, will we believe go far towards solving the problem to which the city has addressed itself by the appointment of this commission. To try to solve at the same time the problems of poverty, industrial conciliation, employment exchanges, and the federal regulation of immigration, would be to go far afield, and to lessen the prospect for effective action on those factors of the congestion problem which certainly overshadow all others.

We need an official city plan through which streets, sewage, and transportation lines can be arranged intelligently in advance of such increase of land values as will make them impossible. We need more rapid transit, and need it badly; but even more than having it quickly we need that when it comes it shall be such transit as will favorably affect the distribution of population. We need a zone or district system, which will control the location of factories and tenements with reference to the public welfare. We need to increase the inducements to live in the outlying portions of the city; and we need to facilitate the removal from the city of those who will prosper better elsewhere. Along such lines, all of which are indicated in the commission's report, there can be inaugurated a movement which will speedily gain irresistible momentum.

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHILD LABOR MEETING AGAIN IN THE SOUTH

The National Child Labor conference held in Birmingham, Ala., last week was the seventh annual meeting of the National Child Labor Committee. As at Atlanta two years ago, the anti-child labor forces gathered from all parts of the country at one of the great centers of the child-employing cotton industry.

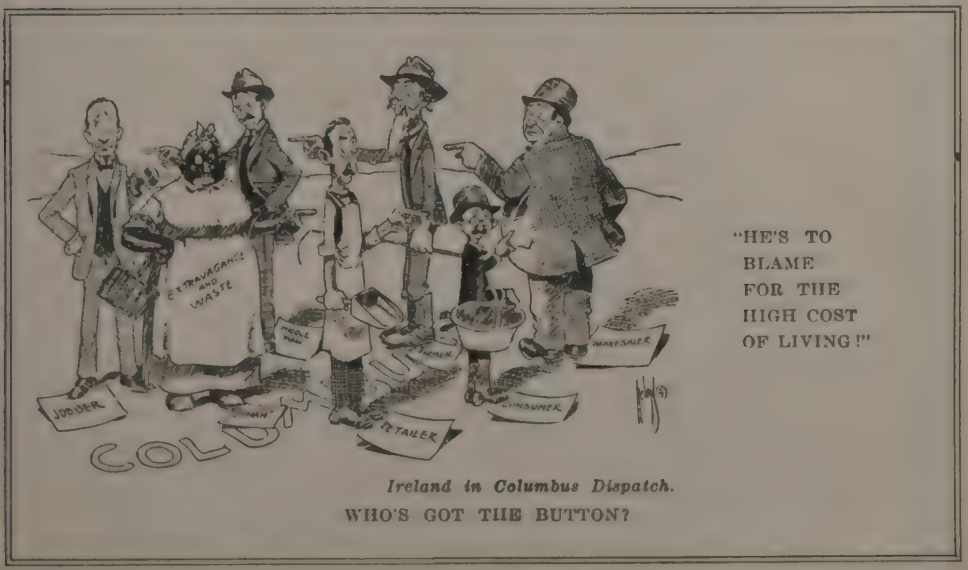
Ex-Governor Comer, who owns one of the largest cotton mills near Birmingham, attended the meetings and spoke once in apology for the mill as an eleemosynary institution, caring for little children who had escaped worse fates on the farms and making rosy once more the thorny path of widows and orphans. The response to this sentiment in Birmingham was indifferent. Delegates from other parts of the country found a change coming in the South. It was evident at every session of these meetings as compared with those at Atlanta two years ago. The southern people seem to want to make their remarkable material prosperty the means to greater ends and not an end in itself.

The Alabama Child Labor Committee was the first definitely organized state committee and its first leader, Edgar Gardner Murphy, was the first to suggest the organization of a national committee. The citizens' committee of Birmingham united with the Alabama Child Labor Committee as host of the conference.

Colonel Roosevelt's strenuous day, during which he made seven speeches aggregating over four hours in length and touching on all the broader general foundations of child welfare, added much to the general enthusiasm and public interest in the program. He was particularly effective in his condemnation of night work for children. Jane Addams and Florence Kelley won approval from large audiences for scathing challenges to theatrical interests in their efforts to create another child-exploiting industry.

The officers of the National Child Labor Committee presented interesting reports of progress in all directions and in every section of the country. These will be reviewed in a later issue.

This was the largest attended annual meeting of the National Committee and the most promising in its probabilities of permanent local, state, and national results.



"HE'S TO BLAME FOR THE HIGH COST OF LIVING!"

Ireland in Columbus Dispatch.

WHO'S GOT THE BUTTON?

JUDGE MACK ON IMMIGRATION

The annual meeting and dinner of the Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago was the occasion of the farewell address of the president, Julian W. Mack, who has been appointed to the new Commerce Court at Washington.

Speaking as the son and grandson of immigrants who had sought freedom from religious persecution here, he was touched most deeply by the fact that those to the American manner born were as deeply interested in the league as he had more personal reason to be. As a Jew he was proud of the American spirit expressed by the co-operation of such bodies as the Union League and Commercial Clubs, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations. "I feel as I do," he declared earnestly, "because I am a true American." He predicted the early formation of a national federation of organizations at work with and for immigrants.

The league as such takes no position on restriction of immigration that will interfere with its co-operation with the government under any law that may be passed. But personally Judge Mack expressed the opinion that the literacy test is false and ineffective—educational qualifications, however prerequisite to citizenship, do not serve equally well as requirements for admission to this country. They do not test character, he held, and they do shut out those to whom educational opportunity has been denied in the old world, and who seek it for themselves and their children in America. Such a physical test as is required for entrance to the army would, he believed, discriminate against intellectual, aesthetic, artistic, and literary ability which sometimes are cultivated at the cost of physical prowess. "No nation," Judge Mack concluded, "can get too many people of the stuff of which martyrs are made."

The report of Grace Abbott, superintendent of the league, showed vigilant care for arriving immigrants and intelligent study of the conditions under which they are received and distributed to their destinations. The policy which she and the executive officers proposed was adopted. It includes reforming the method of routing between seaports and Chicago; maintaining a staff of inspectors, men and women, on trains between New York and Chicago; establishing a federal protective bureau with authority to control the release of immigrants; arranging for the delivery of all arriving immigrants by a single, responsible transportation company.

The league is doing pioneer work for the whole country. It has secured the cordial co-operation of the Federal Immigration Bureau and the officials of the local government, the councils of foreign peoples in Chicago and the presidents of their national societies, the Chicago Federation of Labor and the Union League and Commercial Clubs. Its offices and temporary lodgings are at 157 Pymouth place, opposite the Polk street railway station where three times as many immigrants arrive as at any other terminal.

TO CLEAN UP THE LAUNDRIES

It is not often that publicity leads to such immediate results as has an article in a recent issue of *McClure's Magazine* on the laundry workers of New York by Sue Ainslie Clark and Edith Wyatt. The article was challenged in the columns of the New York *Times* by a representative of the Manhattan Laundrymen's Association, who made it appear that the writers had attacked the moral character of the workers, had misrepresented in regard to wages and unguarded machinery, and had made statements about overtime work which could not be true because the Factory Department made illegal hours impossible. Through the same paper Miss Wyatt and a representative of the Consumers' League, on whose investigations the article was based, replied so effectively that the laundrymen were convinced that conditions of work and wages in many New York laundries needed improvement.

At a conference held at the headquarters of the Consumers' League, representatives of the Manhattan Laundrymen's Association, the Brooklyn Laundry Club, and the New York State Laundry-

men's Association expressed their desire to co-operate with the league for the enforcement of existing laws, and discussed tentative plans for establishing such a standard as would make them eligible to the league's white list.

A letter received by THE SURVEY contains the statement of a woman who worked for eight years in one of the large laundries of New York. It bears out the experience of the Consumers' League investigators. This correspondent states that she worked for the first month at four dollars a week, for the following six months at four-fifty, was then raised to five and gradually to eight; that her day began at 7.15 and "on Monday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday it was a common thing to have to stay till eight or nine o'clock, or even later, with an hour and twenty minutes off for lunch and supper, an allowance of twenty-five cents for the latter meal", but no overtime pay.

CHAMBERS OF CITIZENSHIP

The Buffalo Chamber of Commerce has just appointed a standing committee on supervision of local charities and survey of social and industrial conditions, which will have a separate, paid secretary on full time.

This action, which was taken at the request of the Charity Organization Society and the Buffalo Polish Survey, adds Buffalo to the list of cities where, as in Cleveland especially, the Chamber of Commerce aspires to be also a Chamber of Citizenship. In Columbus something similar is on foot, and in fact both social work by commercial bodies and supervision of charities by such bodies are becoming familiar; but this seems to be the first instance where a chamber of commerce has committed itself definitely to a continuing survey of social and industrial conditions in its community.

Max Eastman has said lately that "socialism is a protest against the irrelevancy of politics." He means, no doubt, that politics has not concerned itself with public health, education, housing, and conditions of labor, but with money and ways of making money. Some of the business men of Buffalo were very much impressed with the Pittsburgh Survey. They wanted to know what was the matter with Buffalo socially, for social evils are now known to be contagious and dangerous. The result was the the Buffalo Polish Survey, under a competent director, which was described in this magazine June 4, 1910. Some were disappointed that this six-months' Polish Survey was not made general, with a large force of workers; but the majority thought that a large force would turn up more matter than could be handled promptly, and that a continuing, permanent survey would in the end be better.

The first work of the new social secretary will be a survey of the charities of Buffalo, on the lines of the study lately published by the Chamber of Commerce of Columbus, and of the charities endorsement committees of the Boards of Trade in Newark, Cleveland, San Francisco, and elsewhere. What type of endorsement will be adopted is undecided, but by request of the Charity Organization Society the work will be done by an independent committee of the Chamber of Commerce, and not by a joint committee with itself or with other charities. If cards of endorsement should be given it by no means follows that canvassers will be encouraged or allowed.

PENNSYLVANIA THREE-PLY CHILD LABOR CAMPAIGN

Social workers in Pennsylvania are not content with the good results of the two child labor laws passed by the last Legislature two years ago. Under the leadership of the State Child Labor Association, various organizations have lined up again for a three-headed campaign for the protection of the 2,500 boys under sixteen who now work all night in glass factories; or who work each day underground in coal mines; and for the moral protection of boys over fourteen employed in the night messenger service in large cities. The story of these three boys is told in a leaflet, of which 40,000 copies are being circulated. Parts

of it are here republished for their general interest.

The Boy at the Glass Tank has often been pictured in these columns:

His day begins at nightfall. His lunch hour is his comrade's bedtime. He starts for home in he cold of the winter night at two, three, or four in the morning. For a week he does this. Then for a week he tries to fit himself again into normal life, sleeping at night and doing his work by day.

It is claimed that without the night work of boys the industry cannot continue. Exactly this claim was made in Illinois in 1903 when a bill was prepared to stop the employment of boys under sixteen on night shifts in that state. It was even threatened that the glass plants would be taken to other states. The bill was passed, however, and the glass plants are still in Illinois and are very prosperous. The value of their products increased from $2,834,398 in 1900 to $5,619,740 in 1905, or 98 per cent. Ohio also passed this law, and its glass products nearly doubled during the same five years.

During the fall of 1910 an investigator of the National Child Labor Committee visited every one of the forty factories in Ohio and Illinois, in order to learn how these factories have accomplished that which the Pennsylvania glass manufacturers claim to be impossible.

It was found that many plants were employing no boys under sixteen years of age. By paying a slightly higher rate of wages for the older boys they were able to get enough of them to do their work.

In other plants foreign men were used on boys' jobs, or strong, capable American men were employed at night, each of whom did the work which two boys did on the day shift. In still other establishments the introduction of machinery has been accelerated as a result of the law.

It is impossible to print what investigation has disclosed as to the life of the night messenger boy in the tenderloin:

This boy is exposed to temptation at a time when he is least able to resist—just as he is passing through those bodily changes which accomplish adolescence, and when his mind is swayed by the natural curiosity of youth toward the other sex. Is it to be wondered at, then, that many of the boys tell how their first fall occurred only a few months after they began to do night work, or that stories, verified in several cases, come from their lips of the contracting of dreaded disease? What a boy sees of this life gives him a story he is almost sure to tell to the school boys and others in his chosen circle. And thus the moral contagion spreads.

The night messenger boy in New York is a messenger man. Pennsylvania's boys need this same protection, and the proposed bill, therefore, follows the New York law almost exactly.

The Boy in the Pit works in one of the most dangerous occupations in the world—coal mining—and yet in Pennsylvania he may legally begin that work as soon as he is fourteen years old. In 1909 there were 1,197 boys of fourteen or fifteen so employed. In five other states, notably Illinois and Montana, no mine work is allowed under the age of sixteen. This is the law which is now proposed for Pennsylvania.

A door-boy's duty is to open the door separating one mine chamber from another to allow mine cars to pass through, and to close these doors afterward. The chief of the Pennsylvania Department of Mines, in his report for 1905, speaks of their work as follows:

"If the boys tending doors in the mines would stay at their work they would be practically safe from danger, but when there is a slackness in the work they frequently run away from the doors, and when they hear the cars coming, in their haste to return to their post of duty, they are apt to fall and be run over; or they are so late in opening the doors that the cars come upon them before they get out of the way, and the result is often injury or loss of life to themselves or the drivers."

"They frequently run away from the doors," the report declares. But what normal boy of fourteen would do anything else, if left alone in the damp and dark, with nothing to do but wait, his only light the flickering lamp in his cap, and with no companionship but his thoughts?

Several companies have voluntarily fixed the sixteen-year age limit for underground work. The proposed law would merely bring the other companies up to this standard.

1911 PLANKS

BOSTON 1915

After a year of persistent study and investigation, Boston-1915 has staked out a civic program of definite projects to be put through in 1911. The thirteen planks in this municipal platform are based upon the recommendations of the thirteen conferences which have prepared "syllabi of the needs of Boston" in their particular fields. The conferences, representing some 1,200 social and civic organizations, are divided into these groups: education, fine and industrial arts, charities and correction, business, city planning, civic, cooperative, labor, neighborhood work, religious, women's clubs, and youth. After a conference has been organized the method of procedure has been to draw up a program, to be ratified by the other twelve conferences and by the executive committee and Board of Directors of Boston-1915. In this way a general

agreement has been reached on the projects of the 1911 program. The comment following each of the propositions is taken from a pamphlet which may be obtained for the asking from the Boston-1915 office, 6 Beacon street.

1. Establish a proper public authority to plan and provide for the comprehensive development of the city. (Initiated by the Chamber of Commerce and the City Planning Conference of Boston-1915.)

A definite city plan is necessary to the healthy growth of any modern city. Until the main needs of the whole community have been carefully studied and mapped out, no single project can be carried forward with any certainty that it is really best for the city.

At the present time there are pressing demands for street and boulevard developments amounting to more than $25,000,000. Which of these improvements, being the most important and most necessary to the city, should be undertaken first it is impossible to say with conditions as they are. The facts should be determined before the city's money is used for any of them.

The City Planning Conference of Boston-1915, in its recent report, declares that a city plan should include transportation (passenger and freight) by rail, by road, and by water; water supply and drainage; lands for public uses; building and housing regulations; and that such metropolitan improvements should be planned by a permanent commission.

On their recommendation the directors of Boston-1915 have put in a bill (House No. 1109) creating such a commission. Moreover, the organization is backing three bills that will help to better housing conditions.

2. Federate the cities and towns of the Metropolitan District. (Initiated by the Chamber of Commerce.)

Boston-1915 does not mean political Boston, with its artificial boundaries. It means Greater Boston, the fourth largest city in the United States and the tenth largest in the world.

Every problem with which the conference of Boston-1915 have to do is a problem for the whole Metropolitan District and cannot be solved for any one of those communities, except with the co-operation of all the others.

3. Organize a larger use of schoolhouses. (Initiated by the Home and School Association and The Women's Municipal League.)

The school buildings in the city of Boston alone have cost more than twenty millions of dollars and they are used about 1,000 hours a year out of a possible 4,000 hours. Three-quarters of the time that most school buildings stand idle they might be used for lectures, music, clubs, classes, neighborhood meetings, and gatherings of every proper sort.

To bring about the larger use of schoolhouses would be one of the best investments the city could make.

4. Secure a larger and better use of playgrounds and other recreational facilities. (Initiated by the Youth Conference of Boston-1915.)

While we are working towards a more extended use of the schoolhouse as a social center, we should strive also for a better use of the city's chances to play. It is generally recognized that Boston has the best park system of any city in the world, but that it is deficient in neighborhood playgrounds.

The Youth Conference of Boston-1915 proposes to study the needs of the community and then, with a knowledge of the failures and successes of other municipalities, to recommend definite plans and to push them through.

5. Create a central civic building. (Initiated by the Charities and Correction Conference of Boston-1915.)

It is stated that there are in Boston more than sixty charitable and civic organizations paying rents aggregating $60,000 a year. To avoid duplication and increase co-operation, these should be brought together in one building. Many civic bodies are ready for such a move and the proposition is feasible from the financial viewpoint.

6. Establish more convenience stations and drinking fountains. (Initiated by the United Improvement Association and the Neighborhood Welfare Conference of Boston-1915.)

This project, carefully studied by the United Improvement Association, is sure to make for temperance as well as for general comfort. Boston is behind almost every other city of the United States in providing public toilets. A definite plan for such stations is under consideration, together with House bill No. 1331, providing for the construction of convenience stations in all cities over 8,000 inhabitants.

7. Investigate the part-time school problem. (Initiated by the Child Welfare Committee.)

There is now practical agreement that one of the best ways to promote industrial education is a plan by which the boy spends part of his time in school and part of it in the shop or store. The plan must vary with local needs. The Massachusetts Child Welfare Committee has put in a bill (House No. 454) authorizing the State Board of Education to make an investigation and providing the necessary fund for it.

8. Create a central library for teachers. (Initiated by the Education Conference of Boston-1915.)

It has long been felt that the busy teachers of Greater Boston should have some central place wherein to find, with as little trouble as possible, the latest information and suggestions through which they and their teaching may be kept right up to date.

9. Secure laws for enforcing parental responsibility. (Initiated by the Charities and Correction Conference of Boston-1915.)

The first step is to get a law making desertion of wife or minor children a crime. House bill No. 473 makes it possible to use the provisions of probation and of suspended sentence in these cases as in those of non-support; and Section VII provides that fifty cents shall be paid to the family for each day's hard labor performed by anyone found guilty of desertion and put in jail.

10. Make definite provision for better sidewalks. (Initiated by the United Improvement Association.)

This plan is embodied in a bill (House No. 563) put in by the United Improvement Association.

11. Diminish through a prompt return of births needless blindness and disease among infants. (Initiated by the Health Conference of Boston-1915.)

If the Board of Health knew of every birth in the city of Boston within forty-eight hours of its occurrence, it would be within its power to stop every year thirty per cent of all blindness. The knowledge would go a long way, too, towards preventing the present waste of infant life. Moreover, as is shown in the experience of New York, prompt birth returns mean fuller birth returns. House No. 666 makes prompt birth returns compulsory, and every citizen should work for it.

12. Secure more practical examinations for licenses to practice medicine. (Initiated by the Health Conference of Boston-1915.)

Examinations for those who are to practice medicine are now made entirely on book work and by written tests. It is important and practicable to require every applicant, as a part of his examination, to answer questions concerning actual patients brought before him.

13. Extend free art exhibitions. (Initiated by the Fine and Industrial Arts Conference of Boston-1915.)

This work of bringing good art directly to the people, and of explaining the meaning and beauty of the pictures, has been already well begun; it should gradually be extended so as to meet the needs of all sections of the city.

There has been more or less criticism of the inactivity of Boston-1915 during the past year. The internal work which has preceded this ambitious program has necessarily been inconspicuous. Now that the preliminary work has been completed, Boston-1915 has a clear field to show that the co-operation secured by its working scheme is really worth while. The growing interest in the conferences is noteworthy, as the success of the 1911 program depends in large measure on the activity of these conference groups.

EDITORIAL GRIST

TWO REGRETTABLE EVENTS

CLARENCE ARTHUR PERRY
Russell Sage Foundation

Few events in the educational world during 1911 will probably occcasion more disappointment among social workers than the closing of Boston's chief open-air school and the shutting-down of the Rochester social centers.

Providence had only just got the first American open-air school under way in 1908 when Boston, with its customary alacrity in adopting new ideas, set up one in Franklin Park which soon became the largest and most important in the country. It is such enterprise as this that has given the chief New England city her position of leadership in the educational world. The other day this school was allowed to close and over 100 tubercular pupils were permitted to resume their precarious and infectious careers among children who are still well.

Less than a year ago four important magazines printed almost simultaneous articles on Rochester. The achievement which more than any other called forth this chorus of praise was the system of city-supported social centers. Governor Hughes inspected them and said they "were buttressing the foundations of democracy", while the stories which visitors brought away from Rochester of the new era of free discussion and neighborhood sociability that had dawned in the schoolhouses of that city enheartened the friends of municipal progress the nation over.

Recently the special appropriation from which the social centers were supported was cut down by the local board of estimate to a degree that made the school board feel obliged to close them.

The tubercular children whom Boston has turned into the street may not

all die nor infect all of their playmates; and Rochester's centers may, after a period of maimed existence in scattered civic clubs, be restored again to full health, but the two events will still have other consequences whose lamentable effect will be widely felt. There will be the inevitable cry of "politics" which, though the facts may justify it, is only a narrow explanation, since in each case the city as a whole cannot escape final responsibility. The cynical will point out the incongruity between these acts and the two not-whispered slogans "Boston-1915" and "Do It For Rochester." But most regrettable of all will be the discouraging effect which the news will have upon the many public-spirited men and women who in the laborious effort to persuade their municipalities to support similar enterprises have been enthusiastically pointing to the work in Boston and Rochester.

THE CONFIDENTIAL EXCHANGE

MARY E. RICHMOND

Mrs. Fox presents in this number some good arguments in favor of focusing our lines of social contact through a central and confidential exchange of information in each city. A half-diagram, half-picture appears on this page, which illustrates the actual workings of such an exchange in Boston.

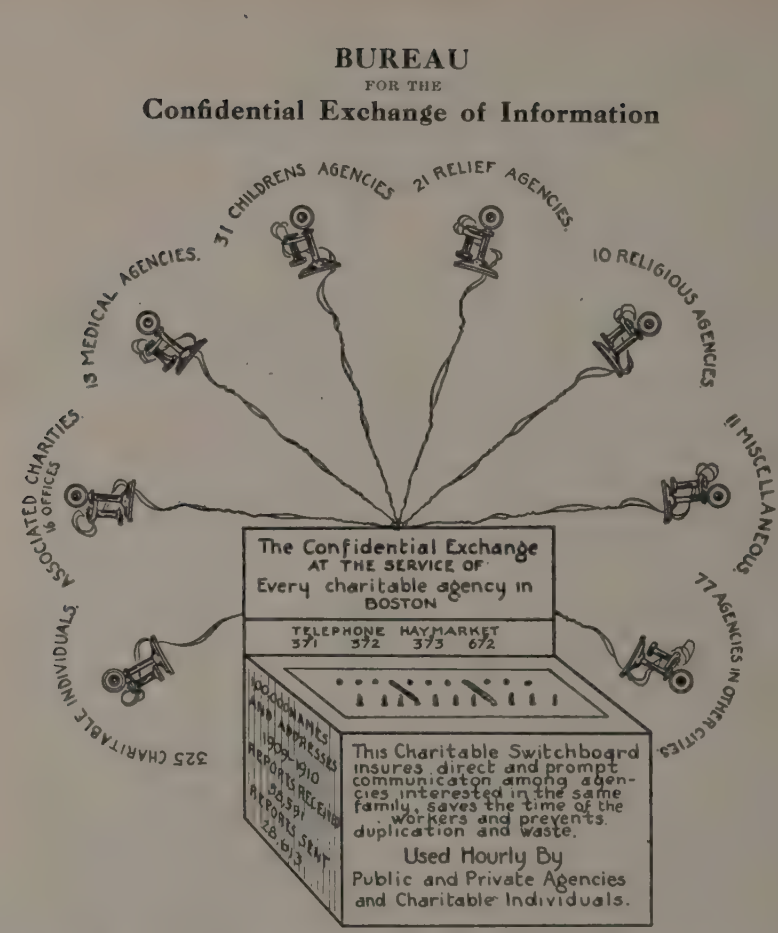
The Bureau for the Confidential Exchange of Information maintained by the Boston Associated Charities deserves special mention because it is attracting attention the country over, and is going to be widely copied during the next few years. The figures given in the illustration are for the last fiscal year, but this January they were more than doubled. Inquiries were made in 7,290 instances as compared with 3,373 in January a year ago. The work done for medical agencies and for children's agencies showed an especially marked increase. A nurse who is also a social worker says that doctors are now very anxious to know how a patient has reacted under previous treatment, and that the confidential index maintained by the Associated Charities gives them clues to this needed information.

But are not all social workers who are striving to be sound practitioners equally interested in the reactions of their patients to social treatment of whatever kind? As the possibilities of constructive treatment have grown, and as the school, the dispensary, the hospital, the workshop, the playground, the newspaper have become partially aware, at least, of the social implications of their tasks, some such interchange—not on the old basis of relief and its duplication, but on the broadest possible basis of social betterment—has become an absolute necessity.

Here is an instance, told by the registrar of the Boston Exchange, involving a church, a daily paper, and a hospital. A clergyman went to the children's outing department of a newspaper, and asked that a certain child be sent to the country. As was its custom the newspaper inquired of the confidential exchange, and thus a hospital that had previously inquired about the child was at once notified. The hospital reported to the newspaper that the boy was in no condition to go to a country place, that they were continuing their interest in his case and were going to send him to a convalescent home. Or take another instance. A physician referred a sick woman to the social service department of a hospital. Before she had left the building, the confidential exchange had told the social service worker that six other agencies had inquired about her. A conference was arranged at which four of these agencies were represented, and a plan was devised for the benefit of the patient and of her six children under the age of ten. It has been put through co-operatively and successfully.

The spirit and method of the exchange are far removed from the detective, the repressive, the cheese-paringly economical. It is, as Mrs. Fox makes clear, another way of being more efficient and therefore more helpful.

We must not dogmatize as to what existing agency in any given city, or what new agencies, must undertake this particular work. It is not by accident, how-


BUREAU
FOR THE
Confidential Exchange of Information
31 CHILDRENS AGENCIES
21 RELIEF AGENCIES
13 MEDICAL AGENCIES.
10 RELIGIOUS AGENCIES
ASSOCIATED CHARITIES & OFFICES
11 MISCELLANEOUS
77 AGENCIES IN OTHER CITIES.
325 CHARITABLE INDIVIDUALS
The Confidential Exchange
AT THE SERVICE OF
Every charitable agency in
BOSTON
TELEPHONE HAYMARKET
371 372 373 672
This Charitable Switchboard insures direct and prompt communicaton among agencies interested in the same family, saves the time of the workers and prevents duplication and waste.
Used Hourly By
Public and Private Agencies
and Charitable Individuals.

Cartoon used by the Boston Associated Charities to illustrate the Bureau for the Confidential Exchange of Information. Eighty agencies use the exchange regularly. 14,000 families were registered during the year ending May 31, 1910, by 221 agencies and 325 private individuals. 9,167 families were registered this year for the first time.

ever, that the most successful exchanges have been under the auspices of charity organization societies or associated charities. The exchange is no mere business device, and good results will not be secured by clerks whose employers so regard it. It must be under the care of those who understand social service treatment thoroughly, who have made many sacrifices to further such treatment in the past, and who have learned from experience to do constructive work in a constructive way. Reports, telephone messages, letters, personal interviews may all be merely expeditiously despatched, with the sole purpose in view of a more or less accurate checking up of lists. Social work is already overencumbered with machinery of this grade. What is needed is something equally prompt, but far more intelligent and humane. "We are not satisfied", says the Boston registrar, "unless those who begin to use the exchange are soon induced to seek closer relations and a better understanding with other groups of workers in other lines of social work." This is achieved by tactful suggestion, by watchful avoidance of ground for misunderstanding, and by steady though gentle pressure toward the real ends in view. The ability to organize such an enterprise demands not so much clerical dexterity as social statesmanship.

"A PREMIUM ON ABNORMALITY"

In his study of poverty in York, Rowntree compared his family budgets with the per capita cost of maintaining inmates in the English poor relief institutions, classing as in primary poverty those homes whose incomes fell below the standard of physical maintenance set by the almshouses.

In an article contributed to the March magazine number of THE SURVEY on The Premium on Abnormality, Professor Nearing of the University of Pennsylvania develops a similar comparison along original lines. He sets the share which he estimates an unskilled laborer can spend for each of three children against the per capita expenditure of the child-caring institutions which with their modern standards have superseded the almshouse in the care of juvenile dependents. He finds the children of unskilled American workingmen below the "poverty line." Rowntree's method has been used many times; by casting it in terms of childhood, Professor Nearing has put the case against the pay of common labor in a way which will appeal to the imagination and challenge sober thinking.

Somebody has said that similes never walk upright; they can only creep. When we turn from the field of rhetoric to that of statistical comparison, we are dealing with figures of speech with not two but a thousand legs, so that any frailty of locomotion is accentuated and multiplied. While hailing Mr. Nearing's antithesis as immensely suggestive, therefore, it may be well to point out certain steps in his calculations which fall short of that Q.E.D. conclusiveness with which he invests them. For indications, even directly in line with common sense and observation, are not demonstrations, nor do they gain weight by being advanced as such, as is the tendency in much sociological discussion.

Despite his title, a goodly part of Professor Nearing's argument has nothing to do with abnormality. Orphans, destitute or even neglected children are not abnormal as individuals; they too will

Drawn for Browning's Magazine by C. Forbell

A CASE IN POINT.

"It sure does look com'fable in there, Billy. Don't ye wish we could get the measles or somethin'?"

be called upon to "assume the responsibilities of citizenship" and play their part in the work of the new generation. On the other hand, in so far as Mr. Nearing makes comparison with the truly abnormal, it must be remembered that the treatment of the latter always costs more than that of normal people. The special care which they require by reason of their abnormality means additional expense. Insane people cost more than sane ones; criminals more than law-abiding citizens; the feeble-minded more than the normal minded. To care for them properly is not putting a premium on abnormality any more than adequately to care for the sick is putting a premium on sickness. Cure comes high, but we must have it, and it is good sense to pay the bill. Professor Nearing has, it would seem, stretched his comparison a peg too far for its most effective contrast. It is between destitute children for whom the state or philanthropic institutions assume responsibility and the children of day-laborers' families that the comparison can most logically be made.

Even here all the elements are not in hand for so simple a calculation as the author assumes. His statement that "malnutrition, insanitation, overcrowding, sweated work, and street life" are "universal in the homes of the poor," while "wholly absent in the modern child-saving institution," is as sweeping an overstatement at one end of the sentence as at the other. Unfortunately, malnu-

trition, insanitation, overcrowding, and sweated work have entered into the régime of not a few children's institutions; and fortunately there are homes of the poor into which, whatever other deprivations may be theirs, these things do not enter; homes which also have those priceless gifts of the spirit to bestow upon their offspring, that individual nurture, which would lead a wise son to choose his own father in preference to the most thoroughly equipped congregate institution.

These points may be passed, however, for Mr. Nearing consistently focuses attention on the purely economic aspects of his comparison. As a first exception, it may be noted that the proportions he uses, as between children and adults, are merely food ratios, not necessarily true of total expenditures. Food consumption would go up in the proportions cited with the addition of each small child, but such household charges as heat, rent, furniture, would not necessarily follow the same rule. On the other hand, is the fact that the maintenance figures given for institutions do not include carrying charges, such as rent, interest, etc. Institutions, however, usually maintain class rooms of their own. Mr. Nearing disregards also the community's outlay for public schools for "normal children." With respect to the institution budget, it may well be questioned whether the average children's institution is as businesslike in service as Professor Nearing would seem to imply; possibly some of its expenditures could well be cut. Yet it would have to be borne in mind that an increase in efficiency, which would call for such economies, would call also for constructive work and a per capita outlay larger than the average he gives, as exemplified in the more progressive institutions. With respect to the family budget several sources of income affect the conditions discussed. Moneys from lodgers, from the woman's work, and from older children may involve overcrowding, parental neglect, and premature labor but they must be reckoned with in a purely economic estimate of what it means for a child's lot to be cast with the family of an unskilled workman. We must distinguish between household income and the man's wages; it is with the latter that simple comparisons are possible.

These and other factors, then, would have to be carefully worked out in any attempt to prove, by the method Mr. Nearing has followed, that the wage standard of unskilled workers in American industry is today absolutely inadequate to fulfill one of the primal functions of family life—child-care. Experience and testimony from many sources, none the less, tend to confirm the conclusion that more money is spent in the physical care and education of destitute children than is or can be spent for children in a large number of common laborers' families. What of it? What lessons are to be drawn? Are the orphans to be starved or skimperingly cared for? Or shall we put all children into orphan asylums and such like? Or shall society invest more in the "normal children" of the unskilled workman by seeing that he gets more pay. Clearly the latter. The culture of normal children, no less than the cure of abnormal ones, comes high, and we have not yet learned that it is good sense to see that the bill should be paid. It is this last point, of course, that there is something seriously out of joint between the wages of common labor and our American standards of livelihood, which, quite apart from any quibbles as to the steps of his calculation, and quite in harmony with the different studies of costs of living made in the past five years, Professor Nearing holds to view in an interrogation, which by the novelty of its terms, fastens the attention. In a letter, he answers the question in the same terms:

> I do not for an instant maintain that abnormal children should be ignored, but I do assert that progress can be most effectually made by directing the greater part of social efforts toward the development of those members of society who are, at birth, endowed with normal health and normal social surroundings. It is nothing short of social suicide to maintain a policy which involves a greater outlay in the abortive attempt to raise an individually or socially abnormal child to the normal level of the community, than is involved in the upbringing of a normal, healthy offspring of low-income parents,—or in raising that level.

CIVICS

INTERNATIONAL CITY PLANNING EXHIBITION AND CONFERENCE

PHILADELPHIA IN MAY

GEORGE B. FORD
NEW YORK

There is something wrong with the welfare work done in a large city. A great deal of time and energy is wasted, all through no fault of the social worker. For example, a man from the thickly populated districts of the city is taken to a hospital, the best of treatment is given him, and as soon as he has sufficiently recovered he is discharged, with the admonition to continue at home a life similar to that he has been living as a patient. He knows only too well that this is the sheerest irony, for the conditions of the neighborhood in which he dwells make it absolutely impossible; the result is that at the end of a longer or shorter time the man again becomes a public charge.

A man is sent to a sanatorium to be cured of tuberculosis; his recovery is rapid and he is soon sent back to his home. Within six months or a year he returns to the sanatorium. Whose fault is it?

In his struggle for existence a man has committed a petty crime. He is convicted and sent to a reformatory. At the end of his sentence, or sooner thanks to his good behavior, he is sent home to sin no more. A little later the process is repeated. Is it the man's fault?

Sociologists are well convinced that environment has a great effect upon the individual. Statistics prove that bad housing conditions are directly responsible for much disease and crime. They have also proved that where housing conditions have been radically bettered disease and crime have greatly decreased. That being the case, in order to prevent the recurrence of these troubles, it is obvious that improved housing is worth while. The question can even be brought down to a matter of dollars and cents and it can be shown that the money spent in preventing the growth of overcrowding is far less than that spent—I would say worse than spent, for much of it is money thrown away—on strictly curative features, like hospitals, sanatoriums, asylums, and reformatory institutions.

However hard we may strive ideal housing is impossible without reasonable city planning. The latter must precede the former. City planning is a mysterious subject to most of us and implies at first thought a pretty lamp-post or a statue on a street corner; or a lawn with a tree and a shrub at conspicuous points. Perhaps it did start with this idea, but in its present-day development these are only a few of the many contributory phases. City planning today is a well-defined science based on a vast amount of experience gained under greatly varying conditions, experience which has been brought together, analyzed, correlated, and systematized so that now it is available to anyone who has at heart the bettering of life in his municipality.

Some knowledge of city planning and what it implies is absolutely essential to the social worker if he would make the results of his labor permanent and prevent the recurrence of

PROGRAM, MAY 15-17

First session.—Harbor and Dock Development, Calvin Tomkins, commissioner of docks, New York.

Second session. — Public Buildings, Open Spaces and Waterways, John M. Carrère,[1] architect, New York.

Third session.—Street Widths, and Subdivisions for Various Purposes, Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer, Board of Estimate and Apportionment, New York.

Fourth Session.—Buildings in Relation to the Street and the Site, Lawrence Veiller, secretary National Housing Association, New York.

Fifth session. — Municipal Real Estate Policies, Frederic C. Howe, New York.

(It is hoped to have French, English and German municipal real estate policies presented by representatives from each country.)

Sixth session. — Financing City Planning, Lawson Purdy, President Department of Taxes and Assessments, New York.

Seventh session.—Proposed draft of the American Town Planning Act, Andrew Wright Crawford, Assistant City Solicitor, Philadelphia.

Frederick Law Olmsted, the chairman, will preside.

[1]Deceased after program was prepared.

those things which he has been trying to correct. If he would understand the whole subject of social effort comprehensively, he must have a fundamental understanding of how the environment of those whom he is trying to help can be made to co-operate with him in gaining results. City planning on one side or another is of interest to a great many kinds of people, but it is essentially of interest to social workers, hence the importance to them of the international exhibition and conference of city planning to be held in Philadelphia in May. Many experts from abroad as well as from America have been invited to attend. Most of the best city planning data and design now existing will be shown. The city of Philadelphia, through Mayor Reyburn, has set aside $15,000 to this end and has given free use of the City Hall. The exhibit will last most of the month of May and the first part of June. The conference itself, which will be held May 15-17, will be divided into seven sections, each in charge of a well recognized expert. The seven section subjects, each to be followed by discussion, are in the program.

A glance at the program will show that all phases of the subject are to be considered. The discussions will bring out a great deal of valuable experience. Meanwhile the exhibition will give a splendid opportunity to study how other cities have solved their problems or are trying to solve them. The secretary is Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress street, Boston, and the secretary of the exhibit, Arthur E. Buchholz, 395 City Hall, Philadelphia.

THE FIRST SOCIAL CENTER CONFERENCE—DALLAS, TEXAS

EDWARD J. WARD
University of Wisconsin

The opportunity which the public school building in every community offers for the free discussion of public questions, for the giving of lectures, musical and dramatic expression, and for recreational activities has been considered at the conventions of various organizations, such as the National Municipal League, Playground Association of America, and the Department of Superintendents of the National Educational Association, during the past two or three years. But the first conference called expressly for the purpose of promoting social centers through the wider use and added equipment of school houses and other public buildings met on February 17, at Dallas, Tex.

Educators, social workers, members of federated women's clubs, and leaders of movements for civic and social improvement in the Southwest have been united in urging social center development. But it was through the initiative of Col. Frank P. Holland that this first Social Center Conference was held. Colonel Holland became convinced long before the report of the Country Life Commission was presented that one of the greatest needs of rural communities is the development of a common institution in each, where the people will have an opportunity for continued study, where they will find leadership in recreation, and where live and intelligent public spirit will be stimulated. And he saw that the extension of the use of the public school house would be the most economical means of securing such an institution.

For the past year Colonel Holland has not only preached this gospel through the columns of his two publications, but he has sent out into the field Charles W. Holman, a man who knows the problems of the Southwest and who grasps the social center idea in its full significance. As an aid to the work of Mr. Holman, Colonel Holland six months ago began the distribution of small libraries, placing as many as twenty-five in a single day in school buildings in various communities.

After a year of this work it was evident from the interest manifested by farmers' associations, business men's organizations, labor unions, and women's clubs, as well as by representatives of the state universities and agricultural colleges in the Southwest, that the time was ripe to call a conference and launch a movement for securing legislation looking toward the full civic, social, and recreational use of school houses and other public buildings. Colonel Holland then sent out a call:

> to every educator and teacher, minister of the gospel, worker in social reform, newspaper man; to every holder of public office connected with the public free school system; to the organized club women and members of mothers' clubs; to organized labor; to all farmers' organizations; to any organization or individual having at heart a sincere interest in the progress of the Southwest.

The response was remarkable. From five states and from more than sixty towns and rural communities came "soldiers of the common good." The meetings were held in the auditorium of the beautiful new Dallas High School.

A COUNTRY SCHOOL IN TEXAS.

This was the first school to receive one of the small libraries distributed by Col. Frank P. Holland.

The afternoon session was devoted to the study of the civic, social, and recreational problems of rural communities and the best methods of developing the use of the country school houses as a means of meeting them.

Conditions almost as sad as those uncovered in Adams county, O., were depicted in the descriptions of some of the unsocialized back-country neighborhoods, and on the other hand there were such cheering statements of experience as that given by Colonel R. E. Smith, president of the Texas Good Roads Association, who had been instrumental in opening the first social center in Texas:

"I want to say to you that my ideas of farming have almost been revolutionized. Not long ago a good renter was hard to find. It seems entirely different now. Perhaps the fact that I have taken more interest in my renters—become acquainted with them on the common ground of a social center—makes them like me better, makes me like them better and consequently makes us both do better. People meeting together causes them to understand each other; the young people are fired with ambition and—if this goes on, better corn will be raised over Texas than there ever was before."

The evening session was devoted to the problems of urban communities and was opened by the well loved Bishop Alexander C. Garrett. The needs of the cities of the Southwest were set forth, and the practical experiences of New York, Rochester, Milwaukee, Columbus, and other places in developing the use of school houses to meet some of these needs were discussed.

Among the many important contributions made to the convention none was more comprehensive and effective than the statement received from Senator La Follette on the development in Wisconsin, in which he says:

"Chosen individuals may strive faithfully in meeting and solving the complex problems which arise from the industrial and economic conditions of our time, but lasting results will be achieved through the growth and development of civic interest on the part of the citizens in general throughout the state.

"There is a hitherto largely undeveloped resource for the growth of intelligent public interest, in the opportunity which the school houses and other public buildings offer for the gathering of citizens to consider and discuss together questions of common welfare.

"Should this movement became general, it would unquestionably result in the establishment of a foundation of intelligent democracy, which would make civic progress not only rapid, but conservative and sure."

TRICKS OF THE TRADE.
How some dealers give short measure.

FULL MEASURE

JAMES P. HEATON

"A false scale is an abomination to the Lord but a just weight is his delight" said King Solomon. It has always been necessary to watch and curb deceitful tradesmen. The sealer of weights and measures dates from the earliest days and is a direct inheritance from the medieval towns in England which exercised a rigid control over the prices, weight or measure, and quality of all goods. In New England the office exists in slumbering disuse along with such time honored official jobs as measurer of lumber and tan bark, tithing man, fence viewer, and pound keeper.

The indifference of the purchasing public has been vividly described of late and attention has been called to frauds and to efforts here and there to correct them. Dr. Reichmann, state superintendent of weights and measures in New York, has estimated that petty mercantile peculations cost the people of the state $10,000,000 each year. With increased cost of living causing uneasiness and distress, frauds formerly held too unimportant to bother about now strike home. The United States Bureau of Standards has shown that sixty per cent of the scales and measures in retail stores throughout the country are incorrect.

The framers of the national constitution deemed this subject important enough to justify giving to Congress specific power to "fix the standards of weights and measures." In 1830 Congress enacted a law prescribing for the use of the Treasury Department the avoirdupois pound, the English yard, the wine gallon, and the Winchester bushel. Six years later a complete set of the standards was supplied to each state.

NEW JERSEY

How poorly, at the end of seventy-five years, the states are successfully enforcing these standards in the everyday transactions within their boundaries is illustrated by a report which S. D. Dickinson, secretary of state in New Jersey, transmitted to the Legislature at the end of January. This document was submitted by the United States Bureau of Standards and the Robert Stevens Fund for Municipal Research in Hoboken and shows the conditions in eleven New Jersey cities. Representatives of the Robert S. Stevens Fund visited 574 stores in Hoboken, Camden, Jersey City, Montclair, Newark, New Brunswick, Orange, and Trenton. All but twenty-six had short weights and measures; that is ninety-six per cent had either incorrect weights, measures, scales, or packages. Of forty-eight dealers in Orange and twenty-four in Trenton only one had correct weights and measures exclusively. The United States Bureau of Standards found, though giving a lower percentage of error, substantially similar conditions in Elizabeth, Bridgeton, New Brunswick, and Atlantic City, but its report for Trenton and Camden showed a greater proportion of accurate weights than obtained a year later. Its conclusion is that "many of the inhabitants and many of the honest merchants are undoubtedly suffering from the conditions of weights and measures."

In line with this report the secretary of state prepared a remedial measure for legisla-

tive enactment, which provides a revised state law, a properly equipped state bureau of weights and measures, and similar bureaus for the counties and the larger cities. A bill embodying these recommendations was introduced early this month by Senator Prince and is now pending.

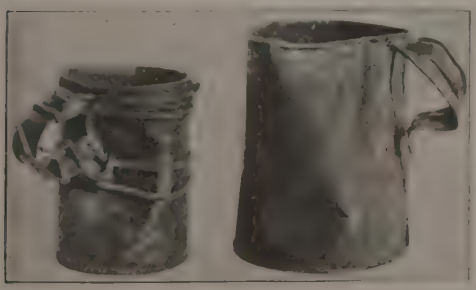
ILLINOIS

A few cities have far eclipsed most of the states in protecting the buyer of small fruits and groceries from false or indefinite measure. In Chicago John Kjellander, the city sealer, found some degree of short weight or measure, either through design or custom, in every trade he investigated. An ordinance was passed requiring that all milk bottles must have their capacity blown into the glass or otherwise permanently indicated. The dealers pleaded for leeway under and over measure. The Supreme Court of the state held that if it was impossible to make all bottles alike they could hold a trifle more, and that a quart or a pint meant just that and nothing else. Another ordinance requires a ticket showing the net weight of each load of coal, in place of the former plan of a single bill covering all loads in a given order. Formerly a driver could say he did not know how much was in the wagon, as it was part of a large delivery and any short weight could always be made up later.

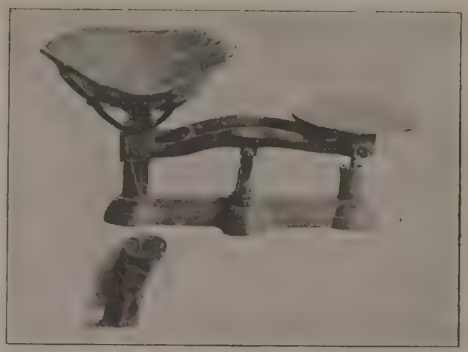
Three bills relating to weights and measures were introduced at the session of the Illinois Legislature last year. One, providing for a comprehensive revision of the existing laws, was defeated by three votes. The second, which passed, gives city, town, and village authorities power to pass ordinances requiring the sale of different kinds of dry commodities by weight instead of measure. The third, commonly termed the "net weight bill," provided that all goods sold in original packages should bear the net weight, measure, or numerical count of the contents conspicuously displayed. It was not reported from committee.

NORTH DAKOTA

In North Dakota a net weight law, similar to the one rejected in Illinois, has increased the gross weight for canned corn, peas, and tomatoes approximately twenty per cent since 1903, "in spite of the fact that prices for food products have materially increased, and we might expect slack fillings were not our law being enforced," as is pertinently remarked in the state report. Before 1903 canned goods in North Dakota sometimes varied forty per cent in weight for cans of the same size. Nebraska has a similar law and the demand for one is taking on strength in New York, Colorado, and Iowa.



WHO PAYS FOR THE DENT.



FEW DEALERS LOSE.

The national pure food law does not give adequate protection in regard to the weight of goods in original packages, for it merely requires that the quantity, if stated at all, shall be given correctly.

The United States Bureau of Standards has announced that Chicago is the model city in protection from short weight. Only five per cent of the scales of Chicago retail dealers were faulty, while in some cities as high as sixty per cent of those examined gave underweight. In many cities absolutely no provision exists for checking weights and measures.

NEW YORK

The investigation of the national government was made before Clement J. Driscoll commenced the very effective work which now makes New York a rival of Chicago. Mr. Driscoll, who has since been appointed first deputy police commissioner, coming as a new man into the place of commissioner of weights and measures, destroyed tons of dishonest scales and thousands of short measures and baskets with false bottoms. He warned dry goods dealers that cloth sixty-eight inches wide could not be sold for two yards wide, and meat dealers that the canvas wrapper around hams could not be charged for as meat. A campaign is under way to compel stores that sell articles wrapped beforehand to show their weight. Candy stores have been in the habit of selling boxes that held a pound gross instead of sixteen ounces net. Similar practices existed in other trades.

The newspapers enthusiastically supported the commissioner and he secured an increase of twelve inspectors. The original force of nineteen had been kept busy watching the output of factories making weights and measures,

so that practically none was left to visit stores and shops.

In New York state the Cobb-Merritt bill, recently passed, defined the duties and powers of the sealer of weights and measures, and of the state departments which acts as a check upon city departments.

CLEVELAND

In Cleveland, after raids upon hucksters had showed short or double-bottom measures, an ordinance was passed requiring them to take out licenses and to wear numbers that they might be identified by customers who claimed fraud. As in New York, arrangements have been made to sell by weight many articles which have been retailed by measure. In the municipal market house the sealer set up scales and furnished measures to the public free, so that anybody could test whether he was securing fair treatment.

ST. LOUIS

The inspector of weights and measures in St. Louis reports the number of examinations and arrests and convictions. Scales and measures are inspected twice a year and the aim seems to be to make the department self supporting. Last year the surplus of receipts over expenditures was $4,554. There are six inspectors in St. Louis, nineteen in Chicago, and thirty-one in New York. In Baltimore the chief inspector, who has six assistants, reports the number of dealers whose weights and measures were inspected, and of weights, measures, and scales condemned and confiscated. Inspections of weights and scales and of liquid and dry measures are made by different officials and there is also an inspector at large to check up the work of the men in the districts.

An important phase of the work is the education of the public. Many do not know that cranberries sold by the liquid quart at seemingly cheap prices are more expensive than berries costing a cent more that are honestly measured by a dry quart. At the municipal budget exhibit of New York city last fall graphic illustrations were given of false weights and measures, of dishonest use of correct standards, and of the price per unit of loose and package goods. No kitchen is complete without a good scales and a set of accurate dry and liquid measures.

CIVIC IMPROVEMENT

CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON, Contributing Editor

IMPORTUNING PROVIDENCE

There is an organization in Providence which is known as the Town Criers. It is so active that one sees references to it continually and the editor of this department is among those who have wondered what the title meant. He has just found out, and the answer is simple. Town Criers are just citizens "who believe in crying for what they want until they get it."

PRESERVING SCENERY

An interesting example of billboard restraint is to be found in the report of a successful prosecution which has lately taken place at Silloth in England. The Carlisle City Billposting Company was fined fifty shillings for exhibiting advertisements on two hoardings in such a way as to disfigure the natural beauty of the landscape. They marred the view of the Scottish hills.

STREET WORK IN PARIS

Americans who, thinking of the torn-up condition of the streets in their own cities, sigh for what they consider the perfection of Paris, may read with interest the announcement that the prefect of the Seine has just laid before the Paris Municipal Council proposals for spending $20,000,000 on street improvements. This sum does not include the proposed extension of the Boulevard Haussmann to the Boulevard des Italiens. It also suggests that Paris has not attained the beauty it enjoys without a good deal of expense and courage.

CITY PLANNING

It is significant that the news of a single week should have contained the following three items: A resolution passed by the San Francisco branch of the American Institute of Architects urging the mayor and Board of Supervisors to create a municipal commission, with power to develop a comprehensive plan for all improvements in San Francisco; an agitation started in New Britain, Conn., to have a city plan commission, and finally, a report that the Board of Estimate of New York is about to appoint a commission on city planning.

ALBANY BOYS' CLUB

It may seem like stretching this department to make room in it for "a club built just for boys." But the pamphlet report for 1910, which the Albany Boys' Club has issued in unusually attractive form, puts very tersely a reason for mentioning it here. On the cover are the words, "For Better Citizens," and inside on the title page:

THE BOY
WHO PLAYS ABOUT THE STREET
AND THEN—
THE ALBANY BOYS' CLUB
AND
BETTER MEN.

Is there not reason enough to include this boys' club in a civic improvement department?

THE CITY'S PROBLEM

The Public Athletic League of Baltimore has issued its second annual report as a large and handsomely illustrated pamphlet similar to its first. Under the presidency of Robert Garrett and the secretaryship of George W. Ehler this organization is very active. The report records the passage of a state law authorizing the mayor and City Council of Baltimore to contract with the league for the purpose of "establishing, maintaining, and conducting gymnasia, athletic fields, and recreation centers for the benefit of the people of Baltimore" and of a bill permitting the city to make appropriations for this purpose. Thus the league, though only in its infancy, is likely to receive municipal money. Mr. Ehler commences his report with these words: "Baltimore's great question: What is the really important problem of our city? Is it a supply of pure water? Is it sewerage? Is it trade with the South? Is it art and beauty? Is it smooth streets? Or is it boys and girls? Boys and girls! What are they going to be —in body, in mind, in heart? This is the most important problem of the city of Baltimore."

A SCOLDING

Edward T. Hartman in his department in the *American City* gives improvement societies something that sounds very like a scolding. Sometimes scoldings are good and necessary. After telling of a town improvement lecture delivered before a well meaning club in Massachusetts he says: "It is about time for improvement societies, women's clubs, and similar organizations to stop seeking for either intellectual cocktails or short roads to the ideal. The mental cocktail, sought particularly by women's clubs, becomes a habit. It becomes more and more expensive because the more diluted first applications soon cease to satisfy and expensive cocktail artists become a necessity. And it doesn't lead to results. Short roads to the ideal never work. . . . Let's get over the idea that a platform artist who knows nothing about our conditions (they are often found who know but little about any conditions) can show us how to use the ladder by which some other community has climbed to a higher sphere. Each community must have its particular ladder and it must be planted in the soil of the particular community it is to serve, for the people of a community cannot use the ladder of another community and remain in their own community. . . . Whitewashers and flatterers can be hired, but they are not hired by community builders. Community builders hire a man to make a diagnosis, and then they apply the remedy."

FOREST NURSERIES FOR SCHOOLS

The forest service of the United States Department of Agriculture has issued a bulletin making the happy sugggestion of forest nurseries, where they are practicable, for schools. The bulletin points out the advance lately made in the introduction of nature study and elementary agriculture into the regular public school curriculum, and the popularity of the school garden. It remarks, however, that the school garden has two rather serious drawbacks: the majority of the plants appropriate for cultivation in it reach their most interesting stages of development when school is not in session; and after the season's work no tangible results remain and apparently no lasting good has been accomplished but the instruction given. If a nursery for the propagation of forest trees were established, the crop would not disappear at the close of the season. Instead, young trees might be transferred to the school grounds, lawns, or other places where they would be permanent evidences of work done. Furthermore, this transplanting of trees can best be done in the spring when school is in session. The nursery will certainly require no more labor than the garden, and the instruction involved in its care will be of much the same kind and value as that derived from the garden. The bulletin contains full suggestions for work and many illustrations.

A CITY'S SONGS

If Rochester seems to have been receiving more than its share of publicity in recent months, the reason is found in the evidences of civic spirit and progressiveness which that city has been offering. A novel and striking illustration of this is in the publication of a Rochester Song Book. In a foreword the editors state the belief that this is the "first considerable attempt of its kind for any American city." Of the songs, which fill 175 pages, many of course have been published before and are familiar in Rochester. Others were written especially for the Song Book. They are assembled under the headings Songs of the Genesee, Songs of Rochester, Patriotic and Fraternal Songs, and School and College Songs. A professor of the university, Kendrick P. Shedd, is editor-in-chief with a representative board of associates. In Rochester, where the public schools are used evenings by immense civic or neighborhood clubs, there is perhaps a greater demand for this sort of book than in other cities of like size. The songs vary a good deal in musical and literary quality, but there can be no doubt that the compilation is calculated to increase local pride and affection for the city. No one, for instance, can read the words of the Songs of the Genesee without being impressed by the part which Rochester's river plays in the lives and hearts of the people. Nor is the fact without significance that these songs praise not the majesty or water-power of the river, but its tranquil beauty and its attractiveness for canoeing.

SOME PARK STATISTICS

The February *Bulletin* of the American Association of Park Superintendents includes some interesting data for 1909 obtained by a postal card canvass of 250 cities, conducted by the secretary. It is remarkable to find that one of the cities having the largest population per acre of park lands is Pasadena,

Calif. A city of millionaires, as it is called, and a great tourist resort, Pasadena has only fourteen acres of parks, or but one acre to 2,285 people. Of the other cities reported, only twelve have more than a thousand people per acre. The one which makes the worst showing in the statistics is Jersey City, but that may be due to the fact that the Hudson County Park System is not included because its pleasure grounds are county, rather than city, parks. Other cities which make a very bad showing are Jamestown, N. Y., with more than 2,500 to the acre, and New Rochelle, N. Y., with nearly 2,300. The best showing is made by Colorado Springs, where, thanks to the munificence of the late General Palmer, there is an acre of park land to every nineteen people. Bridgeton, N. J., has a good showing with only twenty-one people to the acre. Other cities that stand extremely high are Council Bluffs, Ia.; Winona, Minn.; Springfield, Ill.; Watertown, N. Y., and Minneapolis. The Minneapolis report is extraordinary, for, with a population of 300,000, an acre of park is reported for every eighty-eight people. The city that spends the most on its parks is Peoria, Ill., with a per capita maintenance charge of $1.60. In Savannah, Ga., the expense is about two cents a person, and there is a long list of cities in which it is ten cents or less, the lowest being Hornell, N. Y., with a cent and a half.

AN ARCHBISHOP ON TOWN PLANNING

A very interesting evidence of the social significance of town planning was given a few weeks ago in an address by the archbishop of York before a large audience in Doncaster, England. The mayor had called a conference to consider the problem presented by the certain development, during the next ten years, of a new colliery district adjacent to Doncaster, which would contain 40,000 working miners and a possible total population of about 200,000.

The archbishop said that the question which the conference had to ask itself was: What shall be the character of these new towns? The usual colliery towns, said he, reflect no honor on the civilization of the nineteenth century, but it is not necessary that they be so dreary. It is simply permitted. He knew that many of his audience would say that philanthropy was all very well, but they were there to keep an eye on business. He added: "I should have little respect for my own common sense if I was not certain of this proposition—that a wise town-planning scheme, undertaken with the good will of all concerned, will be for the direct financial benefit of landowner, colliery owner, and ratepayer. We all stand in fear of any increase of the rates, but we sometimes forget that economy, which we all believe to be associated with efficiency, is not measured by the amount of the rate, but by the things that the rate buys." They might, he said, have a technically small rate productively for securing the health and happiness of the people about them, or pay a rate unproductively for dealing with disease, drunkenness, poverty, and crime. "If you ask a man", he said, "to work all day in the depths of the earth, and then put him to sit at the front door to contemplate a barren monotony of ugliness, can you wonder if he wants to get excitement in a public house or drinking club?"

WHEN GROWTH IS DECLINE

Taking as its text a situation which has developed in the little town of Lee, Mass., The *American City* has lately protested editorially against the familiar folly of trying to bring new industries into a place when no corresponding attempt is made to house the additional employes properly. After saying that the people who are invited to Lee are apparently expected to dwell in the fields, the editorial remarks that a short time ago additional workmen were called to Thompsonville, Conn., to work in the carpet mills, and when they got there found "no houses in which they could live. The newcomers had for months to live in stores, shacks, and old places, and even yet the conditions are bad." Similarly, it says, new industries are the cry of Brattleboro, Vt., "while the town already has serious slums, and owing to the lay of the land it is almost impossible for it to expand." With this timely protest the editorial concludes: "We shall some time learn that growth (from the census point of view) does not mean progress. A town of 5,000 people may be ideal. The same town a few years later with 10,000 people may be absolutely bad."

MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARIES

The work of the legislative reference bureau in Wisconsin quickly showed its unique value, and the idea has spread to New York, Ohio, Indiana, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Massachusetts, California, North Dakota, Michigan, Iowa, Montana, Alabama, and Nebraska. The National Municipal League in 1909 appointed a committee to report upon the desirability and feasibility of municipal reference bureaus. Almost everywhere it is agreed that there is a great need for them. The majority seem to believe that they should be located in the city hall and be controlled by the public library.

Milwaukee, Kansas City, Mo., and Baltimore have municipal reference libraries. The public library of Minneapolis has recently established a municipal reference section, and the Civic League of St. Louis has urged that provision be made in the new charter, which the Board of Freeholders is drafting for the city, for a municipal reference library. Boston, Chicago, Newark, New York, and other cities possess statistical bureaus, the effectiveness of which would be much aided by reference libraries. The Universities of Wisconsin and Kansas have municipal reference bureaus to furnish information to all the cities of those states. Los Angeles has a municipal reference bureau under private auspices. The plan is being seriously considered in Cleveland and Washington, D. C.

SPRINGFIELD'S SANITARY AWAKENING

GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR

What's the matter with Springfield? From the standpoint of sanitation scarcely one among the 51,000 people in the capital city of Illinois knew. The question itself had not been seriously raised. But one day a plain map of the city—big enough to show some of the things in everybody's backyard—jolted the community into a realization of the importance of the question and at the same time furnished the ugly, unvarnished truth of the answer. Springfield has conditions probably not unlike those to be found in many middle western cities which have not yet thought to ask or answer the question. If they really undertook to "know themselves" they might get just as startling information as came to Springfield when her citizens were amazed at the disclosure that 6,000 out of the 9,000 houses in the city did not use city water and sewers, that 5,000 homes directly on sewer and water mains did not utilize them, that there were over 6,000 privy vaults and more wells in the city. That is, the municipal expenditure of $4,000,000 for sewer facilities and water supply served only thirty-three per cent of the population, although it had been thought that from sixty to seventy-five per cent were served.

The story of how this extraordinary fact came to light is the story of the man behind the map and of his work. It begins with another extraordinary fact. Until May, 1909, Springfield, Ill., had no physician actively connected with the municipal Health Department, but at that time the newly elected mayor undertook to secure efficiency in the work of public health by appointing a superintendent without regard to politics. The position was offered to Dr. George Thomas Palmer, who was to receive a compensation described in a city ordinance as follows:

> He shall receive for his service the same salary or compensation as is or may be allowed, by ordinance, to police patrolmen.

The previous health officer was a cigar maker! Dr. Palmer served for several years as assistant secretary of the Illinois State Board of Health, having charge of contagious diseases and sanitation. During his incumbency he had charge of the yellow fever quarantine in Cairo in 1905. Together with the late Dr. Marcus P. Hatfield he had established and conducted through one summer the Trinity Diet Kitchen for Infants in Chicago, one of the pioneer milk charities in the West.

Only three months of the fiscal year had passed under the previous administration, yet a large part of the annual appropriation of $6,800 had been expended. Although constructive reforms were immediately instituted which increased legitimate expenses, the average expenditure for the nine months was $250 less than for the three preceding.

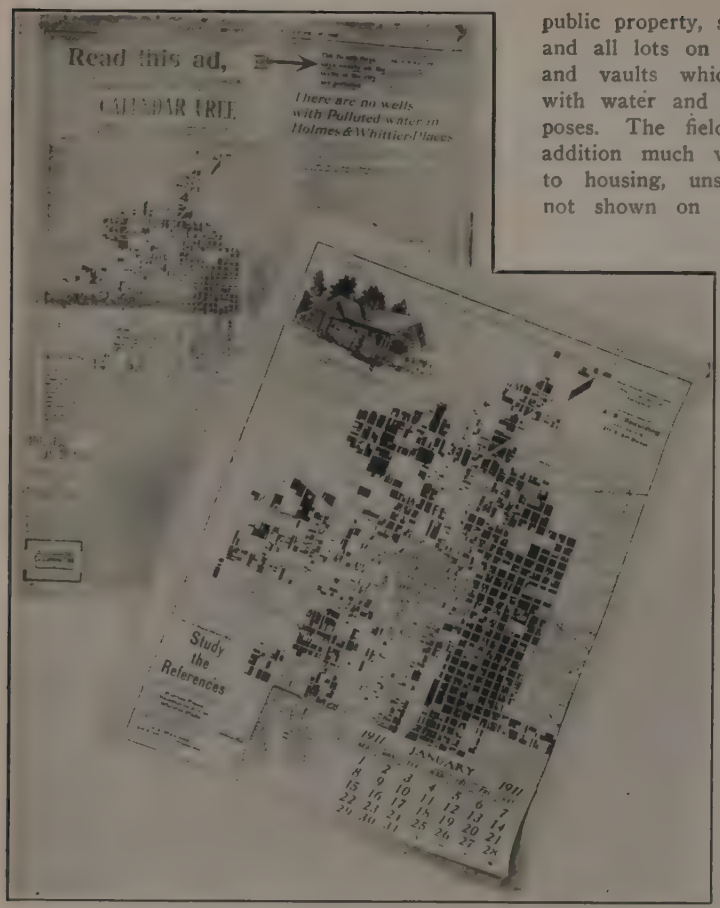
The milk supply of the city, notoriously bad, was brought up to a reliable standard in a campaign which began by emptying 150 gallons of doctored milk into the public sewers. Frequent inspection during the year has kept the local milk supply up to a fair commercial standard. But this is regarded merely as preliminary work—a demonstration of the necessity of systematic dairy inspection if Springfield is ever to have pure, clean milk. Such a system of inspection cannot be established with the present force and appropriation.

The city's unusually high mortality from typhoid fever is shown in the following excerpt from the Mortuary Statistics of the United States Bureau of Census:

DEATH RATES PER 100,000 POPULATION.

	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908
Aurora	15.7	46.3	7.6	14.9	18.3	14
Chicago	32.1	20.2	16.5	18.3	17.7	20
Decatur	18.4	40.8	20.5	12.1	12	11
Ottawa	20.2	9.1	18	.	26.6	17
Quincy	39.8	52.4	25.9	33.2	20.2	22
Springfield	49.7	40	36.6	41.1	85	39

In searching for the cause of Springfield's unenviable rank, the municipal water supply was first examined. It is taken from the Sangamon river and passes through a "gallery system." It has been steadily improved during the past few years, and was found to be safe for drinking. Suspicion then turned upon the wells so generally used throughout the city. An analysis of water from 150 showed all but three to be unsafe. To determine the source



THE MAP OF HEALTH.

Real estate interests were quick to catch the significance of the sanitary survey and turn it to their advantage in ways which incidentally carried the educational campaign that much further. The photographs show the advertisement of a "sanitary property" in the Illinois State Register, and a map-calendar gotten out by the same company.

of this well pollution, the Health Department undertook the sanitary survey of Springfield. It sought to ascertain the prevalence and use of privy vaults and shallow wells and how far this situation was responsible for the excess of typhoid. The five inspectors of the department, during a period of about six weeks and while carrying on their regular work, visited the 9,000 houses and collected data on the following points: the location of each shallow well, the location of each privy vault or cesspool, the number of sewer and water connections for sanitary purposes, and the general sanitary and physical condition of each house.

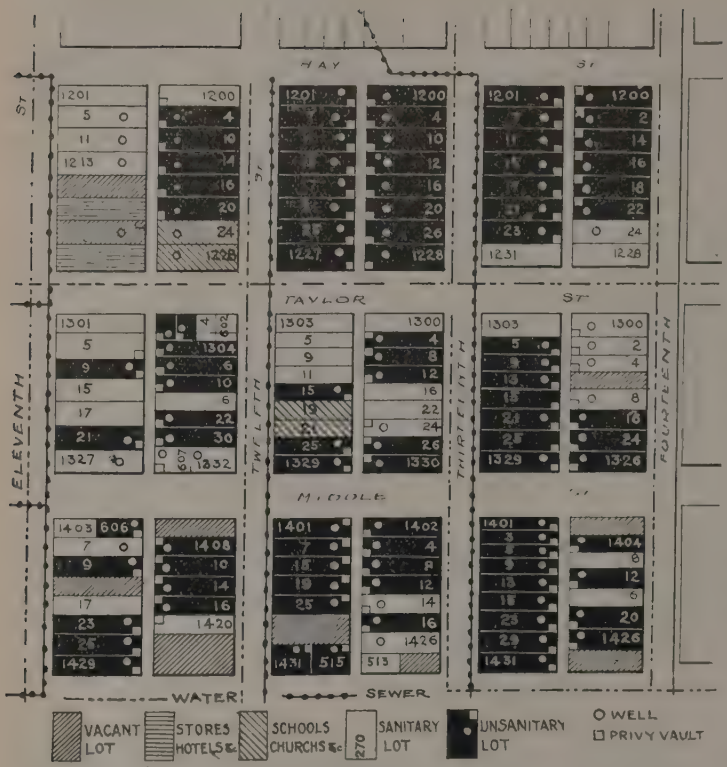
From the data thus secured the sanitary map of Springfield, ten by twelve feet in size, was prepared. Every privy vault was shown by a black hollow square and every well by a black dot. A color scheme indicated all lots on which water and sewer were used for sanitary purposes, all vacant, all business, and all public property, sewers and water mains, and all lots on which there were wells and vaults which were not connected with water and sewer for sanitary purposes. The field inspectors secured in addition much valuable data in regard to housing, unsanitary conditions, etc., not shown on the map but now systematically arranged for the use of the department. A plan is now being perfected to add data on housing conditions in the congested districts of the city. Reproductions of the map, showing only the streets, lots, house numbers, sewers, and water mains, are being prepared for the department's own housing investigations, communicable disease maps, etc., and for the use of the Associated Charities and other social and civic organizations. The complete data were submitted to a board of prominent sanitarians who concurred in the opinion of Dr. Palmer that the excessive prevalence of typhoid fever was due largely to the use of shallow wells polluted by privy vaults. The map was shown to the City Council and the facts were explained. At the request of the Chamber of Commerce, Dr. Palmer told two hundred business men "the truth about Springfield." They gave him a vote of thanks for his study of the situation and en-

A SPRINGFIELD BACKYARD.

Note the garbage thrown from windows. The children are from the house marked "O", which has no windows in the living quarters.

AN UNVENTILATED LODGING HOUSE.

It affords inadequate air space, and practically no ventilation except through roof windows.



A SECTION OF THE MAP.

It shows the graphic method used in describing Springfield's insanitary conditions.

dorsed his recommendations for sanitary reform. The City Council instructed the city attorney to draw up ordinances requiring connection of all new or rebuilt dwellings with sewers and water mains. This passed, the council promptly instructed Dr. Palmer to devise means for the disposal of garbage. Up to this time it had been dumped on vacant property, some of which lies within the city limits and near many homes. An incinerator or reduction plant will promptly be established and garbage collection, now entirely neglected, will be undertaken by the city or under contract.

The organization of a Municipal Tuberculosis Association by the Springfield Associated Charities, the Chamber of Commerce, and the Springfield Woman's Club came next. It has now a membership of over seven hundred. Ample funds have been raised; quarters have been secured for the opening of a tuberculosis dispensary; a trained nurse has been employed, and plans are under way to establish for the first time a system of visiting nursing.

Neither business interest nor public sentiment has given voice to the narrow minded contention that the agitation "hurt the town." In fact, one real estate dealer reproduced the map in a newspaper advertisement, to show that the property he handles is in a desirable, sanitary district. Soon after the results of the investigation became known, an officer of one of the banks stated to Dr. Palmer that he was less inclined to lend money on unsanitary property than he had been in the past.

Springfield's sanitary awakening has thus roused all her people not only to remedy the bad conditions, but to start constructive health efforts of far-reaching significance.

QUICK LUNCHES FOR EFFICIENCY AND HEALTH

ALIDA LATTIMORE
Rochester

The problem of serving lunches to a large number of persons in a limited time has been solved in Rochester. When the East High School was built in 1903 the Board of Education spent as much time and thought in planning and equipping the lunch room as it did in preparing the other laboratories. The large, well ventilated and lighted room on the first floor has a central horseshoe counter fifty-five feet in length and twelve feet in width, supplied with steam and serving tables, milk, chocolate, water tanks, sinks and dish washer. Mission chairs and tables furnish the boys' as well as the girls' side of the room, and any up-to-date restaurant might be proud of the equipment. Here 1,100 students are served with an attractive lunch in twenty minutes. At the newer West High School 900 are served in the same time. As these schools have

but one session, the lunch period is necessarily short.

The success of these two lunch rooms is due to the fact that they have never been run for money profit. The food is bought by the city, prepared by the city, and sold at cost. The kitchens utilize the waste steam from the heating plant for the steam cookers, which are used as much as possible, thus eliminating one item of expense.

Mrs. George A. Hotchkiss, to whose expert management the success of the Rochester High School lunch rooms is due, is a very unusual woman. In addition to her trained intelligence she has an inexhaustible fund of that rare asset—enthusiasm.

The skill and enterprise manifested in the operation of the school lunch rooms soon attracted the attention of the manufacturers in the city who were struggling with the question of producing a higher degree of physical efficiency in their employes. In 1905 the Eastman Kodak Company engaged Mrs. Hotchkiss to install a lunch room similar to those in the high schools in its large factory at Kodak Park. The simple fact that six near-by saloons soon went out of business is only a small part of the story.

Stein, Block and Company were the next to enlist the services of Mrs. Hotchkiss; then followed the German-American Button Company, the Bausch and Lamb Optical Company, and lastly the Adler Clothing Company. Besides planning the details of fixtures, etc., Mrs. Hotchkiss trains the women under whose supervision the lunches are served.

The methods used in schools and factories are much the same—horse-shoe counters, the open end toward the kitchen, are in all these lunch rooms. Behind the counters are the persons who hand out the lunches which are paid for in paper checks, burned after each meal. The checks are purchased at the door. The majority of the servers are employes or students who earn their lunches in this way. Often the customers purchase only a plate of soup or a cup of coffee to supplement the lunch they have brought from home.

One lunch room recently installed has found a table d'hôte lunch the best business proposition, as much waste is avoided by reducing the number of articles furnished in a given day. When the owner of this factory asked Mrs. Hotchkiss to arrange her plans so that she could serve a fifteen-cent table d'hôte lunch, Mrs. Hotchkiss said she could not undertake such a lunch for one hundred people for less than sixteen cents a head except at a loss. She was urged to make the experiment. The plan has proved a great success. Instead of the possible "hundred" expected, 400 employes daily avail themselves of the whole or a part of the generous and delicious lunch provided, and the effect of the hot, nutritious meal is seen at once in the quality of work done and in the improved health of the people.

Too much cannot be said as to the selection of the proper person to have charge of

LUNCH HOUR, WEST HIGH SCHOOL, ROCHESTER.

Colorado Springs Gazette.

A CHAMPION AMONG HIGHWAYMEN.

a lunch room. She must be a well-paid expert. Because a woman is a "good cook" or "has kept a boarding house" is not recommendation enough. She must be a good buyer and a first class organizer. She must have a fund of good humor and be a student of human nature.

When we say that our lunch rooms are run "without loss," we mean that the income from lunches covers the actual running expenses, in some cases the wear and tear, repairs, etc. In only one case is the initial cost of the equipment, or the cost of space, or the interest of the capital invested reckoned as cost of running the lunch room. One cannot, however, measure in mere dollars and cents the "interest on the investment," for all intelligent observers agree that the mental and physical, to say nothing of the moral effects of nutritious food supplied to students and workers in factories and stores, cannot be calculated. The profit is vital and far-reaching, and in many cases surprising. For instance, a German in a large factory, relating what the lunch room had done for him, said that he used to bring his cold lunch from home in a dinner pail. Then at night his wife was obliged to have a hot dinner for him and the children, who had already had their dinner at noon, demanded a share of his. This made it necessary for his wife to serve two dinners each school day. With the new arrangement, having had a light dinner at the factory, he found his wife upon his return home "with her crimping pins out," rested and pleasant. The whole atmosphere of the home had been changed by the factory noon lunch.

WARN, INSTRUCT, CATECHIZE

A special feature of a recent issue of the *Western Review*, a fraternal magazine published in Omaha, Neb., is a symposium on public health, to which W. O. Owen, M. D, and Charles Mulford Robinson contributed articles on a National Department of Health, and Mrs. Florence Kelley, Ellen H. Richards, and Thomas D. Coleman on other health topics. In addition to signed articles, the section contains paragraphs of useful information and advice; for instance, we are told that the state of New York spends for the protection of game, fish, and forest four times more than it does for the protection of health; there is the warning that mild cases of disease spread more contagion than the serious ones; or we are urged "not to hibernate but ventilate," if we want to keep free of colds.

By such means are adults instructed. *School Education* of Minneapolis for February points a lesson for children on the danger to health from flies. The following Fly Catechism is now being distributed to the school children of North Carolina:

1. Where is the Fly born? In manure and filth.

2. Where does the Fly live? In every kind of filth.

3. Is anything too filthy for the Fly to eat? No.

4. (a) Where does he go when he leaves the vault and the manure pile and the spittoon? Into the kichen and dining-room. (b) What does he do there? He walks on the bread, fruit, and vegetables; he wipes his feet on the butter and bathes in the buttermilk.

5. Does the Fly visit the patient sick with consumption, typhoid fever, and cholera infantum? He does—and may call on you next.

6. Is the Fly dangerous? He is man's worst pest, and more dangerous than wild beasts or rattlesnakes.

7. What diseases does the Fly carry? He carries typhoid fever, tuberculosis, and summer complaint. How? On his wings and hairy feet. What is his correct name? Typhoid Fly.

8. Did he ever kill any one? He killed more American soldiers in the Spanish-American War than the bullets of the Spaniards.

9. Where are the greatest number of cases of typhoid fever, consumption, and summer complaint? Where there are the most flies.

10. Where are the most flies? Where there is the most filth.

11. Why should we kill the Fly? Because he may kill us.

12. How shall we kill the Fly? (a) Destroy all the filth about the house and yard: (b) pour lime into the vault and on the manure: (c) kill the Fly with a wire-screen paddle, or sticky paper, or kerosene oil.

13. Kill the Fly in any way, but *kill* the Fly.

14. If there is filth anywhere that you cannot remove, call the office of the Board of Health, and ask for relief before you are stricken with disease and, perhaps, death.

HOSPITAL RECORDS AND THEIR INDUSTRIAL SETTINGS

In an address before the American Academy of Medicine in Buffalo in December, John R. Shillady, secretary of the Buffalo Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis, outlined the thorough record keeping called for by the development of social service to hospitals and dispensaries. The history of a case should cover "not only the immediate physical and pathological causes, but also the less obvious but more fundamental causes that change a citizen and a man to a patient." He seconds Miss Lathrop's criticism of the use of general terms in keeping the record, "'laborer," for instance, throwing no light on the nature of the person's work; and continues:

"Laborer covers a multitude of sins. Was he a painter, and did he come in contact with dangerous poisons? Did he work in a mine underground? Did he work in contact with lead? Did he inhale dust? Did he begin work before his body and mind had a chance to develop? How many hours a day and for how much did he 'labor'? These are important qualifications as to occupation. Our records usually explain little, if anything. Why put occupation at all if we do not write some meaning into our answering notation? Then alcoholism, ignorance, incapacity, accidents, etc., were adverted to by Miss Lathrop to show that our records state usually the outside fact. The real cause often lay behind the weakness of character in insufficient wages, industrial accidents, and like causes. Let us secure the real fact beyond the apparent. . . . As social-medical workers our problem is to care for the wounded and stop the war. We must arouse the public conscience. To do this we must know what we are talking about. Not alone shall we affirm, *a priori*, that certain occupations and conditions are dangerous to health, but our institutional records should be readily accessible data. They must be transformed from histories of individuals to histories of social units. Our work must keep pace with the modern outlook."

With this challenge to the hospitals in mind, the recent report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health is illuminating.

Excessively long hours of labor in tenement homes minus decent sanitary standards, lack of proper ventilation in cigar factories, and slight care taken against the irritating dust in metal polishing and buffing industries are some of the points made by Dr. H. Lindenthal whose work covers the fifth district, including Suffolk county, Boston, and part of the populous adjacent territory. In his inspection of home work Dr. Lindenthal occasionally found women who are employed all day in tailor shops and who take home odd jobs for completion during the night. He characterizes the air in these home work-shops, as "exceedingly foul." "In several instances remaining in the room for five or ten minutes produced dizziness and headache. The air of the bedrooms was found still worse than in the kitchens, which are usually the living rooms." In the cigar factories it was found that the old habit of biting the ends of fillers and finishing cigars by rolling the ends in the mouths of the workers had been discontinued to a large extent. Again Dr. Lindenthal found the ventilation to be very bad. The workrooms were hot and stuffy, the windows closed and the air charged with the odor of tobacco leaves. Exhaust fans and ventilating flumes were installed in some factories and better window ventilation was secured in others. A thorough study was made of establishments where employes are exposed to the dust of metal polishing and buffing. In the majority of cases it was found that emery and buffing wheels were not connected with exhausts and that fine dust filled the air and settled on the workers. Hoods were installed in all factories which did not provide proper devices for protection against this dust. Apparently neither employer nor employed appreciated the danger of working in a metal dust atmosphere.

RHODE ISLAND AND ADVANCED CASES

The results of an intensive investigation of the need for tuberculosis hospital care and segregation are given in the recent report of the Rhode Island Commission on Hospitals for Advanced Cases of Tuberculosis. Because of the state's limited area the commission was able to inquire carefully into the history of a large number of cases. It summarizes its principal findings and recommendations as follows:

"(a) The number of cases reported to the commission is 1,467.

"(b) Segregation is the logical measure for prevention.

"(c) The tuberculosis death rate has declined most, and reached the lowest point, in countries where there has been the most institutional segregation of consumptives.

"(d) Of 102 patients having advanced tuberculosis whose home conditions were investigated in Providence, fifty per cent were unable to occupy a room alone without ob-

jectionable overcrowding of the rest of the family.

"(e) Only 126 out of at least 500 patients in the state having tuberculosis and in urgent need of hospital care are already in hospitals; 374 are outside.

"(f) Of 122 advanced patients in various towns who were asked if they wished to enter a hospital, 72 per cent signed blanks affirmatively.

"(g) The ideal plan for the care of advanced cases of tuberculosis is the segregation of such cases by each city or town within its own limits, either in special hospitals or in separate wards connected with general hospitals. To encourage the erection of such hospitals or wards, we recommend a state appropriation of $200 per hospital bed to each municipality erecting such hospitals or wards, the plans of which receive state approval.

"(h) A hospital, the administrative parts of which allow of its expansion to 200 beds, should be built by the state, 100 beds should be provided at once, and the second hundred beds added as soon as needed to provide room for applicants.

"(i) Towns should pay $5 per week, or one-half the estimated hospital cost, for the care of each patient for whom they are justly chargeable, and cities giving hospital care to patients should be paid $6 per week by the state—$5 plus $1 per week interest on capital invested.

"(j) The teaching of the simple facts concerning the contagion of tuberculosis and its prevention as a part of a course in hygiene in the public schools is recommended.

"(k) An amendment to the law, requiring registration of tuberculosis which will ensure sanitary teaching of all consumptives and their families, is recommended.

"(l) Tuberculosis nurses should be engaged and paid by the towns.

"(m) The thousand deaths from tuberculosis in Rhode Island each year represent an estimated loss of earnings during illness, of $1,653,750; a loss in medical attendance, medicines, and nursing, of $840,000; and a loss through the cutting off of the earning power by death, of $5,880,000, or an estimated total loss of over $8,373,750."

JOTTINGS

LIVING PATIENTS AS DOCTOR'S TEST

In order to limit the supply of ignorant physicians, Dr. Richard C. Cabot in the February number of *New Boston* suggests that candidates for licenses in Massachusetts be obliged to make examinations of living patients. Dr. Cabot says, "We cannot force our medical schools either to do decent work or go out of existence; at least I cannot discover any way to do it. As this remedy is not feasible there is left but one alternative, to make more practical our existing state examinations for the right to practice medicine. They are now mostly written examinations, and any smart boy can pass written medical examinations without any genuine medical knowledge. Six months' study of the cram-books (quiz-compends) will put a boy through. He may never have seen a sick patient, never attended a woman in labor, never dressed a wound, or written a prescription in his life." The State Board of Registration in Medicine has authority to conduct such examinations, but it has not proper facilities and sufficient appropriation to go very far in carrying them out. Dr. Cabot says that "what we need is to impress upon our governor and our Legislature the fact that it is up to them to give the board proper facilities for protecting the community against imposition." At present, "ignorant doctors can do a lot of harm. They can and they do. They fail to recognize contagious disease before it has spread into an epidemic. It might have been checked if recognized early. They fail to recognize at the top of a patient's lung a dangerous disease (tuberculosis) before it has spread and produced advanced phthisis. It might have been checked if recognized early. They fail to recognize an appendicitis before it has spread to produce fatal peritonitis. They let wounds go septic and babies' eyes get blinded by that absolutely preventable disease, gonorrheal ophthalmia. As health officers in most of our cities and towns, they fail to apply principles of preventive hygiene in the shop, the home, the street, and the school. They allow foul air, promiscuous spitting, and windowless sleeping-rooms."

A CITY OF 4,000 DID THIS

A recent report from the Anti-Tuberculosis Committee of Madison, N. J., shows what can be done with limited resources in a town of less than 4,000 inhabitants. The committee's total direct expenditures for 1910 were $426.80. The principal items were for the exhibit campaign, when practically every one in the town was reached, and $165 for the board of three patients. While the committee did not support a nurse, it interested the village officials and another organization in securing one. It has come into close relations with practically every tuberculosis case in the village, and in addition has stimulated a vital interest in tuberculosis and its prevention among school children. Practically every church, lodge, and civic and social organization in the village contributed to the support of the committee.

RED CROSS SEALS SALES

No complete official report on the sale of Red Cross Christmas seals will be available much before July; but a sufficient number of unofficial returns have been received to indicate that the total sale in the United States will reach 40,000,000. Estimates for the sales in a number of the states run as follows: New York, including New York city and Brooklyn, over 9,000,000; Ohio, over 4,000,000; Wisconsin, 3,000,000; Rhode Island, over 1,000,000; Illinois, over 1,000,000; California, over 1,000,000; and Colorado, Connecticut, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, and Virginia, over 500,000 each.

INDUSTRY

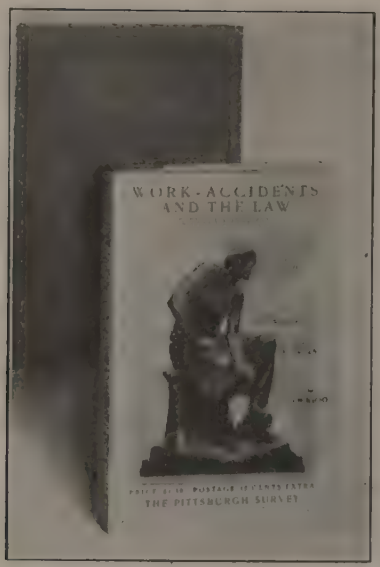
THE OFFICIAL FINDINGS AS TO WORK-ACCIDENTS

With the reports of seven state commissions on the subject coming from the presses within two months, with the Federal Bureau of Labor issuing an encyclopedic two volumes on the foreign laws, and the National Manufacturers' Association announcing a ten-dollar report of its special commissioners, there is tangible evidence in paper and printer's ink of the widespread interest taken in workingmen's compensation legislation.

The past two years has fairly seen a revolution. Willoughby's Workingmen's Insurance represented the situation in Europe and America in 1898, and for ten years it stood as the comprehensive text on the subject. In that decade, so far as statutory reform went, there was great progress abroad; America practically stood still.[1] Economists and students of labor conditions pointed the contrast in fugitive papers and articles, but it may be said that it was not till the end of the decade that public opinion was reached. The partial bibliography in Dr. Frankel's Workingmen's Insurance in Europe shows that Dr. A. F. Weber's review of Industrial Accidents and Employers' Responsibility for their Compensation was published in the report of the New York Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1899, and H. G. Wadlin's The Insurance of Workingmen in the report of the similar Massachusetts bureau in 1901, while Prof. John Graham Brooks published his discussion of Compulsory Insurance in Germany in 1905. The same year there was a special consular report on the subject and the St. Louis Exposition was made the occasion for an elaborate exhibit of the Imperial Insurance Funds by the German government. But it was in 1908-9 that the Federal Bureau of Labor published its bulletins on foreign workmen's compensation acts; in 1909 that Professor Henderson's Industrial Insurance in the United States and Frank W. Lewis's State Insurance appeared; and 1910 is the date borne by Work-Accidents and the Law, by Crystal Eastman; Workingmen's Insurance in Europe, by Frankel and Dawson; and Social Insurance, by Henry R. Seager. These definite contributions to the literature of the subject are now in turn followed by the governmental reports bearing upon legislation, the New York commission's report of 1910 being the advance guard for the present battery of findings.

In the crystallization of the movement which has made this latter stage possible, various briefer writings have had a notable part, for example, those of Frederick Hoffman and Arthur B. Reeve; William Hard's Making Steel and Killing Men in *Everybody's* for November, 1907; the group of articles in *Charities and The Commons* for December, 1907, which presented the gist of Professor Henderson's paper before the Philadelphia Conference of Charities and Correction, and Francis H. McLean's report to the New York conference; Miss Eastman's study of the master and servant decisions in *Charities and The Commons* for March, 1908, and the subsequent installments of her findings as to industrial accidents for the Pittsburgh Survey; papers by Dr. Farnam, Dr. Henderson, Dr. Lorenz, and others before the early sessions of the American Association for Labor Legislation, and the utterances of various Wisconsin and Illinois men associated with the early stages of the movement in those states.

[1] It should be noted, however, that by the end of the period fully thirty states had modified their statutes as to the fellow servant rule or other defences under the common law of master and servant, and in 1908 a federal law was passed which combined nearly all these changes. Special mention is due the Pennsylvania mining law of 1891, since declared unconstitutional, which held mine owners responsible for all accidents where requirements in regard to inspection had not been fulfilled, and the Nebraska statute which held railroads liable for accidents to all passengers including employes. Maryland, in 1902, made the first radical departure from the old negligence principle in its compensation law, declared unconstitutional two years later. It was not until 1909 that the next step came in the passage of the Montana mining act which put accident payment on the basis of trade hazard and provided for a contributory insurance fund to be met by a tax of one cent a ton on mine owners and one per cent of weekly earnings of employes to meet the accident payments of $3,000 in case of death, one dollar a day in case of injury and an additional lump sum of $1,000 for loss of eye or limb. Before this act went into effect, the New York law of May, 1910, which put a group of hazardous trades on a compulsory compensation basis, had been signed by Governor Hughes and Maryland had passed a second compensation law. The New York, Minnesota, and Wisconsin commissions were all appointed in 1909; the Connecticut and Illinois commissions preceded them, the Massachusetts commission of the nineties being the pioneer in this field.



TWO BOOKS WHICH ARE MAKING HISTORY.

The Frankel and Eastman volumes—the former, an effective *résumé* of European legislation and administration brought up to 1910; the latter the first concrete analysis of the actual working out of the old common law in an American industrial district.

In THE SURVEY of March 4, P. Tecumseh Sherman discussed the bills covering industrial accidents proposed by the seven state commissions thus far reporting this year. These reports[1] vary greatly in contents, ranging in length from twenty-five pages to 400. The Washington, Massachusetts, and New Jersey commissions had less than a year to prepare their work, and in consequence depend to a great extent on the material collected by other commissions.

The Washington report prints a brief of the attorney of the commission. Besides considering the law from the point of view of the police power, the right of the employer to the three common law defences, of the employe to sue, of both to jury trial, liberty of contract, and the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment, this brief covers the special constitutional questions involved in establishing the separate state department required by the insurance provision in the bill.

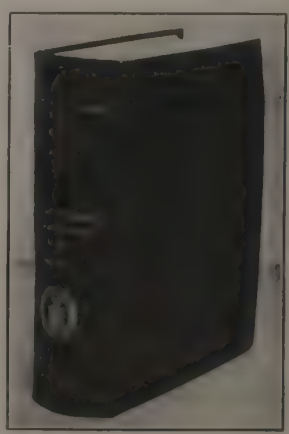
The Massachusetts commission, for which Carroll W. Doten acted as chief investigator, presents a short summary of compensation and industrial insurance legislation in Europe and America, tells briefly of the conferences and public hearings and of the character of the sources of statistical information available within the commonwealth, and gives tables of 2,849 accidents gathered from these sources.

The New Jersey report contains, besides the proposed law, a brief history of the work of the commission, a short discussion of the three defences in the common law, appendices giving the discussion and the drafts of uniform codes by the Chicago Conference of Commissioners on Compensation (November, 1910), and an address on the subject of compensation by William B. Dickson, chairman of the commission, vice-president of the United States Steel Corporation, who is performing this public service as a resident of Montclair, N. J.

A preliminary statement on the Wisconsin Commission was summarized in THE SURVEY of April 9, 1910. The present report, is that presented, with its bill, by the special committee on industrial insurance. It contains, besides very full notes on the bill, a brief general statement of the work of the committee, the counsel's analysis of the bill and numerous statistical tables of accidents, under wage loss, cause of injury, length of disability and other classifications.

The Minnesota report gives the accident figures of the state commissioner of labor for the five years ending July, 1909. Incidentally the report calls attention to work-accidents in agriculture, which as a hazardous trade has not hitherto received much attention in this country. During the month of November, 1910, forty-seven hands were lost in corn shedders. Following a short study of Minnesota accidents is an outline of the growth of the present system of liability, a summary of European legislation on industrial accidents and of advanced legislation, court decisions, and private benefit associations in the United States, with a brief consideration of costs, insurance, and the constitutional questions.

A useful volume in connection with the Minnesota report is Part II of the Seventeenth Biennial Report of the State Bureau of Labor, Industries and Commerce in which Don D. Lescohier makes a study with tables of the 8,671 industrial accidents reported to the bureau during the year ending July 31, 1910, analyzing the



VOLUME I OF THE FEDERAL REPORT.

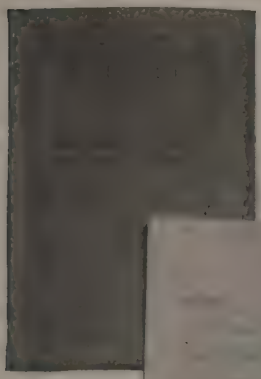
Workmen's Insurance and Compensation Systems in Europe; issued as the Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the United States Commissioner of Labor.

[1] See opposite page.

THE 1911 REPORTS

OFFICIAL FINDINGS OF EIGHT STATES

ON EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY AND WORKINGMEN'S COMPENSATION



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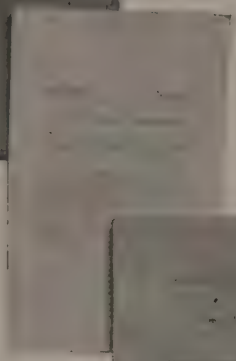

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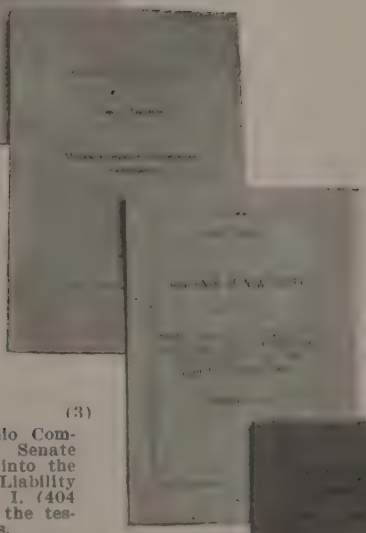

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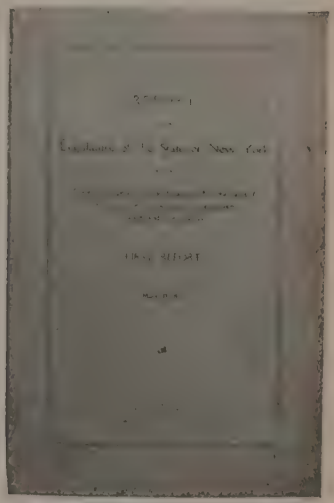


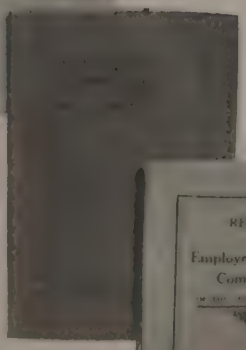
The New York Report of 1910 —the advance guard both in published findings and in enacted legislation.

(1) Report of the Ohio Commission appointed under Senate bill No. 250, to inquire into the question of Employers' Liability and other matters. Part I. (404 pages.) Part II contains the testimony given at hearings.
James Harrington Boyd, chairman.
William J. Roha, secretary, Cincinnati, O.

(2) Report of the Commission on Compensation for Industrial Accidents of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts (25 pages).
James A. Lowell, chairman.
Amos T. Saunders, secretary, Clinton, Mass.

(3) Report of Minnesota Employes' Compensation Commission (289 pages).
H. V. Mercer, chairman, St. Paul.

(4) Message of the governor of New Jersey transmitting to the Legislature the report of the Commission on Employers' Liability, etc. (91 pages).
William B. Dickson, chairman.
Albert A. Snowden, secretary, Trenton.



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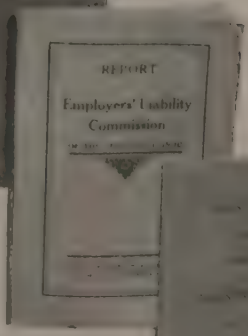

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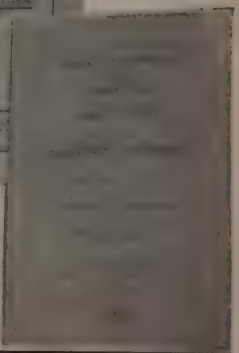

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(5) Report of the Special Committee on Industrial Insurance of the Wisconsin Commission on Compensation (98 pages).
A. W. Sanborn, chairman.
Paul J. Watrous, secretary, Madison, Wis.

(6) Report of the Employers' Liability Commission of the State of Illinois (249 pages).
Edwin R. Wright, secretary, 317 Fisher Building, Chicago.

(7) Report of the Commission appointed by the Legislature of Washington to investigate the problems of industrial accidents and to draft a bill on subject of em-

general causes and then taking up the accidents grouped under special industries with the causes peculiar to those industries. Further reference will be made to Mr. Lescohier's distinctive contribution in some future issue. The report also reviews the general principles underlying the common law with a study of the Minnesota law as it works in particular cases, including tables of some three hundred cases.

Though public opinion in Ohio has been interested in industrial accidents for some time and in May of last year the state Legislature passed an improved liability bill, outlined in THE SURVEY of July 9, 1910, the commission only began its work last August. It has presented an excellent report on the general subject, embodying the proposed law, an outline of the Ohio law, and a very careful study with statistical tables of industrial accidents in Cuyahoga county, O. The conclusions in regard to fatal accidents, which were most fully studied, follow:

(1) A settlement was made in 36 per cent of the cases. In practically all an amicable settlement was made, in some cases after the institution of the suit.

(2) The amounts received varied from funeral expenses to $5,000. The average amount was $958. Of the total amount paid out for the 370 accidents in which compensation was secured over one-half was paid to 12 per cent of the cases.

(3) Approximately one-fourth the amount received was paid out as fees and costs.

(4) The average time required for a settlement was one year, one and a half months.

(5) 56 per cent of the widows visited by the commission and 18 per cent of the children were forced to earn a livelihood as the result of the accident.

The report covers also a brief on the constitutional question, a minority report and bill presented by W. J. Winans, and about four hundred pages of appendix, which brings together practically all advanced legislation on industrial accidents as well as other interesting material. In a separate volume (Part II) are published the minutes of the evidence and record of public hearings.

The Illinois report presents an intensive study of local conditions very suggestive to future state commissions. It covers the attorney's report on the present law of Illinois and on the constitutionality of the proposed statute. The report considers the relation of the trade unions to improved legislation, and follows the record of industrial accidents under the present law, through the courts, the Labor Bureau, the Cook County Coroners' Record, and the various charitable agencies. It also presents an excellent and painstaking separate study of each of the principal industries—coal mining, railroads, and manufacturing—covering as far as possible the extent of the industry, number of employés, percentage injured and increase with the annual increase of the industry, precautions used to prevent injuries, private insurance or compensation systems, cost of accidents, and an estimate of what the expense would be under the proposed bill. In view of the Cherry accident, as well as the known danger of coal mining, the study of the Illinois coal mines is particularly interesting. In 1897 the output of the mines was 20,072,758 tons, the number of miners 33,788 of whom 69 men were killed and 292 seriously injured. In 1909 the output was 49,163,710 tons, number of miners 72,733, number killed 213, injured 894—figures which represent an increase in output of 145 per cent, in men employed of only 115 per cent, and in men killed 208 per cent, in injured 206 per cent. The report contains many valuable tables.

While, as Mr. Sherman showed in his review, the various state commissions are far from united in their recommendations as to the way out, their verdict as to the present intolerable status of the injured workman under the common law is clear and inexorable.

Through an examination of court records and attorneys' books the Illinois commission discovered that of 614 fatal cases, from which full and accurate reports were secured, only 24 were successfully settled in court and 204 were not settled at all. Returns from all liability companies doing business in Illinois, during ten years, show the payment of indemnities to have been 16 per cent during the first year; 37 per cent the second; 20 per cent the third; 14 per cent the fourth; and the remaining 13 per cent during the six succeeding years. On this point the commission says:

"The wonder arises how any sane community can find words to defend such a snail-like method of procedure. At the moment of greatest strain, when aid is needed, when the panic is at its height, when the children are taken from school and put to work, the present system withholds assistance unless the family will accept blindly the terms that are offered."

The commission concludes:

"But this outline, convenient for certain purposes, scarcely hints at the situation which the commission found. It gives no idea of the suffering and hardship which our investigations disclosed; it tells nothing of the long and tedious fights, of the inequitable verdicts, the delays and uncertainties of the law; it scarcely suggests the unequal character of the struggle between the claim agents and the families of the deceased breadwinner. But almost every individual case reflected some aspect or other of this sort, driving home to the members of the commission the conviction that the present system was unjust, hopeless and inadequate, and wasteful, the cause of enormous suffering, of much disrespect for law, and of a badly distributed burden upon society."

Outside these state findings, this spring sees the publication of the National Manufac-

turers' 400 page volume, with 100 pages of illustrations and colored charts. The authors, Ferd. C. Schwedtman and James A. Emery, cover the subjects of both accident prevention and relief, with special attention to the systems of England and Germany. Special features include a study of German accident prevention, of different forms of insurance and of the comparative hazard of industry and agricultural labor. The volume has been announced as an interpretation of the economic and practical aspects of the accident problem from the standpoint of the progressive employer. Mr. Schwedtman has been a leading spirit in the work of arousing the National Manufacturers' Association to an interest in the subject.

But the most formidable addition—in bulk at any rate, for it covers almost 1,500 pages—to the literature of industrial accidents is the Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Federal Commissioner of Labor, which is the first volume of an encyclopedic report on Workmen's Insurance and Compensation Systems of Europe. This takes up in elaborate detail the systems of accident, sickness, invalidity, and old age insurance of Austria (chapter by Henry J. Harris), Belgium (by E. H. Lewinski-Corwin), Denmark (by J. E. Pope), France and Germany (Mr. Harris). The second volume, not yet published, will include Great Britain (L. D. Clark), Italy (T. M. Rubinow), Norway (Mr. Pope), Russia (Mr. Rubinow), Spain (Mr. Rubinow), and Sweden (H. O. Hanson). Acknowledgment of work on several chapters is accorded C. A. Bell and the general editorial supervision was done by Charles H. Verrill. A valuable supplementary contribution is Bulletin No. 99 of the same bureau, in which Frederick L. Hoffman presents a careful study of accidents in coal mining in the decade ending with 1908. Lindley D. Clark summarizes recent action on liability and compensation in America and gives a brief account of foreign legislation, and Miles M. Dawson discusses the cost of employers' liability and of workmen's compensation insurance.

The forthcoming report of the federal commission appointed last spring, together with reports of the Missouri, Montana, Maryland and other recent state commissions yet to be heard from, makes the present grist of findings, bulky as they are, but the forerunners of further official literature; just as the proceedings of the three National Conferences on Workmen's Compensation for Industrial Accidents (July, 1909, January and June, 1910), which have been widely distributed, were, no less than the papers and books referred to, the precursors of the present reports.

STANDARDIZATION OF SAFETY

FRANCIS H. BIRD
University of Wisconsin

In the early winter twenty-two insurance inspectors representing seven large American and one English insurance company doing business in Wisconsin met in conjunction with the state factory inspectors at Milwaukee to discuss the standardization of safety devices in factories and other industrial establishments. The purpose of the meeting was twofold—first, to see what action could be taken toward making more effective that part of the Wisconsin factory law which provides for the safeguarding of machinery; second, to secure better co-operation between insurance and factory inspectors.

The meeting was most successful. Commissioner Beck of the Wisconsin Bureau of Labor briefly outlined a plan of procedure, suggesting a careful analysis of conditions in each industry in order to ascertain just what operations were dangerous and what kind of safeguards were advisable. It was decided first to take up the lumber, and then the metal and textile industries.

Some interesting facts were brought to light about conditions in the lumber industry. Many of the accidents in the logging country happen while the men are loading or unloading logs, or working around the skidways, and are directly due to chains breaking or grab-hooks spreading. If proper care were taken of these chains such accidents could be avoided; but as they are never annealed they crystallize, thus losing their strength. When they break, a frequent occurrence, they are mended with hay wire. In view of these facts the following resolution was passed:

All chains used in connection with logging operations, whether for loading, unloading, or binding logs in any way, should be annealed every six months. At the time of annealing each claim should be stenciled and a record kept of same in a card index. A standard grab-hook should be used in all logging operations.

A second meeting was held in mid-January and was attended not only by the factory and insurance inspectors, but by representatives of large Wisconsin manufacturing interests who expressed their desire to co-operate. At this meeting considerable ground was covered in brief as follows:

Owing to the fact that it is particularly dangerous for employes in sawmills to pass by the saw carriages which are often placed too close to the walls or uprights of a mill, a resolution was passed that a space of at least thirty inches be allowed between the foot-board of the carriage and any fixed object, thus insuring a minimum space for passageway

It is very difficult to guard saws because

their operation demands freedom of action; but it was shown how band saws, slasher saws, circular rip saws, trimmers, knee bolters, shapers, joiners, stickers,—all could be properly guarded. Screens hung from above and down in front of the edgers were recommended to protect the operatives from flying chips and splinters. Much trouble has been experienced in feeding the planer machines, because whenever one piece of material thicker than another is put into one of the machines it "kicks back", often injuring the machine tender. Since the substitution of sectional rolls for the solid roll now commonly used would remove this danger, such action was recommended. Boring machine tenders often catch their clothing on the small set-screws, thus mutilating an arm or a leg. These screws should either be removed or guarded. Sanders, too, are extremely dangerous. Employes often lose fingers reaching in the back part of the sander table for small work. It was moved to eliminate this danger by the use of an extension table.

Proper guards for shafting and freight elevators were next discussed and resolutions adopted. The fact was brought out that since it is extremely hazardous to climb along timbers and beams in close proximity to dangerous machinery, it is as necessary to provide adequate oiling platforms as it is to guard the machinery. In place of the present law which provides for the stopping of machinery by signals in case of emergency, it was thought advisable to have a law which would require the placing of clutch pulleys or other devices for the stopping of machinery in each department of a manufacturing establishment. A committee was appointed to investigate the matter of machinery from its original production to its final installation in the factory; and the meeting was adjourned.

The third meeting, held the last week in February, was especially interesting, because in addition to members of the Merchants and Manufacturers' Association of Milwaukee and leading business men of Beloit, representatives from the International Harvester Company of Illinois were present. R. W. Campbell, safety device expert for the International Harvester Company, gave an instructive, illustrated lecture on proper safety devices, the result of an intensive study of the methods of safeguarding dangerous machinery. He was followed by C. W. Price of the same company, who talked at length on sanitation in factories. Among other things he showed how fumes from drying labels in foundries and the oil smoke from furnaces, at present injurious to the health of employes, can be drawn off by sanitary methods. A discussion of machinery in the metal trades followed, but because of lack of time it was decided to take the matter up at length in the next meeting to be held in the latter part of March. It was encouraging to note that at this meeting the Wisconsin manufacturers took a leading part, and left with the avowed intention of seriously considering the immediate adoption in their factories of many of the suggestions offered.

If Wisconsin is successful in this attempt to embody in her factory law a clause providing for the standardization of safety devices she will have taken a significant step forward in the matter of progressive factory administration. At present the Wisconsin law provides that "proper safeguards" shall be installed in those factories where there is dangerous machinery, "when deemed necessary" by the factory inspectors. Herein lies the chief weakness of the law, for, conscientious though a factory inspector may be, until he has some standard by which to gauge his inspection, he cannot do efficient work. As long as the determination of what is and what is not a "proper safeguard" is left to his discretion he is liable to discriminate, and he does unwittingly, in favor of this or that employer. No two factory inspectors interpret the law alike. Although each may be a mechanical expert, both may prescribe different guards for the same type of machine. Thus there is no co-ordination among the inspectors, no definite policy. Furthermore, the more discretion the inspector has the more likely is he to be influenced by the factory owner. Granting that he is strictly honest and immune to bribery, if the employer assures him that he intends to remedy conditions in the near future, but at present business is dull and his finances are in bad shape, he is apt to overlook an unguarded belt here or an unprotected shaft there. Whereas, if the law definitely prescribed a standard guard for that belt or shaft, even if the employer were on the verge of bankruptcy, it would be the inspector's duty to require that such guards be installed.

What is true of the factory inspector is more true of the employer. His conception of a "proper safeguard" seldom coincides with that of the inspector or even with that of another employer. There is a great difference of opinion as to what is safe and what is dangerous. In one factory it may be considered a necessary measure of safety to guard such machinery as cogwheels, set screws, shafting, fly wheels, tumbling rods, etc., while in another shop the same kind of machinery may remain unguarded. The owner or manager of the second shop argues that, since there have been no accidents in his establishment, none of the unguarded machinery is dangerous. When an

employer adopts this attitude, unless the law specifically provides that a certain machine be guarded in a certain way, it is almost impossible to compel him to install proper guards. In order then to have the law effective, provision must be made for the adoption of a uniform standard of safety devices. Not only should dangerous machinery be considered as such, but a standard device for each machine should definitely be designated.

Such a standardization of safety devices would be advantageous to the employer or manufacturer, at least to the employer or manufacturer of the better class, for it would compel all manufacturers to comply with the minimum requirements. At present the manufacturer who safeguards his machinery as the law intends he should, has to compete with the man who leaves his machinery unguarded. If both are producing the same article at the same cost of manufacture, it is very evident that the latter has an unfair advantage over the former. Thus often the less efficient manufacturer can successfully compete with the more efficient manufacturer. By fixing certain minimum requirements, then, for all manufacturers, much of the present unfair, unhealthy competition would be eliminated. Not only would the employer benefit by this equalization of the cost of providing safeguards, but at the outset, when building his factory, he could equip his plant with standard guards much more cheaply than if he were required to make expensive additions after his machinery was installed.

The insurance companies would profit if safety devices were standardized, and those doing business in Wisconsin realize that fact. At present the insurance inspector is informed by the owner of the factory, when making his inspection, that the factory inspector who has just been there has found everything in satisfactory condition; and in turn the factory inspector is told the same story. The employer plays one against the other. Then, too, often an insurance inspector insists that a manufacturer adopt a certain safeguard if he wishes to keep his insurance. The manufacturer becomes indignant, withdraws from the company which the inspector represents, to insure with some inferior company which is less particular regarding the risk it carries. It is evident then that the better class of insurance companies, as well as the better class of employers, would benefit if safety devices were standardized.

ILLINOIS FACTORY INSPECTION CONFERENCE

JOHN C. KENNEDY

At a conference held at the Chicago Public Library Building, February 25, a movement was initiated to secure more efficient factory inspection in Illinois. Representatives were present from the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, the Illinois Federation of Labor, the Illinois State Legislature, the State Factory Inspector's Department, the Consumers' League, the State Civil Service Association, the Women's Trade Union League, the American Association for Labor Legislation, the State Federation of Women's Clubs, and other associations.

Professor Freund of the American Association for Labor Legislation presided, and opened the conference by pointing out the advantage of discussing measures for labor legislation and the administration of labor laws from every point of view before presenting them to the state Legislature for enactment. The Legislature is much more ready to consider and enact measures which have been approved by all parties concerned than those which come directly from some interested party. C. J. Piez of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, E. R. Wright, president of the Illinois Federation of Labor, and Mary Wilmarth, president of the Consumers' League spoke on factory inspection from the standpoints of manufacturer, worker, and consumer; E. T. Davies, chief factory inspector of Illinois, from that of the factory inspector, and Mrs. Raymond Robbins, president of the Women's Trade Union League, from that of the women workers. Edgar Bancroft of the Civil Service Association emphasized the importance of bringing the State Factory Inspection Department under the civil service rules. Miss Haas, a factory inspector from Ohia, told something of the operations of the Factory Inspection Department in that state, and emphasized the need of women in the service. Dr. Alice Hamilton of the Occupational Diseases Investigation Commission pointed out the need for expert sanitary engineers in the factory inspection department.

After the discussion had closed, Mary E. McDowell, chairman of the industrial committee of the State Federation of Women's Clubs, who took the initiative in organizing the conference, offered the following resolution:

Whereas, the state of Illinois in the last few years has made important additions to its legislation for the protection of women and children in industrial life, and the health and safety of workers in various occupations, and

Whereas new legislation makes additional demands upon the departments of the state charged with the administration of labor laws, and

Whereas adequate and intelligent administration, while it tends to remove the grievance of unfair competition, at the same time improves conditions of production and thus is in the long run equally beneficial to employers and employes,

Therefore be it resolved:

1. That the administration of the labor laws of Illinois should be placed on a basis equal to the highest standards set in this country or in Europe.

2. That all state departments dealing with labor and industry should be organized with a view to more perfect co-operation and increased public service, especially in the matter of investigations and reports.

3. That these departments should be adequately officered on the basis of ascertained training and merit.

4. That the Legislature be respectfully urged to make adequate appropriations for all these departments, and to extend the state civil service law so as to include these departments in the classified civil service of the state.

This resolution was adopted by unanimous vote, and a motion was carried that a committee be appointed to carry its provisions into effect. The points which were chiefly emphasized throughout the conference, and upon which all the speakers seemed to agree, were the following:

1. That labor legislation without an adequate force of administrators and inspectors is largely ineffective.

2. That the present force of administrators and inspectors in the state of Illinois is entirely too small to do the work already required, and in view of the fact that new burdens are constantly being placed upon this department by new legislation the force should be doubled or trebled at once.

3. That there is special need of efficient factory inspection in Illinois because of the large number of ignorant and unorganized immigrants in our industries who are in especial need of protection, and whose views of American laws and institutions will be determined very largely by the efficiency with which the laws meant for their protection are enforced.

4. That the state factory inspection department should be absolutely non-political. Its duties consist of scientific investigation and compilation of statistics, and the impartial and intelligent enforcement of labor legislation. Therefore, appointments and tenure of office should depend solely upon merit, and this department should be brought under the classified civil service.

5. That it should be the function of factory inspectors not only to discover violations of the law but to instruct employers and workingmen how to comply with the law and how to avoid dangers incidental to various industrial processes.

6. That all inspectors should be familiar with the industries with which they are concerned; women as well as men should be employed on the inspecting force; and a corps of sanitary engineers and experts on devices to prevent industrial accidents and diseases should be made a part of the regular force of inspectors.

7. That sufficient salaries should be paid to secure and hold high-grade workers in the factory inspection department.

One of the most satisfactory features of the conference was the fact that all the organizations concerned seemed ready to co-operate to bring about these much needed reforms. The great majority of the workers and their representatives of course welcome every improvement in the factory inspection department. The progressive employers likewise agree that an efficient department is needed not only to protect the workers, but also to protect the humane, law-abiding employers from the unfair competition of unscrupulous employers who try to evade the provisions of the law. The employers also realize that trained, competent inspectors who understand their business are much to be preferred to incompetent bunglers whose recommendations are likely to be expensive to the employers and worthless to the employes.

The recommendations of this conference will be placed before the state Legislature immediately, and their adoption will probably depend largely upon favorable consideration by the committee on appropriations of which Mr. Shanahan is chairman, and by the committee on civil service of which Mr. Hull is chairman. Communications sent at once to the members of these committees, urging favorable consideration of these propositions, will be of material assistance in securing the passage of this desirable legislation.

JOTTINGS

ORGANIZED LABOR'S ANNUAL WAY-MARK

The full text of the proceedings of the St. Louis session of the American Federation of Labor furnishes many and varied evidences of a settled order of procedure along legitimate lines of organized effort. This is coincident with the expansion of the federation to include a larger proportion of the trades and of the people employed in them.

By adding last year 218,229 members in 2,157 new local unions, the American Federation of Labor increased the number of the rank and file in its affiliated bodies to 1,744,444, a total never reached before in its thirty years of existence. Its steady growth in paid up membership during the past fourteen years is indicative of the permanency and solidity of the organization. From 264,825 in 1897 they rose to 1,676,200 in 1904, fluctuating during the

next five years between a loss of 181,900 one year and a gain of 250,144 another.

The foreword of President Gompers's review of the past year is a defense of trades unionism against the "narrowness" charged by those whose panaceas for all social ailments it refuses to follow. While attesting its conservatism in this respect, he lost an opportunity to rebuke the jealous disposition of most unions to hold their leaders and members narrowly within the bounds of the organization's business interests and fellowship. Only those leaders whose personal influence and official position are strong enough to warrant them in asserting their independence dare participate in other movements or affiliations. Few of these escape the criticism to which even such a well loved and trusted leader as John Mitchell has been subjected because of his connection with the National Civic Federation. Because the national convention of the American Federation of Labor and its officers take a broader view of the relations of the labor movement to other human interests, it appeals more effectively to its larger constituency than many unions of the trades do to the people in their trades and to the citizens in their local communities.

PENDING OFFICIAL INVESTIGATIONS

The federation is also showing increasing insight into the need for knowing actual conditions through prompt and co-operative official investigations.

The bearing of vital statistics upon prevention of child labor thus led to its demand for a thorough registration and complete record of births. The bearing of industrial education upon apprenticeship prompted the appointment of a commission whose report last year led to the request for a government investigation of the whole subject by the Department of Commerce and Labor. This is now nearing completion.

In the field of industrial accidents, the "automatic compensation" and the employers' liability acts of Congress in 1908 were followed in June, 1910, by the appointment of a congressional commission to investigate all the facts relative both to compensation and liability and to report to Congress through the president in December, 1911. The investigations of national and state commissions should furnish a basis for uniform legislation in this field; and in the solution of this great national problem of equitably distributing the personal and family losses due to industrial casualties and occupational diseases the co-operation of the organizations of labor and of employers' associations will be a vital factor.

SAUCE FOR GOOSE—SAUCE FOR GANDER

The sympathetic action of all the Chicago newspapers in standing together to defend one of them is strangely parallel to the sympathetic strike which all of them have vigorously opposed. An ill-advised strike of the compositors on the Hearst papers, which was promptly repudiated by the International Typographical Union officials, prevented the printing of more than four pages of the Hearst papers. Although the results of the first direct primary for the city election were to be published the next day, all the morning and evening papers (except the *Daily Socialist*) printed only four pages. In explanation to their readers they denied having any trouble with their own employes, but stated that they had acted in accordance with an agreement to stand together. While they had never before been known to agree or co-operate with the Hearst journals, now "the injury of one was the concern of all." More promptly and unitedly than their employes had ever gone out in a sympathetic strike, these publishers, without claiming any grievance of their own, made common cause with their "friend, the enemy."

STRIKE TO UNIONIZE TELEPHONE SERVICE

The determined attempt to unionize all the employes of the Chicago Telephone Company threatens to tie up the whole system and precipitate a long and complicated struggle. Much of the construction work has all along been done by union labor, but the company has drawn the line at the traffic department and the inside repairing and office work. The grievance which occasioned the strike is the discharge of fifteen men for secretly joining a union and for trying to unionize others. Upon the refusal to reinstate them, linemen, repair men, cable splicers and helpers, installers, testers, and jumper men struck in such numbers as to embarrass, but not yet seriously to paralyze the system. The struggle, after a fortnight's preliminary skirmishing, has centered down upon the effort to unionize the operators The Chicago Federation of Labor and the Women's Trade Union League have united their forces in the attempt. The girls have indicated no dissatisfaction and presented no grievances. The first appeal came to them for sympathy with the men out on strike and to organize to help them. The company's well-founded claim of good conditions for its great operating force of young girls and women, and its special provision for their health, comfort, fellowship, and well being is supplemented by its plea against organizing so many temporarily employed young girls, with a sympathetic strike as the occasion. In justification of unionizing them, the representatives of organized labor plead the general advantages of organization in educating all workers to a broader view of their own and others' interests, in strengthening each one and all together to advance their rights, and to defend themselves from wrongs, and in developing the fellowship and freedom of their craft and of the working class. The long suffering public meanwhile again raises the question, why these issues between employers and employes, especially in the service of public utilities, cannot be settled without invading the rights and interfering with the interests of the innocent third party.

CRIME AND ITS CURE

ISABEL C. BARROWS, Contributing Editor

THE OPEN COURT

The house-cleaning, physical and spiritual, which the city of New York began six months ago in her minor courts, has proved helpful in many directions. An excellent description of what has been accomplished is given in a recent New York *Tribune* (February 12) by Chief Magistrate McAdoo. Referring to the changes in the court room itself he says:

"Instead of the bridge, we have today the setting of any ordinary court of justice. The judge sits alone behind the rail. Where the bridge used to be there is a big rectangular table, as wide as an ordinary desk is long, and it is screwed down to the floor, so that it cannot be moved to make a passage. Nobody gets nearer to the magistrate than the outer edge of that table. If I had my way that would be edged with broken glass like an orchard wall; we'd put spikes on it or teasers like a cat's—anything that will keep the lawyers away.

"Directly in front of the rail, to one side, is a raised witness chair. The court reporter sits at a table facing the witness. The prisoner, the complainant, lawyers, and witnesses waiting to be called sit or stand before the table. There is plenty of room so all can be heard. Any one who can be heard by the judge can be heard by everybody else.

"And that is all there is to hear. There are no complaint clerks in the court room, no lines of people waiting, no papers to rustle except the papers in the case in hand, no conversation except that before the magistrate. To judge by your ears, you would never believe that this was still the same kind of court.

"For complaints a separate room has been provided. For one thing, that means more room in the court itself. For another thing, it means that complaints as well as hearings in open court get businesslike and dignified attention. There are no more long delays and there is no more tipping of attendants to have cases advanced. For another thing, it means privacy for cases that do not come to a hearing. After a great deal of opposition, the Board of Magistrates passed a rule requiring that no persons shall be allowed in the complaint room at any time except these specified persons: complainants, defendants, counsel accompanying complainants or defendants, and counsel expressly sent for by complainants or defendants. . . .

"By no means the least of the improvements was the separation of men and women prisoners, both in trial and in detention pens. Formerly the cells, most of them of open iron-work, were placed so that any sound would carry from one end of the place to the other, from the furthest of the men's cells to the furthest of the women's. . . .

"Under the old system the rules, thirty-six of them, were in a book. Nowadays the rules are printed in big type on a card and hung up in every court. Here they are:

"Rule 1 prescribes the order of the day's business, which the presiding magistrate may alter according to his judgment, except that the hearing of complaints not taken by the clerk must invariably open and close the session. Rule 2 names seven books which shall be kept in each court.

"Rule 3 reads: 'No person other than an officer attached to this court shall go near the detention pens. No person other than an officer or clerk attached to this court, complainants or defendants, or counsel accompanying or sent for by complainants or defendants shall be allowed in the complaint room at any time. No person shall speak to another in the court room, halls or rooms adjacent thereto, inquiring as to his or her business, recommending lawyers, offering professional cards or proffering any kind of advice or instruction.' Rule 4 requires that discharge papers shall be sent to this office and filed here. Rule 5 prescribes the method of amending the rules." . . .

One very small change has added to the dignity of the courts. When the court is about to open, an attendant enters and says, as in the higher courts, "Arise, the judge." The persons who are waiting on the benches outside the grill: lawyers, complainants, witnesses and visitors, rise. The magistrate enters, wearing his back robe, and when he has taken his place behind the rail the attendant says, "Be seated", and the business of the court goes on.

This was not a part of the scheme of reorganization. One of the magistrates tried it one day and it seemed such a natural and effective thing to do that the others adopted it. It appeals especially to the foreign born, of whom there are so many who come before these courts. The first thing the judge does when he takes his seat is to announce to the court room, "If there are any persons present whose complaints have not been taken by the clerk, if they come forward they will be heard."

These are the purely physical changes. There is one which is both physical and moral. Instead of policemen, the court has today special attendants who wear the court's uniform and are responsible to the court, and to the court alone. When he was police commissioner Magistrate McAdoo bitterly opposed the practice of detailing policemen to act as ushers in the minor courts. He says of the change:

"The practice tied up some 120 men in work that did not rightly belong to any police officer. They are responsible to the Police Department, not to the courts, and yet the department could not possibly keep any proper supervision over them, for their duties were quite apart from department business. The assignments were eagerly sought after, both because the work was easy and because the opportunity for graft was great. The men who held the positions were usually men with pull. These policemen were the men with whom the prisoner came in direct contact, the only persons to whom he could appeal for advice or help. Of course they abused their privileges.

"If a prisoner had money, or friends who had money, the gang usually managed to get a good share of it. They worked in collusion with the shyster lawyers who hung around the courts, recommended them to prisoners, and even bullied prisoners into employing them.

"Our present attendants are civil service employes, and they are directly responsible to this office—to the chief magistrate of the Board of City Magistrates. There are sixty-five of them. We examined those who were reported to us as eligible as to their character, antecedents, health, and experience, and we have picked a very creditable body of men. Instead of being old and superannuated, they are particularly intelligent, ambitious young men, honest, polite to citizens, clean and neat in appearance and amenable to discipline.

"Some of the magistrates feared that only a policeman would have the prestige necessary to preserve order in court. That might have been true of the old courts, where almost everybody in the place was committing a nuisance against the ears and nerves of everybody else, but we have found that it is not true today. The blue uniform of the court is even plainer than that of the Police Department, and I fancy the fact that it is not seen on the street every day adds to its authority rather than the reverse.

"The new law centralized the control of the machinery of the courts in this office, giving control of the subordinates to the chief magistrate. This makes for discipline, good order, and honest and efficient service. Every one connected with the courts will, I am sure, be willing to testify that there is a marked improvement in the manner and behavior of the personnel. Citizens are treated politely, and the whole atmosphere surrounding the court rooms is changed.

"There is no favoritism. Every subordinate knows there is one responsible head looking after him and to whom he is amenable for his conduct, that he is being constantly watched and note taken of his behavior. The very idea of the central office open every day in the year carries with it a sense of supervision on the part of those connected with it.

"The next thing was to create a system of records in this office, by which the daily workings of these courts could be supervised and watched; where citizens could come and get information on any matter connected with them. To this end a card system has been developed. Every morning in this office there is a card for each case passing through each of the courts, showing what disposition has been made of it, with other facts that go to make up the statistics and reports made monthly.

"The bill which has lately been introduced to remove the judges of Special Sessions and the magistrates' courts and make those offices elective, instead of appointive as at present, would, I firmly believe, prove a grave public misfortune if it were to become a law. There is no analogy between these courts and the municipal courts. In those a citizen is entitled to a jury and is generally represented by a lawyer.

"In the magistrates' courts, however, the judges are vested with a vast amount of summary jurisdiction. The great majority of defendants cannot afford to employ a lawyer. The complainant cannot appeal; the defendant seldom does or can. Unlike the district civil courts, the magistrates' courts deal with the citizen's liberty as well as with his property."

TUBERCULOSIS IN PRISONS

Statistics,—such imperfect statistics as we have,—vary as to the number of convicts released every year from the prisons of the country by the expiration of sentence. It is a vast number, probably a hundred thousand. Of course as a rule they return to the community no better morally than they were when they were imprisoned. Most of them, it is to be feared, are perhaps less moral than when they stood before the judge. But in one respect they are far worse off, and that is physically, if they have been long in prison. Quite apart from the general let-down of health from incarceration for years even under the best conditions, the terrible scourge of prisons, which affects at least one in five of their occupants, is tuberculosis. The Irish prisons have such a fear of this disease and make such efforts to combat it that it is said the cases of tuberculosis in prisons, in proportion to the population, are fewer than in the outside world. That is probably true of no other prisons. Certainly in this country our penal institutions breed tuberculosis.

In the first place their structure favors its

development. If there is anything that the tuberculosis microbe dreads as the devil dreads holy water, it is direct sunlight. Our foolishly—one might say wickedly—constructed jails and penitentiaries with inside cells, encourage tuberculosis. The sun may shine into the corridors between the cells and the outside wall, but its merciful and healing rays never penetrate the dark, germ-inhabited corners. The result may be seen in every state in the Union. The figures for New York alone are appalling. Dr. J. B. Ransom, who for more than twenty years has been prison physician at the Clinton prison, and through whose hands have passed more tuberculosis prisoners than any other man in the country has dealt with (for such patients are transferred to his institution from other prisons), is authority for the statement that from sixty to seventy-five per cent of the deaths in the three prisons of New York are from tuberculosis. It is estimated that fifteen per cent of the entire prison population of the country is affected with this disease. Why not? Look at Sing Sing, for instance, with a capacity for 1,200 and a population of 1,800. The buildings must swarm with germs, and every condition favors their development: overcrowding, lack of air, lack of direct sunshine, and depression of spirits; for next to sunshine happiness is one of the best elements in curing tuberculosis, an element forever lacking behind prison bars.

It would be bad enough if the prisoners themselves were the only sufferers. They may well question the justice which condemns them to contract this terrible disease as a penalty for their wrongdoing, a death penalty in many a case. But it is not they alone who suffer; it is their friends, their families, the community at large. Think of 20,000 persons afflicted with tuberculosis coming out from penal institutions every year and scattering the disease wherever they go!

Only fifteen states and territories make any provision for special treatment and separate quarters for tuberculous prisoners, so they infect one another without let or hindrance while in prison, and then go out to extend the empire of this dreadful plague.

Yet that the states could do much to remedy this state of things has been proved in New York. Under the skill and devotion of Dr. Ransom the death rate has been reduced in New York and good care has reduced it in Massachusetts and Texas, where separate quarters are provided for the tuberculous. Dr. Ransom presents certain things that should be demanded in every prison.

"The examination and record of every admission to penal institutions; improved housing and working environment for the prisoner; absolute separation from the prison population of all tuberculosis subjects; the recognition of the prisoner's receptivity to infection; special wards for the treatment of all active cases and open-air courts for exercise; provision for outdoor employment, such as gardening and light farming."

THE CHILDREN'S COURT IN CANADA

BERNARD FLEXNER
Louisville

Several cities in the United States, at various times, have urged their claims to the establishment of the first juvenile court. This distinction belongs to Chicago. In connection with the idea of the children's court, it is interesting to recall a speech made by J. J. Kelso of Toronto, Canada, at the Waif-Saving Congress held in Chicago, October 11 to 13, 1893. In opening his speech Mr. Kelso said:

"Some five years ago an agitation began in our province of Ontario for the recognition of the right of the state to interfere for the protection of neglected and abused children. This was in one respect a logical sequence to the enforcement of a compulsory educational law. Of course we were anxious to obtain the very best law possible for this purpose so we procured copies of all the legislation that had been passed by English-speaking countries, and by some that did not speak English, and we compared one with the other and digested them very carefully before a bill was drafted for presentation in the Ontario Legislative Assembly. It was finally introduced and carried with practical unanimity.

"This law provides that in every city of over 10,000 inhabitants there must be a children's aid society. It is no case of 'may'—it is a case of 'must.' The law says 'there shall be a children's aid society established.' The city is compelled to build or rent a large building and when it is ready it must be handed over for the use of the children's aid society for its various purposes. The law also provides for a children's court which is in every sense of the word a private court. This court is presided over by any judge of a court of record, any police magistrate, or any member of the county bench of magistrates and every time a child is brought in its parents or guardian must be there also."

Notwithstanding the origin of the idea upon Canadian soil, still it remained with the United States to develop the children's court, and the legislation of Great Britain and her colonies has drawn heavily upon the laws here. This

was true of the children's charter. It is likewise true of two acts of the Province of Alberta, one an act respecting juvenile delinquents which embodies in a striking degree the spirit of the modern juvenile court legislation. Hearings of children's cases, it is provided, "shall take place without publicity." "They may be held in the private office of a judge, or in some private room of the court house, or in the detention room." "No report of the trial or other disposition of a charge against a child, in which the name of the child or of its parent or guardian is discussed, shall, without special leave of the judge, be published in any newspaper or other publication." And again, "The proceedings may in the discretion of the judge be as informal as the circumstances will permit consistently with a due regard for a proper administration of justice." In the second act, an act for the protection of neglected and dependent children, it is interesting to note among the definitions of a neglected child, "A child who is employed anywhere between the hours of 10 o'clock P. M. of one day and 6 o'clock A. M. of the following day."

PROBATION

IN CONNECTICUT

The Associated Charities of Waterbury, under H. L. Udell, is seeking to further the interests of children by the establishment of juvenile courts and the organization of probation work. In a recent address, Mr. Udell outlined the opportunities for such work, simply and clearly, in a way which may serve other localities where it has yet to be instituted.

"There is no problem of social reconstruction which so baffles the charity worker as does the problem of distress directly due to moral delinquency on the part of parents, yet there is no point at which social work is capable of being made so effective as in helping the children. To rehabilitate the character of the mature man or woman is one of the most difficult things in the world; to save a child is one of the most inspiring of tasks. No program of reconstructive social work is complete which does not include both efforts. The problem confronting us is two-fold: first, to take hold of the adult delinquent, the parent who fails to discharge his or her parental responsibility, with a firm yet kindly hand, and see that that responsibility is fulfilled. Second, how to protect the defenseless little boy or girl from the consequences of parental cruelty, immorality, or neglect. . . .

"The Associated Charities has found during the past six months fifty-six families in which the repeated visits and gentle yet firm guidance of a probation officer would have been of incalculable value. We need such an extension of the present probation system as will make it possible for an officer to devote his entire time to the work of visiting and directing those placed under his guardianship. The experience of other cities would seem to show that this can best be accomplished by the creation of a juvenile court for the treatment of all cases of delinquency and dependence among children. . . .

"Under the administration of such a court an intelligent probation officer will go into the home of a neglected child, not as an enemy to be dreaded, but as a friend to be welcomed. He will go there before any warrant has been issued; he will put forth every moral effort; he will encourage the delinquent parent or parents in every sincere attempt at right living, and if all this fails he will have power to resort to more drastic measures.

"It would be difficult to exaggerate the influence for good which the probation officer thus empowered might exercise. He would render a service to the family by preserving it intact, improving its conditions of life, and elevating its ideals. He would be of service to the employers of labor by promoting the steadiness and reliability of working men and women, and would serve the community by preventing juvenile crime. Where the child has actually come into court before the probation officer has discovered him, the judge will conduct the case so as to remove from it so far as possible all suggestion of criminal procedure. The little one will quickly come to see that he is there to be protected, not punished; to be strengthened, not made bitter and defiant. He will look upon probation officer and judge as friends, deserving of his utmost trust.

"Such is the work of a juvenile court as I have seen it. Such is the mission which it may fulfill in Waterbury. Is it not better to save our children for a life of honest citizenship than to allow them to fall under the stigma of a criminal sentence and thus give the first impetus toward a career of crime? Would it not profit the state more to incur the expense of a few more officials if the number of its prisoners were at the same time decreased? Is it not a finer thing to prevent crime than to chastise the criminal? Shall we not follow the example of the most enlightened cities of our republic and take this magnificent step in child-saving work?"

A NEVADA JUDICIAL OPINION

Chief Justice Norcross of Nevada is quoted in the *Institutional Quarterly* as follows:

"The most practical way of dealing with existing conditions, in my judgment, is to extend the probation system both to juvenile and adult offenders. For those whom the courts are not satisfied to intrust with probation, or whose crimes are of such a character that probation could not appropriately be applied in the first instance, I believe the indeterminate

sentence the best remedy. Under the indeterminate sentence plan, the convict is confined for a term which may not be more than the maximum fixed by law. The court and all officials interested in the enforcement of law furnish the prison authorities with all information in their possession relative to the particular offender. The prison authorities then determine, from previous knowledge concerning the convict, and from personal observation of him after he has been incarcerated, the time that he should be kept confined. If he is such a hardened criminal that there is little, if any, hope of his reformation, he can be kept confined the full limit, and thus prevented from preying further upon society. On the other hand, when there is reason to believe that he can safely be permitted to go at large, he is paroled and given a chance to redeem himself, with the aid of the prison officials.

"Under the old system, there is great inequality and frequently great injustice in the sentences imposed for similar grades of offences. The personality of the individual judge is the controlling factor. For substantially the same offence, one judge may impose a maximum sentence, upon the theory that severity of punishment is the best way to deter others from committing similar offences, while another judge may be equally impressed that leniency is the better method to deal with those who have not become hardened criminals. Such inequalities cannot help but produce dissatisfaction and discouragement among many. The majority of men sent to prison are bound to be discharged sooner or later. It is a great deal better for society that a large percentage of them should go out encouraged to begin life anew as honest, industrious, and law-abiding citizens, than that they should be discharged simply as ex-convicts, with little chance to do anything other than to return to the life of a criminal."

IN PENNSYLVANIA

It is proposed to secure legislation in Pennsylvania this year favoring the creation of a state probation commission with power to supervise probation work throughout the state; to collect and publish information relative to probation systems; and to assist in probation work by consultations with probation officers on their request or the request of the court; to promote the establishment of local probation associations to advise with the court itself or the probation officer, in any way in which the court or any probation association shall deem advisable.

The proposed bill is somewhat more elaborate than the New York state probation bill, but the powers which it is proposed to give the commission are merely advisory or supervisory. The extent to which such a commission, with only limited powers, can really influence probation work in the country at large is illustrated in the work of the New York and Massachusetts commissions and their published reports.

The sixth annual report of the Probation Association of Montgomery county, Pa., [Mrs. L. C. Parham, probation officer], shows that 104 boys and 54 girls have been before the juvenile court within a year. Of these 89 were placed in homes and institutions and 64 were returned to their own families. Of this number only 19 were foreign born. The average stay in the house of detention was about 13 days. A third of these children had no home of their own and 64 were either orphans or had lost one parent. It is easy to see that lack of parental care and good home conditions must have been at the base of the juvenile delinquency that brought these children into court. Of the known homes 40 were "bad." Since the report was prepared the commissioners of that county have decided to build a new house of detention. The house will contain over twenty rooms and apartments, consisting of offices for the probation officer, private apartments for the matron, separate rooms for the boys and girls, each child having a private room. It will be equipped with every modern convenience, including a gymnasium in the basement. It is to be two stories in height and absolutely fireproof. There will be separate playgrounds for the boys and girls and every appliance to make it a home where children can be properly cared for until they can be placed permanently in institutions or homes.

IN CLEVELAND

The annual reports of the many probation officers throughout the country are coming in with the new year. J. B. Vining, probation officer in Cleveland, reports 292 cases to which he gave personal attention during the past year. Of these, 276 were boys or men, and only sixteen girls or women. They represented fifteen different nationalities and 99 were foreign born. A synopsis of the records shows not only the crimes for which they were arrested, the disposition of the cases and many other facts, but two of these items are of special interest: that the 166 having trades covered 59 occupations though there were 126 who had not a trade, and that about six hundred dollars was collected and paid to the families. Four families charged with stealing coal were required to move, which would seem to imply that the community had saved itself at the expense of some other community.

FOSTERING RESPONSIBILITY

Guild Life and Work, a small British leaflet, publishes an excellent description of the Geneva, Ill., Industrial School, and of the Reformatory for Women at Bedford, N. Y., from the pen of Mrs. Scott, who accompanied her husband, Walter Scott, head of the Scotch Prison Board, on the tour made by delegates to the International Prison Congress. After commending the work of these institutions and giving deserved praise of the two capable women managing them, Mrs. Scott mildly criticises the jails and places of detention where

the women sentenced to Bedford are kept before trial. She might have been vastly more severe and kept within limits, for the jails especially deserve severe censure as places for men as well as for women. She says:

"The women in Bedford are all sent from court for such offences as the following: theft, burglary, prostitution, vagrancy, forgery, bigamy, assault, manslaughter, habitual drinking, etc. They have all been in prison awaiting trial, either in New York or other places, and we were unfavorably impressed with the jails, which we visited, where the prisoners await trial. They are shut up in what we should call 'cages.' They may associate together through the day under little supervision; no work is provided; and women prisoners are never allowed outside in the open air. Also they may be weeks or months awaiting trial. As soon as girls are tried and sentenced to the Bedford Reformatory the matron is communicated with by telephone, and an officer immediately starts off to fetch them.

"I have described these institutions because they seem to be of a type to which we have nothing corresponding at all. True, we have our industrial schools and reformatory schools, but they only follow the children up to eighteen, while in these American state schools they must be watched till they are twenty-one, or even later, thus guiding them through the most difficult years. Then the 'parole officers' must visit and advise them when in service, and if necessary change the girls' situations, and in short act as a mother to them.

"Then you may say, 'We have our rescue and preventive homes.' Yes. And what a splendid work is being done there! But in those homes if a girl runs away there is no power to bring her back. Here there is the authority of the law behind, and surely this is a great benefit. A wild girl of seventeen needs restraining and guiding though she may not know it, and if wisely helped over the difficult years she may turn out a good woman. Placing the girls out at work in picked situations fosters their spirit of responsibility, and is a test of their ability to meet life later on. If they fail in the first place, they can be brought back and taught a little more, and then tested again. It may need two or three years after leaving the institution to get settled, and if left to herself in the world after the sheltered life of a 'home' a girl may easily drift into the old life again. We have seen that a state institution does not necessarily mean rigid, cold rule, but, with the right people at the head, may mean a beautiful family life filled with joy and love, and ruled by the spirit of Christ. Many of these women and girls are, as we know, the victims of vicious people, and, as society is at present constituted, need protection and training that they may grow into good citizens, instead of being in their turn the transmitters of disease and misery to others."

SPEEDY TRIALS

The dissatisfaction all over the country with the over-technical pleading and the inexcusable delays in criminal trials, makes the report of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology on Criminal Procedure in England timely. The recent Crippen trial called the attention of editors in every state to the surprising expedition with which a most sensational murder case may be handled in Great Britain.

Some of the distinguishing features of the English system, as brought out in the report, are that the judges of the King's Bench, who hear all cases of murder and the graver felonies, try civil cases as well. Defects in the indictment, which play such a weighty part in our criminal trials, are of no importance now in England. Defects of substance only are considered, and formal objections based on rigorous strictness in the framing of the indictment are rarely upheld or the court will order amendments. The fact that a juror may know something about a case he is to try is no disqualification in itself. A man is not considered biased simply because he may have expressed an opinion on the facts of the case as he has heard them from others or read them in newspapers. Many practitioners at the criminal bar have never seen a juror challenged for any reason. The judge in his summary to the jury sometimes expresses an opinion regarding the guilt or innocence of the prisoner.

The authors of the report, John D. Lawson and Edwin R. Keedy, heard the trial of sixteen very grave cases including several murder trials. The time between the date of arrest and the trial did not exceed two months in any instance and, excepting one case of criminal libel which took eight days, the trials themselves lasted only from one and a half to four hours.

The recommendations of the report are that all objections to indictments be made before evidence is heard and errors of form amended at once; that counsel should before trial agree to the dismissal of any one clearly incompetent to be a juror; that the judge should restrict counsel to relevant questions and overrule technical objections, and that new trials be granted only to prevent miscarriage of justice and never for technical reasons.

THE WOMAN PRISONER OF NEW YORK

The burden of the sixty-sixth annual report of the Women's Prison Association of New

York is disappointment at the delay in the erection of the buildings at the Farm for Women at Valatie. Though the site was selected long ago the architect's plans are not yet drawn. Meantime the weary round of short sentences goes on with no hope of reformation from such imprisonment; and the state, by this procrastination in carrying out the admirable project of providing reformatory outdoor labor for women who need protracted discipline to help them overcome their vices and evil habits, is holding back progress in this direction.

The report devotes much space to the inferior courts bill, and speaks with vehemence against the Night Court for Women, an opinion shared by some of the members of the International Prison Congress:

"The Night Court for Women is a perfectly useless institution and has no reason for existence. The advocates of the original Night Court for both men and women claimed that it would be a means of abolishing the professional bondsman, who had preyed upon these unfortunates, but the professional bondsman simply transferred his activities from the station-house to the court and was and still is in evidence at every session. If his clients have been reduced in number, his commission has been raised to cover this deficiency. . . .

"One section of the inferior courts bill provides for a card system of identification, through which persons supplied with such cards may upon arrest for violation of city ordinances be released upon their 'own recognizance', continue their business, and appear in court at the time set for trial. The woman charged with soliciting is as much entitled to such a card as the chauffeur who endangers the lives of hundreds by overspeeding. Disorderly conduct and soliciting are not recognized under the law either as crimes or misdemeanors; they are simply violations of the consolidation act. A card system of identification for women violators of this act would be a most effective way of abolishing the professional bondsman, permitting the woman to arrange her affairs and appear for trial, and render the Night Court for Women unnecessary. All other classes of women now arraigned in the Night Court would be far better off if sheltered in the prospective house of detention until morning. To turn semi-intoxicated women adrift at night, or women convicted of prostitution, after payment of fine, means in the one case, actual suffering, and in the other, that she returns to the street to redeem the loss sustained by payment of fine.

"A day court in which all classes of women may be tried would be an improvement upon present methods, but a Night Court for Women cannot prove beneficial to the offender or to the class of curious idlers who throng this court."

JOTTINGS

PRISON REFORM IN GEORGIA

The Prison Association of Georgia was organized in Atlanta early in December, 1910. Chief among those behind it were Joseph C. Logan, secretary of the Associated Charities; John J. Eagan, a public-spirited young business man of Atlanta, and G. R. Hutchins, recently chairman of the Prison Commission of Georgia.

This organization does not purpose simply to care for discharged prisoners and visit penal institutions, but to educate on all questions of crime and its treatment in Georgia. It will advocate adequate institutions for different classes of criminals; aid in extending probation, parole, and the indeterminate sentence; investigate causes of crime and measures of prevention, and publish its findings. The board of directors is composed of twenty-one business men, from whom is chosen an executive committee committed with authority to run the society. The president of the association is Mr. Eagan; the secretary, Robert B. McCord, who will devote his entire time to the work. An office has been opened at 404 Gould Building, Atlanta.

PENNSYLVANIA'S PRISON NEED

The need of a new prison in Pennsylvania is bringing out a great deal of discussion as to the best site, the best methods to be employed, and the best results to work for. There as elsewhere the cry seems to be "back to the land" for prisoners. The state has 980,000 acres of forest preserves, and it is believed that without having to purchase land a site may be found on which convicts may erect their own buildings and raise their own supplies and a surplus for other institutions.

A TIMELY POLICE ORDER

At a recent meeting of the Board of Directors of Boston-1915, a complaint came from South Boston that the police authorities were transporting juvenile delinquents from the detention station to the court in the same vans with adult prisoners. The matter was investigated by a special committee of the Charities and Correction Conference of Boston-1915 and Police Commissioner O'Meara was interviewed, with the result that the following general order was sent out from the commissioner's office:

"No person under seventeen years of age is to be carried in a vehicle which is occupied at the same time by prisoners above that age; but when an enclosed van is used a prisoner under seventeen years of age may be placed in a compartment separated from that occupied by the older prisoners; and in emergencies, or when a prisoner under seventeen years of age has been arrested in the company of an older person or for complicity in the same offence, such prisoner may be carried in the same vehicle with persons above seventeen years of age, provided a police officer accompanies them in the vehicle."

SOCIAL AGENCIES

HOW ORGANIZED CHARITY EMPLOYS ITS FUNDS

EDWARD T. DEVINE

General Secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society

[As a back-fire against the activity of the New York Charity Organization Society is resisting the Sullivan bill, which threatened to put the magistrates' courts back into district politics, Assemblyman Cuvillier recently introduced a resolution calling for an investigation of the society. The implication was that the society is misusing its funds, and that its charter should be repealed. Disregarding some obvious errors in figures in the resolution, the apparent grounds on which the investigation was proposed was that the Charity Organization Society pays out a larger sum of money in administrative work than it expends for relief.

The incident was made the text for a prompt statement by the general secretary of the society in the New York *Press*. In various cities similar charges appear from time to time, arising from a misunderstanding of the nature of the work performed by modern social agencies. The statement, therefore, is of more than local application. Moreover, Dr. Devine's survey affords a proportionate review of the responsibilities of a charity organization society—a conscious recapitulation of structure and function which may prove of interest wherever such a society exists, or wherever any agency is found which deals in a similar spirit with constructive social work.]

In the year ending September 30, 1910, the New York Charity Organization Society disbursed in direct relief a little less than $80,000. This is about twenty times as much as the society was spending in that way when I became connected with it fifteen years ago. Some people think that it is too much. Some think that it is not enough. I am among the latter. I think that we can and should raise a larger amount for relief. We have plans under way for doing so. We need more money for widows and dependent children, more for the families of consumptives, and more for many other particular kinds of distress, especially such as arises in connection with illness of various kinds.

What we need for relief we always raise for that particular purpose, just as we raise other funds for other purposes. Except for temporary emergency relief, we believe in what is called the case by case system of raising relief funds. What we mean by this is that if we require ten or fifteen dollars a month for a family for a year we prefer to ask people to give that amount for that particular family. We open a special account with the money thus given in the name of the family for whom it was raised, just as if it were a savings bank account, and we keep it religiously for them so long as it is needed. If it is not needed we give it back to the donors if they want it, or we transfer it with the consent of the donors to some other similar case, for which we would otherwise have to raise money.

That does not often happen. Generally we need for a family all that we have secured for them. Our purpose is not the "tiding over" of a family "into next week's misery," but family rehabilitation. We want to help those who apply to us for assistance up to the point where they can help themselves. We pension widows until children can properly begin to earn wages. We care for the sick until they are well. We move people to a place where they can become self-supporting if possible. We do a lot of work in reuniting families. We go after deserters and bring them back to their families. We train women as laundresses, and we take a lot of trouble to find special kinds of employment for people who are blind, or lame, or otherwise physically unfit for ordinary employment, but who can earn something if they are put in the right place where employers will have some consideration for them.

With us relief is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. In some instances we give no relief whatever and get good results, and in other instances we may spend a large sum of money in direct relief before we get through. Of course, in the vast majority of cases some relief in groceries, fuel, clothing, or money is necessary, and we give what our experience and best judgment suggest should be given, whether it is much or little or nothing.

Besides the $80,000 which was expended for relief, and besides what was expended for other activities which have independent treasuries, the Charity Organization Society expended about $200,000. Here we have the frightful bugbear of the hostile critics of organized charity. You admit that you spend

$2.50 in administration expenses for every dollar spent in relief! You convict yourself of all your enemies have ever said about you! No honest person who has taken the trouble to go to the financial statements of the society to get his totals can go away from them with this understanding. Put it down, therefore, that when any one quotes these figures as having been obtained from the society's annual reports, and infers from them that there is a disproportion between relief and the cost of administering relief, he is intentionally deceiving the public. What these figures show is that the society is engaged in other activities besides relief giving.

Of the $200,000 about $50,000, in round numbers, was the cost of conducting the New York School of Philanthropy. This is a training school for those who are expecting to engage in civic or social work. It is not supported by contributions at all, but by endowment and tuition fees. There goes one-fourth of the whole argument at once.

About $7,500 was spent for the work of the Tenement House Committee—the committee which with the support and co-operation of the daily press, settlements, trade unions, and others secured the present Tenement House law ten years ago, and has ever since been obliged to fight attacks on it from such people as are always attacking the Charity Organization Society. This committee also has nothing to do with relief, but it is doing work which it believes to be more important and useful than that of any mere relief fund can possibly be. It is fighting for decent tenement homes, against the selfishness and greed of speculative tenement owners and builders and their political allies.

Thirty thousand dollars was spent on the work of the Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis and its affiliated Association of Tuberculosis Clinics. None of this was for relief, and none of it was for the expense of administering relief. It is more fundamental than relief. It is prevention. It is public education. Largely as a result of a campaign carried on by that committee the city was induced to increase its appropriations to the Health Department and to the Board of Education, and as a result we have open-air schools for anæmic children and an adequate corps of Health Department district nurses, visiting the homes of poor consumptives. These things mean more than fuel and groceries. They mean health and the saving of life. They mean stamping out infection. They mean that people will be enabled to remain self-supporting and not have to go either to the district leaders or to the charitable societies. Anybody who objects to such expenditures because they are not relief is either dishonest or incredibly stupid.

The society spent a little over $8,000 in its Bureau of Advice and Information, which is for the purpose of reporting to its members and others of charitable agencies which appeal for financial support. This bureau exposes fraudulent enterprises and gives impartial, reliable information concerning the hundreds of institutions, societies, and enterprises of various kinds in the city—or, for that matter, wherever they may be located, if they are raising funds here. Frequently through this bureau substantial aid is given in the reorganization of charitable agencies in such a way as to free them from some ground for criticism. One may put a high or a low estimate on this kind of service, but obviously it has nothing to do with the amount spent in relief.

The usefulness of any special activity is not always gauged by the amount of money which it costs. For example, the society spent less than $3,000 for its Special Employment Bureau, the object of which is to find work of special kinds for handicapped persons—those who are not able to do a full day's work in the ordinary sense, but who can do certain things very satisfactorily if they have some special consideration. Thus employed, they are both happier and better off physically than if they are supported in absolute idleness. This bureau is evidently not doing relief work, and to put its expenses down as "administrative expenses" in comparison with what is spent for relief has no justification and no meaning.

I may mention one other feature of our work which is represented in our last annual report by only a very small item—$140—for the reason that it was started just at the end of the year. I refer to the Committee on Criminal Courts. Young as this committee is and insignificant as its expenditures were last year, there is no doubt that it comes nearer explaining the present hubbub over the administrative expenses of the Charity Organization Society than any of the older and more expensive departments. For it was this committee which organized the hearing at Albany on February 15 in opposition to the Sullivan "Ripper" bill. The resolution to investigate the society followed promptly upon the heels of this hearing. Its mover is currently believed to have been one of those who were most interested in the bill, and one of those who were astounded at the outburst of public indignation wnich their raid on the courts aroused when its character became known.

I have accounted for about one-half of the $200,000 expended by the society. The other half was expended in carrying on seven central office departments and eleven district offices—all of which have to do in a more direct way than do the special activities which I have named with the relief and prevention of distress.

One of the central office bureaus is the registration bureau, which is the means through which we act as a clearing house for other charitable agencies. Another is an investigating bureau, which has nothing to do with the actual relief of distress. It investigates for other charitable and benevolent organizations.

We look into cases of relief for them, but we are not responsible for the relief. The society asking for the information gives or withholds it on our report.

As I have shown at the outset, our visitors are not primarily almoners, and the money expended in these remaining activities cannot be described as the cost of distributing relief. It is the cost of doing what needs to be done in the families that need assistance. It is the cost of skilled service. It is the cost of maintaining convenient offices in the tenement districts where application may be made, the cost of finding employment, the cost of getting people into hospitals and institutions, the cost of locating and prosecuting deserting husbands and delinquent members of the family who are legally responsible for its support, the cost of doing for the families in every way that particular thing which needs to be done. It is the cost of family rehabilitation.

FOCUSING THE LINES OF SOCIAL CONTACT

ANNA B. FOX

Assistant Secretary, Buffalo Charity Organization Society

In how many varying lines of social endeavor are workers called upon now to deal with the poor in their homes. But only in exceptional instances are the conditions in these homes such that one organization alone is, or has been, concerned. This multiple interest in the welfare of individual families brings us face to face with the fact that, while there is a general agreement regarding many of the principles involved in the wise treatment of family problems, there is not, even in this day of systematic organization of philanthropic movements, a sufficiently developed scheme of co-operation among agencies to permit the best work to be done with the least waste of energy, time, and money, or to make it possible for a community to know either its own burden of want or the facts that would serve as a lever with which to lift this burden.

The next step in securing more complete unity in social work is a central bureau of registration.

Whatever our particular form of service, we agree that our first aim in undertaking to influence the lives of others is to understand. Moreover, this understanding must be twofold, including a knowledge of existing conditions in the homes and a clear conception of causes lying back of conditions. From our desire to gain this understanding arises the necessity for investigation, which is merely the acquiring of accurate information regarding the history and situation of the family. It is essential that this investigation, upon which the whole treatment depends, be thorough and complete; that it be accomplished as speedily as is consistent with thoroughness; and that throughout the process the privacy and self-respect of the family be matters of prime consideration. But is it not common to find the representative of one organization asking questions that have already been answered to other social workers, to see him busily engaged in digging up facts that have already been unearthed, to meet him traveling this too well beaten path and neglecting altogether the mine of knowledge and wealth of clues that may lie hidden in the archives of other societies? This continues because there is no central bureau of registration where he can find the name of every social organization that has been interested in the family, or because, if there is perchance the beginning of such a bureau, all societies do not register there or care to avail themselves of the opportunity for co-operation thus afforded. As a result we see a waste of time, which is money; of effort, which is strength; an unnecessary harrowing of applicants, and a lack of valuable knowledge which might have modified appreciably our plans. For it must be remembered that many facts obtained bear not so much upon the pressing conditions to be ameliorated as upon far-reaching causes. To a breadwinner stricken with tuberculosis it may well seem of little importance whether he was born in south Italy or in Galicia, whether he has been in this country six months or six years, whether he worked at stonecutting or at tailoring. All of these facts are important for those who study the different racial and industrial conditions with a view to improving them; but, important as they are, need an applicant answer six times if once will do?

Nor is it unusual for a worker to find, after proceeding for a time with his investigation, that an individual, a church, or another agency is interested in the particular family and

wishes no interference—a fact that could have been ascertained in five minutes over the telephone of a central bureau.

A confidential exchange among agencies will lead also to a clearer and more sympathetic understanding of methods and aims—a long step towards the perfect co-operation so necessary when the situation in a home is too complex to be successfully met by the resources of a single organization. Several social forces may be called upon to treat different phases of one family's situation at the same time. The difficulties of such joint action call for the nicest balance and adjustment of each part of the social machinery to every other part. The bewildered and often dazed condition of mind of those to whom we minister, brought about by conflicting advice and variant plans; the uncertainty, the worry, the lack of confidence, the clever turning of one agency's attitude as a defence against another's, the blocking of wise measures, the not infrequent suffering—all these could be avoided by more complete co-ordination of work.

Strangely enough, it seems easier to convince groups working along different lines of social betterment of the benefits of a clearing house than societies working in practically the same field, although it is through the duplicated work of this latter class, especially through relief societies, that the greatest harm can be done to the families. Whether this difficulty arises from petty jealousy, distrust, lack of clear understanding, over-confidence in themselves and their applicants, or the fear that registration may prove their particular work to be superfluous, is difficult to say, but its existence forms a great obstacle to unity in social work and to the accumulation of valuable data. The most usual objection raised is that central registration violates the privacy of the dependent family by making its condition public property. On the contrary, registration safeguards privacy; by means of it any intruder is warned off the premises. Anyone who has had experience in the registration department of a charity organization society knows how constantly families are reported by interested friends, neighbors, casual observers, by those who have heard only rumors of distress. The necessity of sending a visitor can only be obviated by knowledge that the family is already in someone's care. Index cards are not public; no one but a confidential employe of the bureau is allowed to handle them, and with thousands on file a single card loses all individuality or prominence. Information is not given indiscriminately, especially over the telephone, but only to accredited inquirers.

Any social worker would be aghast at being told that his methods are developing beggars, liars, paupers, and cheats, are undermining the independence of families and increasing the unsocial group in a community. But to refuse to register in a central bureau, to shut eyes tight to the fact that an applicant may already be assisted by some other person or society is to do some or all of these things. Start a central registry anywhere and there will be found, as in Pittsburgh, the family helped by eleven agencies without one another's knowledge and without common plan; the man who attended twelve churches, joined four, had help from fourteen households and eight relief societies without even then succeeding in obtaining adequate support for his family, while he and his able-bodied son-in-law did no work except that involved in working the public. My own attention was attracted recently to a family whom three branches of one volunteer charitable society were aiding, unknown to one another, and were encouraging thereby a young girl in deceit and begging.

The demoralization of a family can be hastened by any occasion offered for running from one non-co-operating agency to another. This is due in part to the opportunity thus given for using the resources of several societies at once, and in part to the check put upon plans that are really constructive. For instance, permission to place her children in a day nursery is refused a woman because her husband is able-bodied and the social worker prefers to find employment for the man and to see that he supports his family. Another nursery that takes children with little or no inquiry upsets this plan and encourages one more loafer in the community. Examples of good plans defeated in like manner might be multiplied to weariness. Just for contrast take an instance where a probation officer succeeded in preventing the discharge of a deserting husband and in securing his being placed on probation by the use of the C. O. S. record of the family history. The difference between common knowledge and common plan on the one hand, and individual information

and different plans on the other, is the difference between efficiency and inefficiency. This efficiency is increased tenfold if, as Miss Richmond has suggested, each agency strengthens its work at the point of intersection with the work of some other social activity. These points of intersection are brought out in no other place so clearly as in the bureau of central registration. Only there is the intertwining of the varying lines made visible.

For illustration, let us consider the schools —a broad field for the study of incipient destitution, disease, and delinquency. A registration of those school children shown by medical inspection to be undernourished would show also how many such children had previously been brought to the attention of some organization. It would be good for the organization to know this, and to know how many are the children of widows or of deserted wives. Such registration again would make it possible to follow in later years the history of the children, or of a group of them.

Other contacts are found through the teachers, with their opportunities of discovering children who are working out of school hours, children whose uncleanliness betrays neglect that may culminate in abuse,—or children whose regular attendance is spoiled by lack of shoes or other apparel.

It would be difficult to name a single social movement that would not be aided by the data accumulated at a central bureau. The street directory there would show that certain localities of special interest to housing reformers, for instance, are likewise conspicuous in the registration from medical agencies, playground boards, and juvenile correctional institutions. The student of immigration or of racial groups would find there abundant material for study. Another benefit which would follow would be the inauguration of a more uniform and complete system of statistics by the organizations and institutions represented —one bearing upon the facts social investigators wish to find and rarely can.

If one agency cares for three thousand families, another for two thousand, and a third for one thousand, what percentage is there of conscious or unconscious duplication? Not always great overlapping of work, as each may occupy a different field; one may be a relief society, one a district nursing association and another a hospital, but fifty per cent of the work of each may be with families known to the others. With several relief agencies there is sure to be both duplication and overlapping. In Boston, where there is a registration of more than eighty agencies, a list of fifty families was brought to the registrar one day with the statement that the bearer had been guaranteed that those families were not known to any other agency in the city. The organization that had given him the names was a non-registering one. The fifty names were looked up and forty-five of them were found in the index. The registrar was not sure that the inability to find the other five was not due to peculiar spellings.

There is a movement nowadays towards having a non-philanthropic body act as a certifying committee for charities—pass judgment, that is, upon ways of raising money, upon methods, aims, and results of work. One of the duties of such a committee is to decide upon the need for any proposed social agency in the community. How much better able will this committee be to determine upon need, if it has accurate knowledge of how much work the agency is duplicating. If existing organizations cover the field or can cover it, why a new one to do the work that can as well be done by those already established? Why put money into the administration expenses of a new society that would better be spent in the field work or research work of an existing organization? All of the money for remedial or preventive work comes from the people, either through voluntary contributions or through taxes. There is every reason why it should be carefully administered, as the less money there is wasted the more there will be for effective work.

All social agencies dealing with families or individuals in a community should join in a registration bureau for the common good and the greater efficiency of each. Only by so doing will they and their clients be safeguarded against overlapping, duplication, waste, frustration of plans, and needless interference; only so will each agency be enabled to work harmoniously with every other upon a plan co-operatively worked out and really adequate.

CLUB MEETING IN A ST. LOUIS PUBLIC LIBRARY.

BRANCH LIBRARIES AS SOCIAL CENTERS

OSCAR LEONARD

The Public Library system of St. Louis is opening to the people rooms where they can meet to educate themselves, to talk about books, plays, or even the troubles that come in the day's labor. This work is still merely experimental. It is not yet doing as much as the social settlement. Nor has the library adopted the method of the latter. It does not supply leaders for classes or clubs. It furnishes shelter to those needing it and welcomes those who have a circle they wish to direct. There is not the interrelation that should exist between those engaged in settlement work. But in this even some of the settlements are deficient. In spite of these deficiencies, the experiment is a success.

The people feel at home. They do not fear that any one wishes to lead them away from the faith, opinions, or ideals of their fathers. They are not beholden to any one for the shelter so generously proffered by the Public Library. The taint of charity is not there. The library is public. Every man and woman pays his or her share toward its maintenance. They come as they would to their own.

Another important feature is the freedom allowed. The men may smoke. In a settlement building this is generally prohibited. The fact is that men do smoke. To forbid their doing so in a certain building is to make the hour spent there uncomfortable. Why place unnecessary restrictions? The same freedom is true in the case of the objects of clubs, providing they be worthy and of an educational nature.

The Crunden Branch by way of example, named in honor of the predecessor of Arthur E. Bostwick, public librarian of St. Louis, is in the most crowded district of the city. It serves a mixed population, Polish, Jewish, Roumanian, Hungarian, some native born Irish, a few recent arrivals of Erin and quite a number of Negroes. The first to take advantage of the rooms offered for meetings were the Jews. The first organization to meet there for purposes of self-education was a group of anarchist-communists. A. Diephuis, librarian in charge, was criticised for allowing the "dangerous" group to meet. They were dangerous indeed. They spent every Friday evening reading and discussing a book by Ernest Haeckel.

Little by little the people realized what an opportunity was given them by swinging wide open the doors of the club rooms and auditorium. Now the Crunden Branch needs additional rooms.

Let us take a peep at some of the organizations meeting at the Crunden Branch, which is one of half a dozen. The Industrial Workers of the World meet to lay their foundation for a new school of labor organization. They are mostly recent arrivals from Russia with just a few Americans as leaders. A Lithuanian Club comes to prepare its members for naturalization. A group calling themselves Polish Industrial Workers assemble for purposes of mutual assistance. The United Defense League stands ready to defend free speech whether it be threatened in America or in Russia. The Crunden Branch Debating Society argues the live questions of the day. The Boy Scouts find in the library a convenient home. A group of working women calling themselves the Polish Turn Society meets for calisthenic exercises, as does also a masculine branch of the same order. Then there is a Polish Self-Culture Club. A committee for social service among colored people also finds its home under this roof. Working girls and women who favor woman's enfranchisement make their home in this branch. The People's Forum, a new attempt at helpfulness, organized at the instance of Prof. T. J. Riley, director of the St. Louis School of Social Economy (affiliated with Washington University) and of which the writer is in charge, uses the branch auditorium for public lectures delivered by university professors. An organization of garment workers, women and girls, holds its meetings in the branch under the leadership of the Woman's Trade Union

A WEEK AT CRUNDEN BRANCH LIBRARY

CLUBS AND SOCIETIES.

SUNDAY.
DEBATING CLUB OF INDUSTRIAL WORKERS.
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF JEFFERSON SCHOOL ALUMNI.
LITHUANIAN CLUB.
POLISH INDUSTRIAL WORKERS.
UNITED DEFENSE LEAGUE.

MONDAY.
CRUNDEN LIBRARY DEBATING SOCIETY.
BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA.
LADIES' POLISH TURNING SOCIETY.
MEN'S LODGE OF POLISH TURNING SOCIETY.
POLISH SELF-CULTURE CLUB.

TUESDAY.
ARBEITER RING.
BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA.
COMMITTEE FOR SOCIAL SERVICE AMONG COLORED PEOPLE.
WARD MEETING SOCIALIST PARTY.

WEDNESDAY.
BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA.
EQUAL SUFFRAGE LEAGUE OF ST. LOUIS.
INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.
PEOPLE'S FORUM.

THURSDAY.
ETHICAL BRANCH ARBEITER RING.
JEFFERSON SCHOOL DRAMATIC CLUB.
JEWISH BRANCH OF SOCIALIST PARTY.
POLISH CIVIC SCHOOL.
YOUNG PEOPLE'S CHARITY SOCIETY.

FRIDAY.
MODERN DRAMA CLUB.
NEW BRANCH WORKINGMEN'S CIRCLE
WOMAN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE.

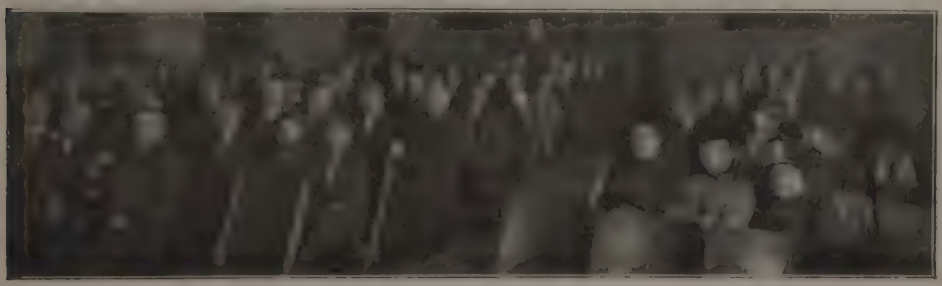
SATURDAY.
BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA.
LADIES' POLISH TURNING SOCIETY.
POLISH CADETS.
QUEEN HEDWIG BRANCH, 842.
UNITED DEFENSE LEAGUE.

League and there are many more. Recently the people using Crunden Branch have decided to present the institution with a piano and a moving picture lantern, as these are needed for more effective educational work. Under the lead of the People's Forum the organizations meeting in the library have subscribed freely and members have done so individually. The People's Forum has taken the initial step in this work.

In the year 1909-1910 a total of 757 meetings were held by various organizations in the branch libraries. The year 1910-1911 will undoubtedly show double this number as the people are becoming more and more attached to them. The more successful the experiment becomes the greater will be its bearings and influence on the development of the settlement.

CLEVELAND BOYS' EXPOSITION

Arrangements for the second Annual Cleveland Boys' Exposition, are under way to be held on May 4, 5 and 6. This unique exhibit aims to give the boys of the whole city a chance to demonstrate their ability in directions which grip thought, imagination, and activity throughout boyhood years. Any lad under nineteen who makes things, who can write or speak, who trains anything from pets to talent, may display at this exposition. Handiwork, such as the making of furniture, woodturning and carving, metal-work, electrical apparatus, mechanical drawing, printing, designing, photography, and other kindred crafts will form an important part of the exposition. Hobbies will be shown—collections of stamps, coins, buttons, or post cards. Or a boy may bring his pets, take personal charge of them and delight himself and others with their tricks. There will be contests—vocal and instrumental music and whistling, original stories, orations and poems, shorthand and typewriting, gymnastics and costumes. Not the least interesting will be the boy scout stunts—best work by one patrol in ten minutes; and the newsboy stunts—best work by group of ten in ten minutes. Competition between older and younger boys will be avoided by dividing the contestants into



MEETING OF THE PEOPLE'S FORUM.

CARPENTRY WORK.

three age groups and offering a full set of awards to each. Blue, red, and white ribbons stamped in gold with the exposition seal appropriately mark the first, second, and third honors.

The exhibit will be held in Gray's Armory. Last year over two thousand boys of every nationality and class entered their exhibits and some unusual revelations of what the American boy can do resulted—a wireless telegraph outfit made by a fifteen year old boy, a violin constructed from a cigar box, a broom stick and one string, upon which the inventor played several tunes; pen and ink drawings and oil paintings, crude of course, but in some cases showing real talent. Delighted parents and relatives took unbounded pride in seeing what their boys had accomplished. The contests in gymnastics showed skill and concentration. One "gang" of boys from the worst district in Cleveland, who were hard to hold in systematic training, cheered their teacher by saying, "Hey, kids, jess wait till next year and we'll show you fellows some stunts too." The exhibit stimulated the boys to work more eagerly for something skillful and worth while. The art and music schools encouraged their students to enter, and helped discover new talent. The Board of Education and librarians gave permission to work through the public schools and libraries, making them centers through which to give out announcements, application slips, and certificates. Permission was generously granted by the Electric Railway for the boys to carry dogs and other pets free on the street cars during the exposition days. The newspapers took pictures and advertised the forthcoming event in a way to awaken the interest of the people.

SEAL OF THE EXPOSITION.

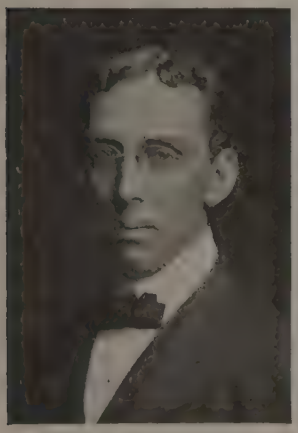
The effective co-operation of last year has again been rallied. The officers of the exposition board are: President, M. D. Crackel of the West Side Boys' Club; vice-president, T. W. Garvin of Hiram House; secretary, Dr. E. A. Peterson of Goodrich House; treasurer, C. W. Shim of the Cuyahoga County Sunday School Association. These men are assisted by an able executive committee representing ten other social, charitable and educational institutions of the city.

YOUTHFUL EDISONS.

PERSONALS

THE NEW SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR

The appointment of Walter L. Fisher as secretary of the interior to succeed Mr. Ballinger is a recognition of distinguished service in the cause of greater efficiency in the conduct of public affairs. He is one more among those whose efforts for better municipal government have led to high position in the national administration and wider opportunity to do for the whole country the same sort of public work which makes a citizen valuable to his city. The professional work of the secretary of war just prior to his appointment to Mr. Taft's cabinet was in Chicago, and curiously all three Chicagoans now holding portfolios, Secretary MacVeagh, Secretary Dickinson, and Secretary Fisher—come from the same ward, the twenty-first.



WALTER E. FISHER.

Mr. Fisher's connection with the conservation movement is of course the factor of immediate significance. He was president of the Conservation League of America, of which Mr. Roosevelt was honorary president, and Mr. Taft honorary vice-president. This league was merged into the National Conservation Association, of which Gifford Pinchot is president. Mr. Fisher's address at the conservation convention held last fall in St. Paul made a marked impression through its definite suggestions of practical methods in conservation administration.

Mr. Fisher's work as secretary, and later as president of the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago, has made him best known, however, to workers in the cause of better municipal government throughout the country. The successes steadily won by this militant civic organization in securing honest and able aldermen in the Chicago City Council, a body of very large powers, were due in great degree during a considerable period to the new secretary's forceful leadership. As this magazine said of him, "With a broad grasp of the political situation as a whole, and a mastery of minute campaign details, he has been able with boldness and tact so to play persons and forces over against one another as to enable the league to seize and wield with overwhelming success the balance of political power in aldermanic elections."

Perhaps no man in Chicago grasped so thoroughly and so clearly all the details and intricacies of Chicago's prolonged traction difficulties. This fact, together with his attainments as a lawyer, pointed to him as the man best qualified to serve as special counsel to the local transportation committee of the City Council through all the long and involved negotiations with the street railway companies.

More recently he has served as a member of the Merriam commission on municipal expenditures, displaying as its attorney the same cool judgment and unflinching aggressiveness in "seeing the thing through" which characterized his work in the Municipal Voters' League.

Active participation in the conservation movement is not the only way in which Mr. Fisher's service has counted nationally. Many organizations devoted to progressive civic reform have claimed his time and his constructive suggestions, while such conventions as those of the National Municipal League have listened keenly to his incisive utterances. Incidentally, special interest attaches to the fact in connection with his cabinet appointment, that as personal friend, adviser, and attorney Mr. Fisher has been identified with Charles R. Crane of Chicago, and helped in the preparation of Mr. Crane's public statements relative to the difficulties which followed the latter's appointment as minister to China.

Mr. Fisher was born in 1862. He went to Chicago in 1884, was admitted to the bar in 1888, and has been a member of the firm of Matz, Fisher, and Boyden. His all round public service to the city, expressed in so many ways, is summed up in his leadership as a founder, president, and active member of the City Club of Chicago. G. R. T.

PRESIDENT OF HEBREW CHARITIES

Leopold Plaut, who was recently elected president of the United Hebrew Charities of New York to succeed Cyrus L. Sulzberger, has been for a number of years a director of the Hebrew Technical School for Boys and the Jewish Protectory and Aid Society. He is chairman of the committee on economies of the Council of Jewish Communal Institutions, a body composed of fourteen of the largest Jewish philanthropic organizations in New

LEOPOLD PLAUT.

York. He is engaged in an investigation of the prices paid for commodities by various institutions with a view to securing minimum prices for all organizations. The investigation, though not completed, already shows that considerable saving can be effected.

Mr. Plaut's interest in social work, combined with many years of practical experience as the head of a large manufacturing concern, augurs well for a successful administration.

THE HILL AND WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS

Pittsburgh has lost her first citizen, if the term is used in its vital, human significance, as Roosevelt applied it years ago to Jacob Riis in New York. William H. Matthews, since 1902 headworker of Kingsley House, has definitely resigned that post and is spending the year with his family on a ranch at Miner, Idaho. In the early fall it became necessary, because of the illness of his boy, for Mr. Matthews to leave the steel center.

WILLIAM H. MATTHEWS.

Kingsley House is set on a hill overlooking the business district of Pittsburgh. Below, at the right, may be heard the unending noise of the Pennsylvania trains and of a rim of iron mills along the river. Up the hill, the length of Wylie avenue, are in turn the Italian, the Negro, and the Jewish quarters. For years it has been a region of old houses, inadequate sanitary equipment, overcrowding, ill health, and overwork, overlooked by the city in its pushing eagerness toward prosperity. In this region Mr. Matthews and his household settled and made it their home, made its interests theirs. And in the years which have followed he more than anyone else has been the spokesman for "the Hill," borne the brunt of its neglect and championed fearlessly its needs. In the April magazine number THE SURVEY will publish a parting message from Mr. Matthews to his people and to Pittsburgh.

It is by more than a coincidence that this evangelist of humanitarianism in a city of great works himself began work at twelve years of age. He worked twelve hours a day and says, whimsically, that the hours have never changed since, except upward. At sixteen he quit the factory and went away to fit himself for college, going in 1898 from Williams to Union Seminary in New York and dividing the next three years between the seminary and post graduate work at Columbia, largely under Professor Giddings. Next, Mr. Matthews took up boys' club work at Bethany Memorial, working there evenings in addition to his seminary courses, and following this with a year's work as assistant headworker at Union Settlement. Neighborhood workers in New York still refer to him as the man with the most unusual knack with boys. After six months' experience as an assistant pastor in New York, Mr. Matthews moved to Pittsburgh to become headworker of Kingsley House, which the year before had moved from the Penn avenue district to the Hill. Purely on the institutional side, the succeeding years were those of advance, of enlarged buildings, of an endowment fund growing from $5,000 in 1902 to $37,000 in 1910; a budget from $4,000 in 1902 to $26,000 in 1910 (with no debts); a city plant valued today at $70,000 without encumbrances. 1903 saw the installation of a manual training department with shop equipment and the opening of the Kingsley House yard as a public playground; 1905, a new gymnasium and industrial department; 1907, the addition of a trained district nurse to the house working staff and the establishment of a small dispensary; 1908, the opening of a weaving department, and in 1909, the settlement's site was fairly doubled. Equally gratifying has been the development of Lillian Home, the ground for which was purchased in 1902 and which today is one of the best equipped summer outing places in the country, its star shaped buildings having a capacity of 250 people (described in THE SURVEY for June 4, 1910).

But these institutional developments are only half the story. It was only four months after Mr. Matthews's coming to Pittsburgh that he published in the *Kingsley House Record* photographs showing the evil housing conditions he found about him. This was the precursor of a number of civic enterprises on his part, designed to improve conditions in the Hill district but reaching out also in the direction of reforms for the whole city, some in co-operation with other organizations, some as single-handed efforts. He was one of the staunchest supporters of Dr. Edwards in his work in clearing out the insanitary privy vaults of old Pittsburgh; repeatedly his fearless editorials in the *Kingsley House Record* have worked reforms in hospital management and brought new sense of responsibility to property owners. He was the first Pittsburgher to whom the Pittsburgh Survey turned for counsel and suggestion at the outset of its work. He issued two editions of a Charities Directory in 1908 and 1910. His last two contributions were in investigating the nefarious aldermen's courts on the Hill and in instituting a vice crusade in which his investigators showed beyond all question that under the present city administration the tenement districts were being invaded by houses of prostitution. No better example of the feeling of the Hill residents to the headworker of Kingsley House could be had than the dozens of

letters expressing regret at his departure and the visits from heads of families who urged him to keep up the fight for clean living, as they had no other spokesman.

Few men have had at once such frank relationships both with their fellow dwellers in the neighborhoods of the poor and with the ablest and most successful men in the business life of their community. Mr. Matthews has never minced matters, never trimmed his sails because of personal relationships. This fighting quality, coupled with a religious earnestness, is appreciated in Pittsburgh; it gives him unique standing in the town.

Without doing violence to the ranch industry of Idaho, it is to be hoped that another year will see Mr. Matthews again in harness for the social welfare. P. U. K.

MERRIAM, FOR MAYOR OF CHICAGO

Chicago's mayorality campaign grips the attention of everyone throughout the country who appreciates the extent to which municipal administration may render social service to the city dwellers by making their communities better places in which to live and work. For on April 4 the voters of Chicago will determine whether Charles E. Merriam, professor of political science in the University of Chicago, and one of the most efficient aldermen in the City Council, who was nominated for mayor at the first direct primary election Chicago has held for that office, shall be chosen to serve the people as chief executive.

Some years ago, in commenting upon the election of "Golden Rule" Sam Jones, in spite of its opposition, the *Toledo Blade* remarked, "They say the people have spoken, but they needn't have hollered so loud." The people's voice in this Chicago primary was sufficiently emphatic to smash two "machines" and place Mr. Merriam before the people as republican nominee by a vote almost equal to that of all the other republican candidates put together. His victory over the factional organizations led by Mayor Busse, Senator Lorimer, and Governor Deneen was a triumph of the popular will which would have been impossible under the old convention system. A feature of the fight which ought to be known all over the country is that even in Senator Lorimer's own ward his machine went down to defeat under the Merriam wave the very day before the United States Senate decided that he should retain his seat in that body.

In the democratic camp there was likewise a significant vote, though in considerable measure negative rather than positive. It was the utter rout of a candidate, backed by Roger C. Sullivan, national committeeman, and that element of the Democratic Party in alliance with the most unscrupulous special privilege interests in the city, whose insolent reliance upon the power of cash expenditures for organization workers, billboard splurges, and other advertising, and every sort of "legitimate" campaign expenses, received the popular condemnation it merited. This candidate ran a poor third. The extraordinary fight made by former Mayor Dunne in leading the reputable forces of the Democratic Party without newspaper support was a noteworthy expression of independent spirit. Mr. Dunne's margin under former Mayor Carter Harrison was so small that if only half of the vote rolled up for him in the ward of "Hinky Dink" Kenna and "Bath House" Coughlin were shaved off the victory would have gone to Dunne.

CHARLES E. MERRIAM.

Mr. Merriam is known to the readers of THE SURVEY chiefly through his work as originator and chairman of the Merriam Commission on Municipal Expenditures and Accounting, which resulted in the establishment of the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency.[1] This is by no means his only public service of importance. Although but thirty-six years old and a resident of Chicago only seven years, he has made his expert knowledge of municipal administration count effectively in efforts for the common welfare. He studied political science at Columbia University and in Germany before coming to the Chicago faculty. His volume on Primary Elections is considered authoritative. In 1906 he prepared for the City Club an important report on the municipal revenues of Chicago. Later he was secretary of the Harbor Commission of Chicago. As a member of the Chicago Charter Convention he fought for those popular provisions in the proposed charter which was later so mutilated by the Legislature that the voters of Chicago defeated it. In 1909

[1]See THE SURVEY for Sept. 4, 1909, page 737; for February 5, 1910, page 597; for August 13, 1910, page 699; and for September 3, 1910, page 750.

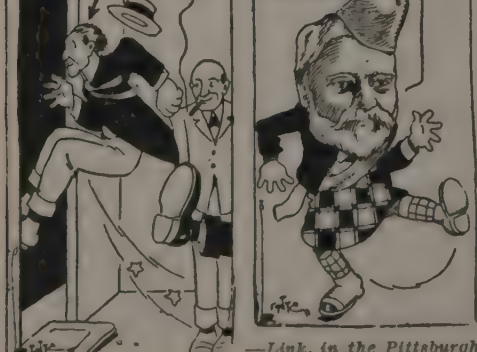
Professor Merriam was elected chairman from the University of Chicago ward by the biggest plurality ever given an aldermanic candidate in Chicago. He is a member of the council committee on gas, oil, and electric light. As THE SURVEY has related, the Merriam Commission not only disclosed graft in almost every department of the city hall, but has brought about and suggested important improvements in budget making and administration.

On a platform emphasizing the need for efficiency and the conservation of popular rights, he struck out heavily in his campaign speeches at graft, spoils, and special privilege. He is continuing the same fight, directing his own campaign, but welcoming support from the rank and file. G. R. T.

THE HUNGRY CLUB'S GRIDIRON

The Gridiron Club with its grillings of men in the public eye, at the hands of the newspaper men at Washington, has become a national institution. In Pittsburgh, recently, the scene was shifted to civic affairs and the Hungry Club, in skit and pantomime and verse, "took off", with even-handed impartiality, city officials, public bodies, and the uplifters themselves. The Hungry Club, the invention of a group of Pittsburgh social workers, has grown and prospered until its luncheon discussions have become a force for candor and publicity in the town's life. Two hundred and fifty guests were bid to "join the famished brotherhood" for an evening of "civic stunts, versatile vaudeville, and merry music." They were called together by Prof. H. E. Winner, principal of the Howard School, the ringmaster, who beat a huge tin pan with a spoon. The Hungry Club rhyme was sung to *Die Wacht am Rhein.*

We're loyal sons of Father Pitt
In search of wisdom, food and wit.
Our motto is our only law,
"Cum Cibo Sap-i-ent-i-a."
Ours is a true democracy,
Where thought and speech are ever free,
Here is philosophy, combined with grub.
Pitt's great fraternity, the Hungry Club.



—Link, in the Pittsburgh Press.

—Shiras, in The Pittsburgh Gazette Times.

A counterfeit Andrew Carnegie in kilties burst in on the diners; Dr. Cook inquired for the former president of the Chamber of Commerce who had welcomed him to the City with unction during his brief hey day; Bion J. Arnold, the traction expert, advised Father Pitt how "a loop" would double the carrying capacity of the Pittsburgh street railway, the loop produced being a double strap-hanger; the Pittsburgh Survey broke into the room only to be ejected; Allen T. Burns, secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, functioned valorously as Father Pitt; W. W. Kellor secretary of the Child Labor Committee, sang an Italian song with a Pittsburgh accent, getting off some limericks of which this is a sample:

The Chamber we can't fail to mention,
That be-whiskered old-ladies' convention.
It never arrives
But somehow it thrives
On the strength of its splendid intentions.

A "civic morality play," which rumor has it was written by P. C. Williams, assistant secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, boxed the compass with digs at the Chamber of Commerce, the mayor, the Voters' League and so on. The hero of the cast was a civic Charley Ross, Charter Bill by name, whom the machine wanted to kidnap and bring up as one of the gang. "Aunty Chamber" made Bill's clothes, consisting of small council pants, initiative, referendum and recall coat, and non-partisan ballot hat.

One hit of the evening was a parody on

What's the Matter With Father? It was delivered with vim:

> What's the matter with Pittsburgh?
> He's all right.
> Lime and water will never
> Make him white.
> All he needs is a thorough scrub,
> Get together, ye cit's, and rub.
> What's the matter with Pittsburgh?
> He's all right.

CAMPING OUT IN MADISON

The fourteen socialists members of the Wisconsin Legislature made a pool, rented four rooms in an old business block, bought iron bedsteads enough to go round, a big stove, a long table, and are putting in the winter in dormitory fashion. The rooms cost twenty-five dollars a month. Each man furnished his own bed clothing; several of them breakfast at the One-Minute Coffee House where coffee can be had at three cents a cup. A staff correspondent of the Cleveland *Press*, describes their barracks as follows:

"About the long table two state senators and twelve members of the House gather nightly to read new bills and thrash them out among themselves. Every night, when their work is over, the two senators and the twelve representatives sleep the sleep of the just on the little iron beds. . . . These socialists are terribly in earnest. They do not spend their evenings in lounging about the lobbies of hotels. . . . All their differences, if they have any, are settled here. When they come to pass on a bill they vote as one man.

"The personnel of the group? Oh, all sorts. Michael Katzban is a Polish molder. F. B. Metcalfe is a glass blower. E. K. Kiefer is a paperhanger. Arthur Kahn is organizer for the Milwaukee Bakers' Union. J. H. Vint is a cigar maker. So are Jacob Hahn and E. J. Berner. W. J. Golboy is a delivery clerk. George Klenzendorf is an architect. Max Binner is a bookkeeper (nicknamed "the capitalist" because once, when somebody in the House taunted the socialists with no real basis for interest in the question of taxation, he flaunted in the face of the joker a tax receipt as proof that he owned his own home). Frank J. Weber was a lake sailor for thirty years. This is his third term. The senators are Winfield R. Gaylord and Gabriel Zophy.

"The socialist group has demonstrated that a poor man can throw up his job to serve his constituents as a legislator on $500 a year without 'shaking down' any one for enough to live on, and that the business of lawmaking may be taken seriously."

FROM SOCIAL WORK TO POLITICS

William W. Kellor has resigned as secretary of the western section of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association, to become secretary of the Keystone Party for Allegheny county—the insurgent, reform political organization which took an aggressive part in the last state campaign. Mr. Kellor was formerly headworker of the Franklin Street Settlement, Detroit, and later an agent of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities. His transfer to political activity is perhaps a sign of the times in Pennsylvania, where the participants in reform organizations are more and more seeking state political action as a means for securing changes which the dominant political machine of the state has long refused.

SOCIAL WORKER IN WHITE HOUSE

The appointment of Charles D. Hilles as secretary to President Taft brings to the White House not only a highly trained executive officer, but a man who is in the closest touch with all forms of social work.

CHARLES D. HILLES.

Mr. Hilles is president of the New York Juvenile Asylum and was its superintendent until his appointment as assistant secretary of the treasury in April, 1909. He was chosen for the place in the Treasury Department particularly for his experience in the erection of the Children's Village, the cottage institution of the Juvenile Asylum, which made him a peculiarly valuable man in charge of the erection of new government buildings in all parts of the country. His success in this position and the place he quickly made for himself in Washington led to the appointment at the White House.

Mr. Hilles was born in Ohio in 1867 and held his first position in social work as financial officer of the Boys' Industrial School at Lancaster, O., of which he was later superintendent. From there he went to the New York Juvenile Asylum. He is a member of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, of the National Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant, and Delinquent Children, and of the Playground Association of America.

At the time of his resignation from the Juvenile Asylum it was said of him in the annual report: "He has shown how the position which he occupied could be made one of commanding influence on the lives of hundreds of lads whose previous associates had started them in the wrong way of life, but who under wise and loving direction and companionship could be made useful citizens, and who were just at the period of life when such an influence was most easily exercised and most powerfully effective." A. P. K.

MR. FORD LEAVES PUBLIC OFFICE

Frederick L. Ford, who has for fifteen years served Hartford faithfully and with ability, has resigned his place as city engineer. He enjoys the confidence and esteem of his fellow townsmen, being a prophet who is honored in his own country. Mr. Ford is known throughout the United States because of his prominence in the work of the National Civic Association and the National Conference on City Planning. He has contributed to the technical literature of his profession and lectured in all parts of the country on such subjects as the grouping of public buildings, street improvements, and public comfort and trolley waiting stations. Though Hartford loses an official of integrity, who stood for fairness in his dealings with the city, with contractors, and with his associates, his townsmen will still have his services as a citizen on its high school building commission. Mr. Ford on April 1 becomes a member of the firm of Ford, Buck and Sheldon, having as associates men who secured their start as his assistants in public office. He expects to make a specialty of city planning in which he is much interested, and for which his breadth of view and his appreciation of the ethical side of municipal progress fit him. J. P. H.

JOHN MITCHELL'S RESIGNATION

On February 15 John Mitchell resigned as member of the National Civic Federation, as member of its executive counsel, and as chairman of the trade agreement department. In accepting his resignation, President Seth Low called attention to the fact that it was made in the face of a specific proposal on the part of the federation to renew its contract with Mr. Mitchell for another term of three years. Readers of THE SURVEY are referred to Professor Taylor's review (issue of March 4) of the action of the United Mine Workers of America, which made it necessary for Mr. Mitchell to resign from the Civic Federation or forfeit his union card. In his letter Mr. Low spoke appreciatively of the work Mr. Mitchell has done for industrial peace as chairman of the trade agreement department during the last two years and a half. "Only your colleagues in the active administration of the National Civic Federation can fully understand how helpful you have been in bringing about a better understanding between employers and employes in all sorts of directions. I feel personally under special obligations to you for enabling me to understand better than ever before the workingmen's point of view on many questions of vital interest, and I want to say that it has been a personal pleasure to be associated with you and to work with you."

[1]See THE SURVEY, March 4, page 964.

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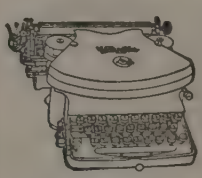

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Charities Review, eight volumes, complete, bound half roan. Charities (later Charities and the Commons) twenty-one volumes, unbound, complete. Proceedings of N. C. C. bound, complete except 1878 and 1878; 34 volumes. Address M. R. COOLIDGE, Dwight Way End, BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA.

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On April 5th and 6th, the Bellevue Nurses Alumnæ Association will give a Fair and Bazaar for the benefit of their new Club House. Any contributions of articles that can be placed on sale or cash will be gratefully received at Osborn Hall, 426 East 26th Street.

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SOCIAL FORCES

BY THE EDITOR

THE DISCOVERY OF THE INDIVIDUAL.

It is quite true that we have never entirely lost sight of him. We social reformers, who have been so vehement in our advocacy of better social conditions, have mainly not had in mind a vague abstract society for whose sake these improvements are to be made. Our powers of distant social visualization are limited. Mostly we have thought of live men and women, or of our children and our neighbors' children. We have objected to a high death rate, not from a scientific statistical interest in death rates as such, but because it means for us that particular babies whom we know about are dying from poisoned milk and from mother's ignorance; because it means for us that a young girl with all the joy of living surging through her being is slipping into a premature consumptive's grave; because it means for us that through some fatal industrial accident to a wage-earner, a family which has been a self-contained, self-supporting, self-respecting unit of society is suddenly before our eyes transformed into a shattered, fragmentary remnant of a family, appealing to external aid, a "dependent family in its home," to be studied, to be relieved, to be rehabilitated, if possible, but at any rate, because of this high death rate, to be robbed forever of the proud satisfaction of having been above the need of charity. We have by no means forgotten the individual. The question is whether we have sufficiently understood him. There is no advantage in a feeling of sympathy for individual men, women, and children, if that sympathy does not become intelligent and discriminating. Human sympathy may be quite as barren as an abstract interest in death rates. There is no merit in feeling for the woes of humanity if we do not under the impulse of that sentiment direct our energies to an understanding of the cause of their sufferings and to practical remedies.

The first natural response to the sentiment of sympathy with an individual who suffers is to relieve his distress. This response is altogether commendable and it can never be replaced by any other. The more completely the social nature is developed the more prompt and generous and the more instinctive should be this response in the presence or even in the knowledge of any form of relievable distress. The second natural response to this original sentiment of sympathy is to consider whether there is some cause for the distress which can be removed or mitigated. Curiously enough this inquiry was turned at first and most persistently on the past life and conduct of the individual sufferer and on those of the other members of his family. If a man is blind the sin must be either his or that of his parents. Even when he is known to have been born blind, as in the incident related in the Bible, we still raise the foolish and illogical question as to whether the blindness is not in some way due to his own fault. In that ancient instance even after the cure the rehabilitated family is not allowed to go its way in peace. The parents are dragged again into unwelcome publicity and are made to tell lies in fear of their inquisitors. They acknowledge their paternity and testify to his blindness at birth, but they do not know who

opened his eyes or how it was done. They get out of their difficulties by the sudden recollection that the son is of age, but there is no such escape for the beneficiary of the miraculous operation. He seems only to have expressed a natural appreciation of the benefit which he had received and a pious belief that the healer must have had divine power; but the result is that he is pronounced to be altogether a sinner and is cast out.

His hard luck has many a modern analogy. Those who investigate to determine worthiness are following in the footsteps of their ancestors who asked whether this man had sinned or his father; and those who push unwarranted inquiries into family relationships are no wiser than the bystanders who insisted on trying to get from the parents details with which they had no legitimate concern, and who summarily cast out the first man whom they had ever seen cured of congenital blindness. They were neither scientific nor humane. No more are we when we fail to see what is happening in the prevention of blindness in our own communities; and when we persist in seeking individual causes for such evils as are plainly social.

The third stage in the development of the sentiment of sympathy is the discovery of social causes of misery. We have dwelt upon these very often and we shall have frequent occasion to discuss them again. What we wish to point out is that there is a fourth stage, or perhaps we should say a way of return to the second stage of which we have just been speaking, but a way which is free from the injustice and stupidity involved in the classical illustration to which we have referred. There are individual as well as social causes of distress, but they may be studied and taken into the fullest possible account without incurring the reproach of having formed harsh and unjust judgments.

The individual may be studied sympathetically and with understanding—not to find if he is worthy—but to find how he may be helped. Parents may be asked about the blind son, not to convict them or him of sin, but to learn whether it is a case in which spittle and clay will effect a cure. Physical differences and mental differences may be taken into account, not to enable us to reward some and cast out others, but in order that we may know what opportunities to offer, what conditions to change, what income it is necessary to provide, against what temptations it is essential to guard.

The medical diagnostician and the clinical psychologist are as necessary to the social worker as the sanitarian, the employment agency, and the relief fund. Individual and family rehabilitation is our specific task, and discriminating and thorough knowledge of individuals is a fundamental means to that end. We must know to what motives particular individuals will respond, what are their special weaknesses and dangers, what are their strong points and their exceptional capacities. We must become able to "size up" individuals, as our employer "sizes up" applicants for a position, except that we have no such easy task as his negative decision. On our power of seeing what is individual, what is exceptional, what is promising in his situation, all our real usefulness in our relation to him depends. We must rediscover the individual with unabated interest in social causes and with equal determination to apply both individual and social remedies.

THE COMMON WELFARE

"KNOW YOUR CITY" WEEK IN TRENTON

Trenton, N. J., like most other cities, has been going through social and industrial changes in the last generation or so. Some of its people have felt that new conditions called for a new diagnosis. In the early winter, the Trenton Young Women's Christian Association, under the leadership of Caroline B. Smith, general secretary, and Edith C. Moon, president, started an "it-is-to-know" campaign, and a day in January was set for beginning the community inventory. The Chamber of Commerce, Civic Improvement Commission, Y. M. C. A., Board of Education, merchants and manufacturers, churches, hospitals, and other organizations co-operated. A day, the original idea, almost over night expanded into a week—a "know your city week." The newspapers gave the project generous publicity.

The week started on Sunday with a religious day, the ministers preaching special sermons and holding special meetings at the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A. On Monday, educational day, the public schools gave exhibitions of their industrial work and held "know Trenton" exercises; the Public Library displayed old and new prints, books, and autograph letters of local color, and a contest, with prizes, for the best essay on Trenton was announced. Civics day, Tuesday, was given over to a state convention on the commission form of government, called at the instance of the Chamber of Commerce, and Commis-

IN TRENTON WITH A CAMERA.

sioner John MacVicar of Des Moines outlined results in Iowa's capital city. In the evening President J. Horace McFarland of the American Civic Association lectured on City Ugliness, and threw on the screen the results of a camera tour around Trenton. Wednesday was children's welfare day; Thursday and Friday, general welfare days; and Thursday evening Governor Woodrow Wilson spoke on the duties of good citizenship. Merchants gave their display windows to manufacturers for the exhibition of "Trenton made" goods, and the exhibit was a revelation even to Trentonians.

The most stimulating facts brought out seemed to be those showing "city ugliness" and those dealing with health conditions. It was stated that the latest available reports of the Census Bureau (1909) show that out of every 100 deaths at all ages in Trenton in that year, 23 were of children under one year of age; that 30 out of every 100 were of children under five; that 12 per cent of all the deaths in 1909 resulted from diseases of the digestive system, diseases very generally related to the water supply (Trenton uses raw Delaware river water), diseases now believed by experts to be largely preventable; that of the other causes of death, tuberculosis (much of it preventable also) was responsible for one-sixth of the total number; that this tuberculosis death rate was 244.4 per 100,000 of the population, a figure nearly fifty per cent higher than the average rate for all of the United States in which vital statistics are recorded; that the number of persons killed by accident in Trenton in 1909 was at the rate of 113.2 to the 100,000 of the population, the number being greater than all the deaths in the year from typhoid, malaria, smallpox, measles, diphtheria, meningitis, influenza, and whooping-cough put together; that at this rate it would take only about two generations to kill as many persons as were killed on both sides at Gettysburg; that the death rate from all causes, in 1909, was 17.5 in 1000 persons—a death rate higher than that of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, or Buffalo—higher also than that of any of the following cities which are nearer Trenton's own size: Indianapolis, Springfield, Mass; Rochester, N. Y.; Harrisburg, Reading, Scranton, Paterson, Camden, or Newark, and 20 per cent higher than in some of these.

Civic and health facts of this sort, coming to an audience which on the day before, when the question was raised, was unable to give the city's tuberculosis death rate for any recent year, were a challenge. It was accepted, and in less than a week plans were outlined for beautifying the city, improving health conditions, and federating relief agencies. Not the least among the good results of the week was the co-operation developed between organizations and individuals working for city and individual improvement, for the exchange of data and the formulation of plans.

WHAT IS READ IN AMERICA

A layman at a convention of librarians nowadays might almost feel himself at a conference of charities or some other gathering of social workers. Little is said—at least on the program—of the technique of cataloguing and other matters that go on behind the stacks, and much of the ways in which the librarian may make his place one of prime social importance in his community.

At the recent meeting of the New Jersey Library Association and the Pennsylvania Library Club at Atlantic City the principal address was on Outside the Walls. It was an urgent message to librarians to do their necessary office work quickly, and then get out among the people. James I. Wyer, Jr., director of the New York State Library and president of the American Library Association, who was the speaker, would reverse the customary method of circulating books. That involved a librarian in his library giving out books to those who asked for them. Mr. Wyer would have the librarian go first, and the books follow him. The librarian should join the Chamber of Commerce, call on the teachers, the ministers, the superintendents of factories, accept every opportunity to

speak in public, meet every one possible in his city. Then he can arrange for wider distribution; comparatively few people seek out books in a library, but nearly every one will read them if they are made easy of access in school, and factory, and home.

Further, a librarian who was such a "mixer" as he described would know something of what the American people read. Mr. Wyer said: "The American people do far the greater part of their reading outside the walls or even beyond the influence of the libraries." They read newspapers, magazines, and books, in the order named. Newspapers are first, "but a negligible fraction of them are read in the library, and the library's attitude towards newspapers for current reading and newspaper reading rooms is increasingly inhospitable."

The magazines "most read are not read in the library or found in library reading rooms"—indeed Mr. Wyer believes that the very names of some of the most popular magazines are unknown to librarians. The ten of largest circulation are *Woman's World, Ladies' Home Journal, Saturday Evening Post, Comfort,* Vickery and Hill list (a group of several periodicals), *Associated Sunday Magazines, McCall's, Home Life, Delineator,* and *Munsey's.*

So, too, with books:

> Not those of the dubious literary aristocracy who make up the *Bookman's* list of best sellers, but Mary J. Holmes and E. P. Roe are the most popular American authors with sales of three and five million copies respectively, and Ann S. Stephens and Marion Harland not far behind. The works of these authors do not appear in the American Library Association catalogue, nor in any self-respecting library's best books list, yet they are unimpeachable in morals, have undoubted earnestness and sincerity and many touches of real idealism.
>
> It is plain, then, that to know what the people are reading we must go outside the walls of our libraries.

The descriptive address by Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League, on civic periodicals must have been of great value to a librarian who wishes to keep his readers up to date on this very special and important element in a modern library. In the United States there are no less than 140 periodicals which treat of municipal government.

GET AT THE FACTS TO SETTLE EXPRESS STRIKE

After less than four uneasy months under the terms of the settlement of last November, a large number of Adams Express drivers in New York went out again on March 11. The circumstances attending the present strike offer a particularly good opportunity for applying that clause in the New York labor law which provides that the commissioner of labor may, when he deems necessary, order an official inquiry by the Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration, which shall, in this investigation, exercise the same powers as in cases where arbitration is invited by either party to the dispute.

This power is suggestive of the Canadian industrial disputes act now in force, though it is wider in application and does not, like the Canadian act, require the suspension of hostilities during investigation. It is seldom exercised, as it is officially stated, on account of the expense involved. Its object, as has been said of the Canadian act, is to bring to bear through publicity the power of well-informed public opinion, which can then be relied upon to prevent or shorten the disturbance.

The latest example of the use of compulsory investigation in New York was in the trouble at the International Paper Pulp Company's mills last May which involved 3,000 employes, more than half the total number in all the mills of the company.

After two months' strike the inconvenience caused business men by the vastly decreased output of the mills, and the military supervision required by disorder aroused so loud a public clamor for arbitration that a compulsory investigation was begun on May 19. The publicity given by this investigation had much to do with bringing about a speedy settlement. Even more important, in the opinion of the Bureau of Arbitration, the investigation cleared up unsettled questions that had made trouble periodically either between employer and employes or between different groups of

employes, and put both sides in better relations with each other than had existed for years.

The announcement by the commissioner of labor that he was about to direct the Board of Arbitration to exercise its powers in the last express strike is believed to have had considerable influence in bringing about a speedy settlement.

The question at issue in the express strike seems to call especially for a thorough investigation into what has been going on since the November settlement. The power of bringing public opinion to bear by bringing the facts to light, and of clearing the air between the parties to a controversy, is a strong argument in favor of compulsory investigation. One member of the Board of Arbitration has recommended that when a strike has reached such proportions that the militia is called out, this very act should automatically carry with it compulsory investigation and publicity in regard to causes.

TO PREVENT NEXT SUMMER'S DEATHS

With the sites chosen for the fifteen municipal milk depots which are soon to be established by New York, the equipment and administrative details decided upon, and the conditions of the agreements for supplying milk very largely settled, the Department of Health expects to have all stations in operation by early April. Since Manhattan already has thirty-one volunteer stations the year round while Brooklyn has but four, with a large area in need of them, nine depots will be located in Brooklyn, five will be in Manhattan—four of them on the East Side below Fourteenth street, and one in the Bronx in an Italian neighborhood which had a high infant mortality last summer.

The appropriation by the city of $40,000 will supply five supervising inspectors, physicians, who will be at each of three stations on two days in the week; fifteen nurses and fifteen assistant nurses, and five cleaners. Stations will be open every day, including Sundays. The city will have nothing to do with cash transactions involved in the sale of this milk, but will enter into agreements with milk producers guaranteeing the quality and fixing maximum prices which may be charged.

The municipality gives no outdoor relief. Mothers who cannot pay for milk are not to be relieved by below-cost sales; they will be relieved through funds raised by the New York Milk Committee and distributed by the large local relief organizations after investigation.

The department has determined upon two grades of milk suitable for infant feeding, which dealers using the stations must agree to furnish. "Baby Raw Milk No. 1" must either conform to the requirements laid down for certified milk by the milk commissions of the County Medical Societies, or must be "guaranteed" milk which is produced on farms holding permits therefor from the Board of Health. The requirements for guaranteed milk are practically identical with those for certified milk. "Babies' Pasteurized Milk No. 2" must be from farms holding certificates from the department showing that at least seventy-five per cent of the rules and regulations governing the production and handling of milk have been complied with.

The New York Milk Committee estimates that sixty additional depots are needed to save the babies who die needlessly in Manhattan each year. To establish and maintain these depots and provide relief for one year, the committee figures that $300,000 will be required. Since no further city appropriation is available before next year, the committee, which now conducts four depots of the same type as those to be opened by the Health Department, has undertaken an energetic campaign to raise as large a part as possible of the sum necessary for establishing new depots this summer.

EDITORIAL GRIST

MINNESOTA LEADS

If you are fortunate enough to get hold of *Part II of the Twelfth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Industries and Commerce of the State of Minnesota, 1909-10,* don't throw it away or lay

it on the top shelf to be thrown away next year. Read it. Minnesota is the first state which has made an effort to count its killed and injured, and this report is a record of the first year's count. It is the most complete statistical study of work-accidents that has yet appeared in this country.

In 1909, at the same time that it created a commission on employers' liability as eleven other states have done, the Legislature of Minnesota was wise enough to pass a law requiring "every employer of labor engaged in industrial pursuits" to make a report of any and all accidents to his employes within the scope of their employment. This report must include not only the usual information as to "age, sex, occupation," "cause, nature, and extent of injury," but also, "the wages of the injured person," "a statement of all expenses, costs, damages, and compensation to which the employer is put on account of the injury,"—and a good deal of other information.

New York state, which requires railroads, and gas, and electric corporations to report accidents to the Public Service Commissions, and requires the reporting of accidents in factories, mines, tunnels, and quarries, and since September, 1910, in construction, excavation, and engineering work—to the Labor Department—probably goes as far in collecting accident statistics as any other state in the Union except Minnesota. The new law in Minnesota really makes complete work-accident statistics possible. It apparently requires the reporting of accidents in all employments in industries conducted for gain or profit. One of the most significant things about this first report is that although the statistics must be very incomplete in the industries where employers are not yet used to reporting, and where the Labor Department must depend largely upon the newspapers for their first notification of accidents—they already indicate what a very large number of accidents occur of a class which in all other states go quite unrecorded. Thus the total record for the year in Minnesota industries was 342 deaths, and 10,463 injuries. Of course the great majority of these occur in railroading, mining, manufacture and lumber industries. But 37 deaths and 717 injuries come under "contracting"; 4 deaths and 52 injuries under "hotels and mercantile"; 7 deaths and 17 injuries under "livery and teaming"; 12 deaths and 51 injuries under "agriculture," and so on.

The report on accidents is the work of Don D. Lescohier, special agent of the bureau. It is at once graphic in a human sort of way, and practical in its incisive analysis. A table showing the personal cause of accidents according to the employer's opinion is an example of its illuminating features. In only 10 per cent of cases did the employer blame the accident exclusively on the injured workmen's negligence while in 61 per cent he laid it altogether to trade hazard. (In 4 cases or 10 per cent the employer actually reported the accidents as due to his own negligence!) There is a most interesting tabulation of Minnesota Supreme Court decisions in employers' liability cases during the past two years.

In all but 25 out of 120 cases there was a judgment for the plaintiff in the trial court and most of these judgments were affirmed. If Minnesota is typical, the western courts must lean more toward the injured workman in interpreting the liability law than the courts in some of our eastern states, Pennsylvania for instance.

A special investigation of 300 cases was conducted by the department, the results of which are given in tabular form, and also in the form of a digest. Two cases can be quoted from the latter to show the unusually interesting way in which the facts are presented:

13. Assistant engineer at a municipal electric plant. A gasoline engine stood in the middle of the floor about three feet from a valve and the shaft upon which it operates. A clutch on the valve shaft was about three feet from the floor, on the side toward the engine, and revolved rapidly.

Deceased had orders to open the valve before he started the engine. The supposition is that he forgot to do so before he started the engine, but stooped over to do so afterward. He wore a loose flapping jacket, which probably blew against the clutch. He was whirled about the end of the shaft, striking the floor each time as he went around and was killed.

The deceased was notoriously careless and

had been served with a ten-day notice of dismissal. On the seventh day he was killed.

Both the city and the deceased were at fault. The place where he was killed was unnecessarily dangerous and has since been protected. The man had been warned of the danger of wearing a loose jacket. A wife and two-year-old child survived his death. Injured carried $200 insurance in addition to $800 fraternal insurance. The city offered to settle for $250. Funeral expenses, $75; wages, $10.

14. Boy laborer at lumber mill; fourteen and one-half years old. Attempted to climb from one floor to the other in the mill on the rope that is used to run the elevator. Slipped and fell to the bottom of the shaft. Funeral expenses, $116.50. Employer paid funeral expenses and gave six months' wages, $78; wages $3.

It has been noticed, both in our field of investigations and in the accident reports sent in by employers, that a much larger per cent of the accidents to boys and girls under twenty-one years of age are due to personal carelessness or recklessness than of accidents to persons of maturer years. This raises the question, where shall we draw the line as to what constitutes personal negligence? Shall we hold every person to the standard of perfect common sense, judgment and care, and say that every accident due to human forgetfulness, thoughtlessness, overconfidence, ignorance, recklessness, etc., is an accident caused by negligence? If so, we shall double the percentage due to the indifference, carelessness or deliberate refusal to spend for the workman's protection upon the part of the employer.

On the other hand, shall we recognize human frailties—forgetfulness, recklessness (particularly of the young) ignorance, faulty judgment, misunderstanding of orders or processes, etc., as being unavoidable, non-eradicable and inevitable, as cave-ins, washouts, broken machinery, and runaway horses?

For those who are studying the problem of prevention, Chapters V to XIV, which contain a detailed discussion of the causes of accidents actually reported in different industries, are most valuable. The live, practically useful manner in which these statistics are presented is illustrated in the following paragraphs:

SCAFFOLDS

More than one-half of those injured by falling fell from scaffolds. In twenty-four cases the scaffolds broke because made of defective materials, or because constructed in a slip-shod manner. A few illustrations will make this clear: A carpenter was working on a scaffold about the eaves of a new house when he stepped on a defective plank and fell through the scaffold, sustaining body bruises. Another carpenter fell twenty feet while working on an elevator because a defective timber in the supports of the scaffold caused the scaffold to fall. He injured his head and dislocated his shoulder. Twelve other accidents in similar ways, one of them fatal, and a ninth because a scaffold was not strong enough to support the amount of cement blocks that a mason piled on it. These accidents due to poor construction are frequently chargeable to the workmen. An electrician working on a scaffold fell off, supposedly because he stepped off backwards. He had rearranged the scaffolding carelessly. A structural iron worker was removing planking from a scaffold on which he had been working when a needle-beam, insecurely fastened in a loop of rope, slipped out and caused him to fall two stories. A painter was hanging a swinging scaffold. He placed the stirrups too far apart. When he got on the platform the boards slipped out of the stirrups and allowed him to fall to the street. His partner had warned him that the scaffold was not safe and refused to go on it. Four men were hurt while building or tearing down scaffolds. In one case the workman was careless and did not properly fasten his supports. In two cases the scaffold broke. In the other the man slipped.

Defective scaffolds are not the only kind that cause men to fall. As large a number of men were injured by stepping backwards from scaffolds or losing their balance while working on them as by falling because the scaffolds broke. These accidents are all very similar.

"Mr. —— lost his balance while at work on a scaffold at the —— building and broke his leg." "Mr. —— stepped backwards off of a scaffold today and sustained painful bruises and internal injuries." "Mr. —— fell from a scaffold while repairing a house today and broke his arm in two places." Occasionally a different element enters into the causes as in an accident to a roofer working on a scaffold who lost his balance while trying to open a window and fell seventy-five feet to his death.

LAUNDRIES

It is quite certain that the Bureau of Labor has been unable in the past year to gain any satisfactory knowledge of the number of laundry accidents that have occurred. Only three serious and five severe accidents were reported, but it is beyond question that many more occurred. Six of the accidents reported were caused by machinery, and one by hot water. The cause of the other is unknown. One of the accidents was caused by a shaft which caught the employe and hurled him to the floor, badly bruising him. Three happened on the ironing machine, or "mangle." In each case a girl's hand was caught and crushed under the rolls. One of these girls lost a finger and all of them were in danger of very serious injury. Mangle accidents are no longer necessary. The automatic electric stop already referred to in this chapter is an effectual preventive. The most careless girl cannot be injured when her machine is equipped with one of them. A laundry driver's leg was broken in a runaway, his horse overturning the sleigh.

Among the appendices is included a good bibliography on Industrial Accidents, employers' liability and workmen's compensation.

Unusual as the report is this is in many respects, its chief claim to attention is that it presents the valuable results of a comprehensive accident reporting law after one year's trial. The demonstration is of national significance. Among the appendices included in the first report of the New York Employers' Liability Commission last year, was an estimate of the proportion of industrial accidents in New York state of which no record is kept. This was a careful estimate based on a study of coroners' inquests and hospital records. It indicated that probably not more than half of the serious and fatal accidents of employment were reported at that time. One of the commission's recommendations last year resulted in a law requiring the reporting of building accidents. It is to be hoped that when this commission reports this spring on the Causes and Prevention of Industrial Accidents, it will follow the lead of Minnesota, and put the New York state Labor Department in a position to collect and publish complete accident statistics, covering all industries—an obviously necessary basis for intelligent efforts toward accident prevention.

EIGHT HOURS

JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK
National Consumers' League

The East and middle West are left far behind by the new laws for working women in two Pacific states, California and Washington. In both states the Legislatures have just passed bills, now awaiting the governors' signatures, providing for an eight hours day and forty-eight hours week. These are the first comprehensive eight hours laws for women and mark a notable advance in the protection of working women.

The text of the Washington bill is not yet at hand. The California bill includes all women "employed in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment, laundry, hotel, or restaurant, or telegraph or telephone establishment or office, or by any express or transportation company." Small wonder that an eye witness reports the bill the "hardest fought of the session!" It passed the Assembly unanimously; at the final vote in the Senate seven amendments were offered from the floor, but the bill finally passed by a vote of thirty-four to five.

The opposition of the laundry, hotel, restaurant, and fruit growing interests was especially strong, and to the great regret of the bill's defenders an important exemption had to be conceded in order to save the rest of the measure. This provides that the limitation of working hours "shall not apply to nor affect the harvesting, curing, canning, or drying any variety of perishable fruit or vegetable."

Considering the large number of women employed in the canneries and the long duration of the canning season in California, this exemption is particularly bad. Yet the skill and energy shown by the defenders of the eight hours bill, in and out of the Legislature led by Maud Younger, suggest that at another session the women employed in the canneries will at least be partially protected by some limitation of their working hours. A strong, though ineffectual, fight was put up against the exemption this year with the cry of: Save the perishable women! in reply to the canners': Save the perishable fruit!

The same interests which procured an exemption of the law in California were successful in Washington also. Fruit and fish canning establishments are exempted but it is especially provided that if this exemption should be held unconstitutional by the courts, the exempted industries shall be included in the scope of the law.

Bills providing for an eight hours day for women have also been introduced in Colorado, Minnesota, Nevada, Ohio, Montana, and Wyoming, with chances of being amended so as to allow a larger working day. In Colorado the Manufacturers' Association through its president, T. E. Williams, has issued an address to the state Senate in opposition to the proposed law, asserting that their "charity accounts alone will run more than $2,000 per year each, besides a great

deal more that we do not keep track of," and feelingly asks the senators: "Do you gentlemen believe that business men who interest themselves and give liberally to such charities that I mention, need any legislation to make them care for the health, happiness, and welfare of their own female employes?"

Some other important pending bills designed to shorten women's hours of labor are as follows:

In Illinois it is proposed to extend the present ten hours law, which applies only to women employed in factories and laundries, so as to include women employed in mercantile establishments, hotels, restaurants, telephone offices, etc.

In Missouri, after a most effective campaign, a bill passed the House, prohibiting the employment of women employed in factories and laundries more than nine hours in one day and fifty-four hours in one week. In the Senate, it was amended so as to include mercantile establishments. The House has accepted this amendment and the bill awaits Governor Hadley's signature.

In Wisconsin and New Jersey bills are pending which provide for a ten hours day for women.

The bill before the Delaware Legislature prohibits the employment of any adult woman more than ten hours in any day, and the employment of any girl under eighteen years more than nine hours in any day. Special opposition has arisen to the section which forbids the employment of adult women after 10 P. M. and of girls under eighteen years after 7 P. M.

In New York a bill is before the Legislature which seeks to remedy the present provision of the labor law permitting the employment of women in factories twelve hours in one day, provided that the weekly total does not exceed sixty hours. Four years ago the New York law was amended so as to reduce the maximum hours in factories from fourteen to twelve hours in one day, but the law has remained practically non-enforcible on account of the shifting schedule which it allows. The new bill follows the Michigan statute of 1909. It limits women's work in factories to nine hours in one day, except that women may be employed ten hours if the total week's work does not exceed fifty-four hours. The bill is strongly urged by organized labor, but a favorable hearing before the Assembly committee has been followed by violent opposition.

In connection with such state action for reducing women's hours of labor, mention should here be made of a bill introduced into Congress by Senator La Follette, shortly before it adjourned. This was done at the instance of the National Consumers' League. Since the child labor law of the District of Columbia protects from overwork girls up to the age of sixteen years only, all young girls over sixteen years as well as adult women may be employed any number of hours. While the number of women employed in manufacture in the District is not large, many are working in the laundries, stores, hotels, etc., in Washington.

The bill drawn by the National Consumers' League provides for a ten hours working day and a working week of sixty hours for women employed in any kind of manufacture, including dressmaking and millinery establishments, in stores, hotels, and restaurants, or by any express or transportation company, or in the transmission or distribution of telegraph or telephone messages. It also prohibits the night work of women between 10 P. M. and 7 A. M.—a form of work which fourteen European nations have agreed, by international treaty, to abolish, but which is prohibited in only three American states, Massachusetts, Indiana, and Nebraska!

GRAFT, CHILDHOOD, AND THE CHURCH

RUDOLPH I. COFFEE
Tree of Life Synagogue, Pittsburgh

On February 15, The Voters' League of Pittsburgh issued a bulletin concerning the public schools of the city. The opening sentence of that report said that the schools "are operated under a system inviting dishonesty and incompetency." Facts were given which clearly proved both contentions. So remarkable was this exposé that it was published all over the land. What effect did the

publication of this report have upon Pittsburgh?

To understand the situation, a brief outline of the school system is needed:

> There is a central board of Pittsburgh, and a central board of Allegheny, and in Pittsburgh there are forty-six and in Allegheny fifteen sub-districts, with 412 school directors. Each of the sixty-one sub-districts and the two central boards is a separate business organization, with power to raise tax and spend money. Thus there are sixty-three distinct and separate books of account, sixty-three different business aggregations, each engaged in large operations.[1]

The schools of Allegheny are better managed, and will not be further mentioned in this review.

An analysis of the personnel of the school directors by the Voters' League showed that

> there are fourteen bartenders and saloon keepers; thirty-eight directors holding public jobs; seven who have no legitimate occupation, (such as professional gamblers and the like); thirty-six laborers, including the lowest grade of unskilled mill-workers, drivers, watchmen, and waiters; there are sixteen contractors and builders, some of whom are engaged in public school contracting; nineteen storekeepers, a majority of whom own small grocery stores; twenty-three workmen engaged in the various trades, such as machinists, plumbers, tailors, barbers, printers, carpenters, plasterers, etc.; five conducting small real estate and insurance businesses; thirty-seven clerks, including bookkeeper, collectors, and salesmen,—seven prominent men throughout the city in business life; twenty-four in professional occupations, thirteen physicians, six dentists, and three attorneys. Of those holding positions, such as managers, secretaries, auditors, superintendents, and foremen, there are twenty-two. The good boards being composed almost entirely of good men, few good men are left to leaven the other boards.

The above shows the caliber of the men "who by lack of educational advantages and business training could not, no matter how honest, be expected to administer properly the affairs of an educational system requiring special knowledge and where millions are spent each year." These facts explain how the increased expenditures for school purposes during the years 1900-1909 amounted to fifty-four per cent, while the number of pupils increased but twenty-three per cent.

[1] See the Elementary Schools of Pittsburgh, by Lila V. North. (The Pittsburgh Survey findings.) *Charities and the Commons*, March 6, 1909.

The Bulletin contains many specific instances of deliberate graft. In many schools the board gives an annual picnic. "Some of these school picnics have been nothing more than drunken orgies for the directors and their dissolute and disreputable friends." A man who confessed to the Voters' League said, "I recollect one picnic where . . . I paid a board $1,400 graft. The picnic itself cost but $1,500. The original check made out to me was for $2,900 covering all the tickets originally for which I gave proper receipts. The directors brought this check to me after the picnic for their refund which amounted to $1,400."

"The central board is no better managed than the sub-districts." For fifteen years a constant effort was made to provide additional high school facilities. "Up to this time the board, according to a report submitted to it, has paid out to architects and attorneys $16,000 and bills have been filed against it by architects amounting to $122,050 more, and has nothing to show for it."

One month ago, this report was made to the citizens of Pittsburgh. Every newspaper contained the findings and commented editorially. Not a single paper denied the truth of the charges. There were the statements about the directors, about a fifteen-year struggle for a high school and no advance made, about school money deposited in Pittsburgh banks these past ten years amounting to $21,566,000, yet only $129,584 had been received in interest on deposits, while over a million dollars had been paid for interest charges during the same period!!! The district attorney said the charges were not new, for he possessed like information. The secretary of the Teachers Association said the half had not been told. Almost every person in position to know who was interviewed said that the charges were horrible, but true. Yet a full month has passed and not a single step has been taken by anybody. A few days of indignation and excitement followed the publication of the Bulletin, and then the incident passed as though there had never been such a report. It was scandal enough that the facts were true, but the real scandal consists in the apparent submission of the

people to the published conditions. When the Bulletin was made public righteous people said that greater scandal than this was impossible. Yet a lower level has actually been reached in the seeming tolerance of the voters of Pittsburgh to the continuance of the conditions reported.

The Voters' League published the facts and that finished its function. The league was under no obligation to prosecute the guilty men. In the first place it would have required an enormous sum of money, and then, against whichever men it brought charges, there would be a cry that others equally guilty had been protected. To be effective the proceedings against the guilty parties must come from the people affected. It was thought that these charges would rouse the public conscience, and that in every school district of this city the people would rise and remove the men who had fattened at the expense of innocent children. Nothing has happened, absolutely nothing, and the schools are being conducted today as they were before publicity was given this terrible indictment.

Indirectly an excellent result has been accomplished, but not in Pittsburgh. In the present session of the Legislature at Harrisburg there is every indication that this pernicious school system, which has so mercilessly bound Pittsburgh for the last half century, will be superseded by a proper and modern code. This Bulletin has aroused the conscience of the state to the needs of the city, and this marshalling of facts will prove a strong argument in favor of a change in the law.

What excuse can there be for the indifference to this report? Our public schools are the pride and boast of every American patriot. Are Pittsburgh citizens the exception? Yet every summer the subject of the school system receives attention when teachers are dropped for no valid reason and others, favored by some directors, are chosen instead; for Pittsburgh teachers are merely chosen from year to year. The publication of the Bulletin called for leadership, but no organization arose to continue the unfinished work begun by the Voters' League. Here a moral question was involved, and the ministers of every denomination should have joined as one man to correct this abuse, for are they not to mould and to lead public opinion instead of following it? There are strong, able, and eloquent clergymen among the various denominations in Pittsburgh, and in many pulpits this Bulletin was used as a text to preach burning words. But the system is wrong; ministers must labor together for effective work. Had they been united these past years and preached on the common platform that "righteousness exalteth a nation" their preaching must have borne fruit. It is gratifying that of late the church is taking an interest in municipal affairs. Public meetings have been held in many of them to discuss the new charter for Pittsburgh and create a sentiment to aid its passage through the Legislature.

Such individual church and synagogue work, however commendable, cannot wield the influence that would result from a united ministry. There will be theological differences about God and how to serve Him, but there can be no possible differences as to the duty of the church of the future, and of its ministry, when "sin lieth at the door." Agreed that ministers should not interfere in national politics, and perhaps individual clergymen attack problems that might more properly be left to the scientific expert, but if the ministers will not strive to uplift the ideals of a city they lose their noblest power for good. Best results come from united action, and with such a ministry in every large city enthusiastically preaching "let justice flow along like water and righteousness like a mighty stream", municipal corruption would be mightily checked in its destructive course. Let the ministers cease emphasizing differences but combine and make impossible in the future such conditions as reported by the Voters' League. Then, when people mention the leaders in the present moral fight against wrong, in addition to such names as Roosevelt, Hughes, Bryan, Eliot, and Jane Addams, there will be found clergymen equally high among the ethical leaders of this nation.

CONGESTION AND CITIZENSHIP

Overcrowding affects every phase of urban[1] life. The report of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population assumes that it is therefore desirable to box the compass of social reform, and it is in this sense the first comprehensive program put forward by an official body for the largest city of America as a community of human beings. The program as a whole and its various proposals are now properly before the public for criticism and for opposition or support.

THE SURVEY *set forth in brief the recommendations of the commission in its issue for March 11 and published an editorial on the report as a whole on March 18. Here are published a series of short, pointed reviews by experts in different lines of social work. With respect to each subject, reviews were requested both from those who were supposedly for the proposals and those who would supposedly take issue with them. Hearty thanks are due to the contributors of the following reviews received within the limited time available before the date of publication.*

[1]The commission made its report February 28, but its findings were not published by the *City Record* until March 7, and the issue containing them is entirely exhausted. Supplementary data appeared in the *City Record* for March 11. The commission will republish the report (in its entirety, it is to be hoped) in the near future.

PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF AND CONGESTION

FREDERIC ALMY

Secretary Buffalo Charity Organization Society

As a result of the radical report of the Commission on Congestion I foresee a resurrection of public outdoor relief as a burning issue. It was practically abolished in New York and Brooklyn more than thirty years ago, and does not now exist in most of our chief cities. To oppose it is orthodox, but the increasing attention to the cardinal doctrine of adequate relief, and the increasing development of the costly tuberculosis relief, are now almost breaking the treasuries of many private charitable societies. In my own society, for instance, all relief is increasing, and one-quarter of all our relief, or $6,000 out of $25,000 per annum, now goes to tuberculous families. More than one-third goes to widows, one-tenth to deserted wives, and nearly three-quarters to families where there is sickness. The congestion report proposes to renew public outdoor relief in New York city for consumptives and for widows, provided they remove from congested sections, and live "under such surroundings as are approved." Both public and private out-relief are apt to be cruelly small, but this very special emphasis given to congestion is almost naive. We make regular school attendance by the children the chief condition of our relief, and consider congestion important but distinctly secondary. Moreover, public aid could not long be given in families where the father is dead, but refused where he is disabled, and therefore a living cost and care; or given to consumptives and refused to those who have typhoid. This is really a proposition for public outdoor relief complete.

After more than ten years of opposition to public outdoor relief I find myself still yearning for it on account of its seemingly limitless treasury, if it can be safeguarded and made intelligent as it appears to be in Denmark and Switzerland. I hope for it in time, but the arguments against it are too serious to be overturned easily. First is Thomas Mackay's, that to the imagination of the poor the public treasury is inexhaustible, and they drop upon it without thrift as they dare not do on private charity. Next, a large relief fund often leads to lazy charity. Pre-collected relief is more carelessly given than relief hand-picked for special families. Again, public relief is not so limitless as it seems. According to my observation it is more stingy everywhere than private relief. It not only gives small, limited doles, with no attempt at adequate pensions, but whereas private relief usually goes with a plan and with a friend, public charity usually goes bare. There is sometimes a plan, but almost never a friend, and no effort to find work, to find better paid work, to uncover relatives who will help, or to alter conditions. Of course this can be done by public charity, but today private charity is more flexible, patient, and resourceful.

This is because modern private charity believes in adequate work as essential to adequate relief. "Charity is expensive when well done," said Homer Folks to the commission (*City Record*, page 1897), but one of the advocates (before the commission) of public pensions to widows is president of a private relief society in which no salaries are paid to visitors. Is it any wonder that this society lacks money for adequate relief? Most relief by unguided volunteers is like pouring water through a sieve. Would a volunteer cook be economical, or would you eat the food? Devoted, untrained amateurs, with their scraps of time, are not competent to solve the difficult problems of broken lives, though as auxiliaries they are invaluable.

The standard of public charity is fast rising. The delicate work of placing out children is now well done by public officials in many states and cities, but I doubt whether as yet public charity would support its outdoor relief with competent paid service. There is still a feeling that anyone is competent to give alms, whereas in fact relief is as valuable but also as dangerous as the powerful drugs which ease pain but often create an appetite more dangerous than the pain. Even where there is no taint of pauperism, the problems of constructive relief are most difficult. Bad, very bad as private outdoor relief has been in the vanishing past, it has not been so bad or so niggardly with individual families as public outdoor relief. Good public outdoor relief is a consummation to be hoped for, but in my judgment its hour has not yet come.

CHARITABLE RELIEF AND CONGESTION

HOMER FOLKS

Secretary New York State Charities Aid Association
Former Commissioner New York City
Department of Public Charities

The recommendations of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population relating to the promotion of the better distribution of population through municipal control of charities and by public outdoor relief are six in number. The first two contemplate the distribution of city aid to the dependent members of families of consumptives and to indigent widows with children, such distribution to be under the control of a board of trustees constituted in some such manner as the board of trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, and presumably containing in its membership persons actively identified with societies having to do with the relief of the poor in their homes. That the private relief societies in New York city as a whole have failed to provide adequately for widows with children and for the families of indigent consumptives can hardly be questioned, since some of these societies admit it. There will, therefore, be considerable sentiment in favor of some change by which either private charity for these classes of dependents can be made more adequate, or public aid in some form provided. The commission seems to have made a wholly gratuitous but serious error in naming this board "Board of Trustees for Public Outdoor Relief." Personally I have felt disposed to favor some form of public relief for indigent widows with children, but only and emphatically upon condition that it shall be radically different in spirit and method from ordinary public outdoor relief. There is an old saying to the effect that if you give a man a bad name you might as well hang him at once. I think this will be true of the new plan proposed by the Congestion Commission for aiding the families of consumptives, and indigent widows and children, through a board of public outdoor relief.

The third recommendation is the establishment in the comptroller's office of a bureau for the supervision of charitable institutions whose property is exempt from taxation. To this I am wholly opposed. I favor supervision of charitable institutions by the State Board of Charities, whether exempt from taxation or otherwise. The proper agency for such supervision, in my judgment, is the state, and the sufficient reason for supervision is not exemption from taxation, but the protection of beneficiaries from neglect, abuse, or improper or unwise treatment.

The fourth recommendation is that the city encourage the removal of charitable institutions, except emergency hospitals and similar institutions, from the congested districts. The commission doubtless has in mind orphan asylums, homes for the aged, and similar institutions, most of which receive city aid. Its suggestion that the city use the leverage of its per capita payment to induce the institutions to remove to suburban or rural surroundings is excellent. From every point of view the removal of these institutions to rural surroundings where land is cheap, where the cottage system can be adopted, and where agricultural and horticultural training can be given, is greatly to be desired, and is one of the most urgent needs in connection with New York's charities.

The fifth recommendation is that the city acquire tracts of land in the outlying boroughs for extending the work of the New York City Farm Colony, and also for teaching adults methods of earning a living, such as agriculture and gardening. If our municipal administration were extremely competent this might perhaps be undertaken with profit. As our municipal machinery is, however, overloaded with work, I greatly fear that what we would succeed in teaching these adults would be to depend upon the public treasury for maintenance, rather than to maintain themselves by labor.

The sixth and last suggestion is that private charities be urged to dispense relief so as to encourage the distribution of population from congested districts, and to encourage beneficiaries to learn other trades than those of congested city life. Personally I doubt whether the giving of relief has or can have much part either in causing or in curing congestion. The giving of relief should certainly be accompanied with the securing of sanitary conditions in the households in which the relief is given.

CHARITABLE RELIEF AND CONGESTION

ROBERT W. HEBBERD

Former Commissioner, New York Department of Public Charities, Secretary N. Y. State Board of Charities

The report of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population is interesting in all its aspects, and particularly so to me in its reference to the relief of the poor in the city. Whether one agrees with the conclusions of the commission or not, there is ample food for thought to be found in them. That the principal private relief giving agencies in the city have undertaken what

is generally very largely a public function, the relief of the poor in their homes, cannot be gainsaid. That they are doing much good work, I am confident.

That they have means enough to perform this function adequately and thoroughly I do not believe, and there are many who share this opinion. These societies can hardly be blamed for not doing their work adequately if they have not the means to do it. They can, however, be criticised if they fail to state clearly their inadequacy and the reasons for it.

The United Hebrew Charities set a good example in this respect some years ago when it closed its offices at that period in each month when its money gave out, and plainly stated the facts. Personally I am satisfied that the greatest need is for means to help dependent mothers keep their homes together and their children with them. Such homes should of course be maintained in non-congested districts, in accordance with the views of the Commission on Congestion of Population, whenever possible. As most of the mothers with families of children will have to be supported outright at home, this should be feasible in many cases. Others, however, may be obliged to live close to their work downtown, and they, of course, should not be deprived of aid on that account.

The question of paying for the machinery of relief giving is one that always has received much consideration. Those who are familiar with the conditions surrounding such work know, however, that adequate machinery must exist, not only to discriminate in giving, but to help people to their feet where giving is not necessary, if any real good is to be accomplished. At the same time it is important not to have over-visiting, as this injures the spirit of those who are called upon to tell their woes to many people, and even injures the reputations of those who are thus visited. For this and other reasons I do not look with favor upon the creation of another body to give relief to the poor in their homes. In my opinion the private charities should seek largely to supplement their incomes for relief, giving particularly to dependent mothers having children to bring up.

Such mothers, instead of receiving two or three dollars a week at most, should have in some cases that I personally know about ten or twelve dollars a week regularly. Those would cost no more, and of course might cost much less in the end, than the care of three or four children of such mothers in institutions. The actual cost to the community would, of course, be much greater in those cases where the children, owing to the absence of the mother from home, went astray and helped to swell the criminal ranks of the community.

There should be a definite policy in each case on which the mother could depend, so that with a tranquil mind she could attend to the requirements of her young household. At the moment I know of a widow who has been under the notice of one of the societies for seven years without any definite relief policy having been formulated. But I can attribute this only to lack of money, not to lack of humanity.

Public outdoor relief, as it had been given, was wisely banished from New York years ago. There should be a return to it only when the private relief societies after determined effort have finally proved their inability to cope with the situation with private subscriptions. If they cannot accomplish this, then I think they should frankly say so, and that public moneys should be given to them to distribute without any cost for the machinery of distribution. The rising statistics of the children's institutions show that too many homes are being broken up in New York city and that everything possible, even to the tearing down of old theories, should be done to prevent this. The lines must be reformed on the side of humanity. These poor mothers must be adequately relieved even if the public treasury has to give such relief. The relief must be forthcoming wisely and adequately administered. The attendant dangers can be and must be avoided through the more intimate and friendly interest of the representatives of the relief-giving agencies.

The Commission on Congestion of Population is to be congratulated upon having helped to promote discussion on this important subject, which means that it has helped towards its solution.

CHARITABLE RELIEF AND CONGESTION

MORRIS D. WALDMAN
Manager United Hebrew Charities of the City of New York

If the commission had done nothing else than amass the interesting and valuable information embodied in its report, its appointment would have been vindicated. One cannot help being impressed by the scope of its inquiries and the enthusiasm injected into its investigations. But it appears evident that neither breadth of scope nor enthusiasm has sufficed for a clear and rational understanding of the problem.

If the recommendations regarding charities are indicative of the logic of the commission's other recommendations, then I cannot but conclude that hasty reflection and superficial analysis have marked its deliberations.

For instance, the statement gravely made by its committee on charities that 500,000 persons in this city, or one out of every nine in the population, have been found in receipt of charitable aid, is most astounding. I cannot account for it except by the surmise that the total numbers of applicants at all charitable agencies were aggregated, no allowance being made for the fact that in many cases one and the same person is recorded at several institutions. Thus, a woman who recently showed me thirty-two cards of medical dispensaries

she was attending, according to this calculation, would have been counted at least as thirty-two persons. She had a husband and six children, and if these were recorded, as is quite likely, there would have been counted eight times thirty-two or two hundred fifty six persons. This family was recorded at several other institutions as well. This is an extreme case, but not exaggerated. Parenthetically I may say that this hasty and sensational assertion is an unwarranted reflection upon the self-sustaining qualities of the masses of this city—a reflection that is the more deplorable because of its official character.

The belief that so large a proportion of the people is dependent is the premise upon which all the recommendations included in paragraph 11 are founded. In the light of the true facts, namely, that only a very small proportion of the population seeks charitable aid of any kind, the removal of these persons to the outskirts of the city, even if feasible in all cases, would contribute but little towards the relief of congestion. The recommendation that the city subsidize widows with their dependent children, and the families of consumptives, provided such persons move away from the crowded quarters of the city, is no mean proposition. That it would involve the city in tremendous expense, though a serious matter in itself, is trivial when compared to that aspect of the question which makes it one of state polity, not hastily to be disposed of as one of a hundred recommendations of local import. The inadequacy of the relief granted to these unfortunates by private charitable agencies is not of itself sufficient ground for public outdoor relief. What effect a general policy of pensioning widows and orphans would have upon the thrift, prudence, and industry of the masses who now provide for their families against their death by insurance in one form or another, is a question that must first be satisfactorily answered. He who advocates such a plan assumes a grave responsibility.

I cannot even fall in line with the commission's recommendation to transfer to the comptroller's office supervision over charitable institutions in this city. The State Board of Charities has done this work well in the past, and is so constituted as to insure that capable and honorable men shall serve. Its function might again be extended to cover private agencies not receiving public financial support, with the result that thereby the activities of irresponsible organizations might be checked or wholly discouraged.

One must marvel at the courage and assurance of the commission to submit to the searching scrutiny of a wise mayor and an intelligent public opinion such sweeping recommendation after so hasty an investigation. I doubt whether the public is prepared to accept the commission's view that congestion is the cause of all our social evils and that its relief is their panacea. The recommendations concerning charities, it seems to me, must strike one as the exuberant efforts of impractical, though zealous, reformers to legislate the millennium into existence. The force of the other proposals, some of which are wise, must to some extent be broken by this ill-considered divergence into irrelevant questions of which the commission is ignorant, or with which at best it is only partially familiar.

CRIME AND CONGESTION

O. F. LEWIS
Secretary New York Prison Association

The three recommendations of the commission regarding the reduction of delinquency in congested districts are of an obvious nature. No one should fail to subscribe to the recommendations that certain streets in the congested districts be closed during certain hours of the day so that children in these districts may use them for playgrounds; that the Department of Education be urged to arrange talks to mothers on the danger of children occupying rooms with lodgers; that more physical exercise be provided for children in the public schools. In the last recommendation it must be presupposed that the commission has made a careful analysis of the amount of time given at present in the public schools to physical exercise.

The recommendations of the commission's sub-committee on crime and delinquency suggest, first, the securing of adequate cubic air space for adults and children in apartments, with legal provision against overcrowding. The sub-committee also emphasizes the dangers of allowing a lodger to occupy a room with a child over twelve years of age of the opposite sex. The recommendation is made that tenement house manufacture be prohibited; that more parks and playgrounds be provided, with more careful supervision; that restriction on the height of tenements in outlying districts be enforced; that relief be given by the city, where necessary, to families in congested districts, their removal to better quarters to be a condition of such relief. Dark rooms should be vacated and the principle of the city farm colony should be extended, with the teaching of agriculture and gardening. Other recommendations are made, similar to those embodied in the report of the whole committee.

The recommendations in general seem sensible. As to the giving of public outdoor relief by the city instead of through private charity, much opposition will undoubtedly be made. The burden of proof is on the committee to show that the poverty problem will be better handled by a city of the political complexion of New York than by the efforts of private charitable organizations.

The connection between congested population and crime is an indirect one. Congestion seems conducive to crime; hence the removal of congestion will reduce crime. The committee's report lacks specific recommendations as to the handling of the crime problem as it now exists. Any attention called to the conditions of congestion is useful.

INDUSTRY AND CONGESTION

H. J. F. PORTER
Industrial Engineer

The report says that the congestion of people in certain sections of the city is due initially to the establishment here of certain industries of the type engaged in the manufacture of light products not involving the operation of heavy machines, such as clothing, millinery, laundry work, printing and paper goods, metals, machines and conveyances, food, liquor, tobacco, leather and rubber goods, and wood articles, etc. The attractions to the city of these industries are the convenient factory lofts, with heat, light, and power on tap, the proximity of the supply of raw material and labor and the convenient access not only to the local market which in itself is large, but to the larger market of the world through the buyers from elsewhere, who come here to obtain supplies.

The committee on factories says that one of the most marked features of this congestion is the great concentration of factories in lower Manhattan. Out of approximately three-quarters of a million factory operatives in Greater New York, there are over two-thirds or half a million working below Fourteenth street on the East Side and below Twentieth street on the West Side of the city.

A committee of the State Conference on Charities and Corrections has reported that a minimum income of $800 per year is necessary to support a family in the city on a reasonable basis, without allowing any saving. The average wage of the factory operatives of the section referred to is less than $537.

It is shown that owing to the early hour of starting work (7 A. M.), the long hours of work, and the poor transit facilities, these operatives are compelled to live near their places of occupation. This concentration of operatives' families in a limited area causes high rents for living quarters and consequently small quarters for each family, *i. e.*, congestion, which is coupled with low wages for the operatives on account of their oversupply.

The industries themselves are very fluctuating in the amount of business they do at different seasons of the year, and the operatives have to take in boarders or do tenement contract work to tide themselves over the dull periods.

There is also a concentration of office buildings in lower Manhattan, and each of these, some with a capacity of from five to ten thousand people, necessitates a large number of employes for maintenance and attendance, who add to the resident population of the district.

These conditions have a very deleterious effect physically, morally, and mentally on those involved, and consequently, are economically wasteful and costly to the city.

For relief from the above conditions the committee recommends better and stricter enforcement of sanitary standards in factories and tenements and a late hour for starting work. By the latter means operatives who would not have to start work until 8 o'clock, could live at a distance, and need not start from their home until 7 o'clock. The extra cost of transportation would be made up by a saving through cheaper rents, less medicine and doctor's bills, and an increase in income from more continuous work due to better health.

The commission recommends also better transit facilities in order to allow operatives to live at a greater distance from their work. It recommends further a distribution along the river fronts of factories whose product is intended for local consumption, making a factory belt around the city which should be threaded by a belt transit system, not only for the transportation of people, but for the conveyance of freight.

It advocates in this connection the removal of factories whose product is intended for outside markets, together with the operatives' homes, from the city to the suburbs, under laws governing building construction and insuring attractive neighborhood conditions and adequate housing facilities. It calls attention to the fact that compensation must be given to the operatives for the loss of the attractions of city life by providing recreation, amusement, and education.

In addition to the above, greater truck accommodation would be needed and lower truck charges on ferries to lessen the cost of transportation to the city of goods manufactured in the suburbs.

The committee on labor and wages advocates several steps to put the above recommendations into execution, maintain them, and see that present conditions are not repeated. It advocates:

First, owing to the preponderance of the factories of New York state in New York city (of the 40,000 in the former 30,000 are in the latter) that the scope of the State Department of Labor be expanded (a) by the appointment of a deputy commissioner of labor for the city who will devote his time to the direction and supervision of the department's work in the city; (b) that as the present force of thirty-five factory inspectors assigned to the city is able to visit each of its factories only once a year, this force be increased to an adequate number; (c) that appropriate legislation be passed to enable a new organization to carry out its functions.

Second, as there are wage and other disputes constantly occurring between employers and employes which frequently lead to lockouts and strikes, entailing losses to both and inconveniences and expenses ultimately borne by the public, there should be an industrial commission composed of three members, one to be nominated by the unions, one by the manufacturers, and the third by the mayor, and all to be appointed by him. The duties of this commission should be to investigate (a) the labor conditions and wages of the operatives and (b) disputes before and after lockouts and strikes. The object of such in-

vestigation would be to delay the lockout or strike until after the validity of the dispute had been determined and a decision regarding it had been made public. This would be in order to establish public sentiment, which in the ultimate settles these matters.

Third, as none of these fluctuating industries pays sufficient wages to support its operatives through its dull season, and as there are some industries existing either in the city or elsewhere in the state which owing to oppositely timed seasonal fluctuations are seeking operatives when those in the city are idle, the latter can find work if apprised of it and enabled to reach it. It is therefore advocated that municipal employment offices be established in other cities of the state as well as in this city for the purpose of bringing the demand and supply together.

Fourth, in order to make this movement as broad as possible, it is advocated that a National Department of Labor be established, with a secretary who shall be co-ordinate with the secretary of commerce in the president's cabinet. It is desirable that immigrants newly arriving should not, through their ignorance of our ways, and wages, and conditions of work be allowed indiscriminately to disturb by their sudden presence in a settled community the industrial balance which fortunately existed, while it would be desirable to have them go to a locality where their presence might be very necessary for the settlement of its industrial problems. Therefore the duties of this national committee would be (a) to give wide publicity throughout the country to the opportunities for work, conditions of labor, wages paid, permanency of employment, etc.; (b) conditions of unemployment; (c) standard hygienic and sanitary conditions of factories; (d) the same information regarding housing together with the location of homes within walking distance of occupation or transit facilities; (e) cost of main staples of consumption to encourage thrift and economic living; (f) public school opportunities; (g) social and recreational opportunities; (h) general labor information as to open, closed, and union shops.

MANUFACTURING AND CONGESTION

P. TECUMSEH SHERMAN
Former New York State Commissioner of Labor

The New York City Congestion Commission has had a peculiarly difficult problem to deal with, and it is not a cause for disappointment that its report presents no simple panaceas. That report is, however, open to the criticism that its recommendations cover too wide a field, that many of them are barely material to the subject or are of most doubtful expediency, and that the principal causes of congestion and the principal measures proposed for relief are not sufficiently emphasized.

Its recommendations relevant to congestion due to manufacturing may be summarized as follows:

1. Deputy commissioner of labor and more factory inspectors for New York city; and appropriate legislation to facilitate the enforcement of the labor laws.
2. The creation of an industrial commission for New York city, to investigate labor conditions, wages, disputes, etc.
3. The establishment of a chain of employment agencies by the city, the state, and the nation.
4. To require every factory or loft building over a certain height (fifty feet or four stories) to be fireproof; and to limit in proportion to the area of the lot the cubic space of, and to require a free space in the rear of, every factory or loft building hereafter erected and of every building hereafter converted to the use of a factory building.
5. To increase the cubic air space required by the factory laws for each employe in a factory workroom from 250 to 500 cubic feet.
6. To forbid or regulate manufacturing in tenements.
7. To restrict the location of factories to certain districts.
8. To improve the water fronts with piers and docks for factory purposes.
9. To provide freight lines connecting all the boroughs; and to increase the truckage capacity of the ferries and reduce and equalize their rates.
10. To increase the rapid transit facilities and ways for truckage.
11. To regulate immigration more stringently.

In my opinion the first and second recommendations, while they contain one good point, are almost wholly valueless for their purpose.

The fifth recommendation is most objectionable because it aims to insert in the factory law applicable to the whole state a harsh regulation of no material value, except possibly in this city, and for a purpose foreign to the purposes of the factory law.

The fourth recommendation, covering requirements for "factory buildings," is one which would create endless difficulties and hardships and produce only doubtful benefits. A factory building is a building which contains a factory; and a factory is any establishment wherein one or more persons are employed in manufacturing. This definition covers not only the hand-trades, such as tailoring and millinery, but also the alteration and repair departments common to nearly all kinds of commercial shops. Are they all, whenever they may move from their present buildings or leaseholds, to be confined thereafter to one class of buildings with unreasonably discriminatory requirements? Before making any such distinction it would be better to adopt some special and limited definition of the word "factory."

The recommendation to restrict the location of factories to certain districts encounters the same and yet other difficulties. Are the alteration and repair departments of stores, the printing presses of newspapers, etc., and bakeries, laundries, etc., which are factories, to be segregated? And where are they to be segregated? And who is to determine the factory zones? The success of the German cities in establishing factory zones is not a safe guide for us, because they have had an entirely different and infinitely more simple topographical and political problem.

The recommendation to forbid or regulate manufacturing in tenements is too crude. It is the fashion to confine consideration of home work in tenements to its worst form, which

prevails in the sweated trades. But that is not all of the home work by any means. Much of the finest needlework in the clothing trades is done in the higher grade tenements, called apartment houses. The work sold through the women's exchanges, for example, is a small part of the product of this kind of home work. And there is also a good deal of art work in the tenements. Home work of these kinds should not be forbidden. And a proposal for regulation must be specific and should manifest more detailed knowledge of the subject before it deserves consideration.

The remaining recommendations really attack the evil; but, in my opinion, the report would be more useful if it differentiated the problem of relief in respect of the different industries.

In only one grand industry—"clothing, millinery, etc."—and in one branch of another—"tobacco"—is the concentration of manufacture in New York city abnormal. This concentration is due to the constant existence of an oversupply of cheap labor, maintained by immigration, which acts like a magnet upon the seasonal and sweated trades. The remedies for this evil are in the directions indicated in the report, namely, the diversion or restriction of immigration and the withdrawal of the oversupply of labor by means of chains of employment agencies.

But as between Manhattan Island and its suburbs there is an extensive and entirely abnormal concentration of manufacture on the island. In respect of those industries which are located in New York city on account of its advantages as a center for the assemblage of materials, their manufacture, and the distribution of the products, the concentration on Manhattan Island is abnormal only as between it and the two suburbs of Brooklyn and Queens, and is due to the fact that those suburbs have been without adequate railroad terminal facilities. As between Manhattan and its other suburbs—the Bronx, Yonkers, Jersey City, etc.—there is no such disproportionate concentration in these industries.

In respect of the remaining manufacturing industries which contribute to the congestion on Manhattan Island, they are, to the degree to which they exist, incidental and necessary to the consumption and commerce which are likewise concentrated there, and their factories must be connected by easy, prompt, and certain means of transit both for goods and persons with the offices, stores, shops, hotels, homes, etc., which they serve. A simple illustration of this necessity is the fact that the printing plant must be close to the newspaper office. It may be less plain, but is equally certain, that a like industrial necessity for similar accessibility prevails between the mass of the Manhattan factories and the establishments or customers which they serve. The natural and artificial topography of London, Paris, Berlin, etc., admits of relegating the factories to adjacent suburbs and yet maintaining that accessibility. In New York, under existing conditions, that cannot be done. And this concentration of factories on Manhattan Island, under existing conditions, necessarily results in concentrating the homes of their employes there. The factory is peculiarly dependent upon the punctual attendance of all its essential working force. They, therefore, cannot reside at any distance from their work-places, unless the means of transit are cheap, rapid, and certain; and in this last respect the transit facilities of Manhattan are peculiarly defective. To a certain extent congestion is an unavoidable price which this island seaport must pay for its natural advantages and prosperity. Manufacturing of the class under consideration, with its attendant homes, cannot be banished without destroying that prosperity, but can only be somewhat more widely distributed by improved ways for goods and transit for persons. Some of these lines of manufacture may possibly be removed to outlying neighborhoods, but only upon condition that the trade centers of their commerce be removed with them.

TRANSIT AND CONGESTION

JOHN P. FOX
Transit Expert to the city of Pittsburgh

The transit recommendations of the Congestion Commission are admirable, showing a rare breadth of view, a remarkably clear grasp of the subject, forming one of the best reports on city transit ever issued. The report should be circulated in every city in the country. Especially to be commended is the fundamental principle that transit has become far too vital a need in New York to be left in the hands of speculators or investors, and that there must be even more public regulation of the strictest kind, followed by eventual municipal ownership. Many foreign cities have come to realize this fact, and it is hard to conceive of any other point of view in the light of congested living conditions in our great cities, and the abuse of the riding public by the corporations.

Among the other wise recommendations are the following:

1. The unification of all the city lines into a single united system, with scientific rerouting, and breaking down of artificial barriers that cause congestion and excessive fares, with a single fare and universal transfers for the entire city.
2. A fight to change perpetual franchises into limited ones, providing for eventual city purchase.
3. The proper use of all lines and bridges to their fullest capacity, and obtaining extensions to all parts of the city, especially to where land is cheap, by compulsion or otherwise, whether profitable at first or not.
4. The absolute need of limiting the heights of buildings.
5. The need of improved freight connecting and storage facilities along the water front, but without adjoining factories, which would increase the congestion of living near them.
6. Restricting factories to certain districts, and locating new and existing factories outside of Manhattan, in order to reduce the transit of workers.
7. A two and one-half cent ferry fare to Staten Island, which ought to encourage removal to that great reservoir of cheap land.
8. Giving the Public Service Commission and the city the right to build surface lines, just as they now can rapid transit lines, and thus use a cheap means of distributing population, where high priced subways would be impossible or require congestion to make them pay.
9. A gratifying endorsement of the writer's position that much transit is an economic waste,

and should be reduced by the removal of factories to localities where people can walk to work from healthy homes.

10. Building new transit lines in all directions at once, so as to avoid the developing of one section with excessive prices.

One point might be elaborated, and two added to the commission's report. In increasing the capacity of existing lines, the most urgent need is the adoption of cars and methods to provide more seats. By running existing surface cars in pairs, the capacity of the most crowded streets can be increased about forty per cent. Double deck cars, low enough for present clearances, would more than double the maximum seating capacity of a street, and if run in pairs would treble it. Third-tracking the elevated roads, which should reduce noise at the same time, could be made even to double their capacity if efficiently done; while the introduction of side door cars would afford twice as many seats per car as now, or four times as many seats per line. Side door cars are even more urgently needed in the present subway and future subways, where they would double the seats per car and per hour. The present cars are an unnecessary waste to the company in the slack hours, intolerable to the public in the rush hours; and city and company could well afford the expense of providing adequate seats with new side door car bodies.

To attract some of the surplus population out of congested Manhattan, two immediate possibilities should be considered, *viz.*, new surface lines to cheap land and workmen's fares on steam and electric roads. Could not the owners of cheap land in the Bronx, Queens, and Brooklyn somehow build or get built new surface lines to connect with First and Second avenues in Manhattan over the bridges? Then, if attractive double-deck cars as in England, with a seat for every passenger and half fares for workmen, were run through the entire East Side, might they not entice many families out to where decent homes could be built within an hour's ride?

Workmen's fares in Europe allow almost the poorest to live in the suburbs; and why should low commutation rates to the country be given in America alone to the well-to-do? Belgium is best off in this respect, workmen being able to travel fifty-eight miles for five cents. This causes large numbers to own little farms, with reduced cost of living, more independence in hard times, and ability to reach work, wherever it is, for a few cents. Our railroads and electric roads should contribute their share in relieving congestion by carrying workmen at least at cost.

TRANSIT AND CONGESTION

HENRY C. WRIGHT
Former Director Transit Bureau
New York City Club

The report of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population has thrown no new light upon the city's transit problems, but it has re-emphasized some points which are of great importance just at the present time. Though the commission gathered no new facts, it has incorporated in its report a Memorandum in Regard to Transit facilities and Policies of New York City, which is of marked value. In speaking of the relation of transit to the problems of congestion, this memorandum says:

> The reason most frequently advanced during the past forty years for the interest the city and state have taken in the development of rapid transit lines in New York, has been the necessity for relieving congestion of population on Manhattan Island. Yet substantially nothing has been accomplished to relieve such congestion.
>
> It seems to be about time to make a united and determined effort on behalf of the interests of the city at large and of its people, to override the great special interests, whether represented by land speculators or by the present owners of street railway and rapid transit franchises, to the end that this metropolis, with all its tremendous natural advantages and acquired wealth, shall become a fit place for men of limited means to live and bring up their families.

The writer has here touched upon one of the chief reasons for the transit chaos which has existed, and still exists, in New York city, *i. e.*, that the city authorities in the past, in dealing with owners of transit lines or of land, have not kept uppermost in mind the welfare of the citizens. To this statement partial exception may be made as applied to one or two mayors whose motives in the main were right, but who, owing to their lack of knowledge and foresight, erred on the side of capital. We have city officials now who, it is believed, will give due consideration to the needs of all citizens; it is yet to be demonstrated, however, whether they see the problem sufficiently "in the large" to insure a solution which will produce the one great vital need, a unified system —a system secured under such conditions that it can and will be expanded to meet growing social needs as they arise, and a system whose operation can be controlled at all times by the city, not merely legally, but actually controlled.

The report calls attention to the needs of a unified system with universal transfers; it also states that the subways and elevated roads are the key to the whole transit situation and must be a part of a unified system. The report, however, fails sufficiently to emphasize the fact that unless the perpetual franchises of the elevated roads are surrendered, through negotiation, forfeiture, or purchase, it will be impossible to secure a unified system which will be at all times under the control of the city. It is of crucial importance that this point be emphasized at the present time, while negotiations are taking place between the city officers, the Interborough Company, and the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company. The policy adopted as a result of these negotiations is likely to fix and determine the city's relation to and power over transit for the next generation. Social problems, in so far as they are dependent upon and are influenced by transit, will have their metes and bounds fixed by the results of the present negotiations.

The report recognizes the necessity of moving factories to outlying districts and also the difficulty of their so locating, until much better

freight and express facilities be provided. It fails, however, to point out the interrelation between transit and freight lines. Workmen's families living in factory suburbs will have need of some transit facilities between their homes and the city. Such facilities may possibly be best furnished by the lines that haul the freight to the factories. It is difficult to see how it can be furnished by any other means. This consideration, applied to the Borough of Queens, would mean that the Long Island Railroad would provide, in the main, not only the freight facilities to factories, but also the transit facilities for that territory. If this be a necessary and natural development, it is unwise to advocate the extension of the lines of the Interborough Company into that territory, as is done by the report.

The report urges the necessity of building rapid transit lines into undeveloped territory. This should be done if possible. How such non-paying lines can be supported, however, the report fails to point out. It was undoubtedly recognized, though not stated, by the commission that deficits arising from long hauls must be met by profits from short hauls, and that this adjustment can take place only in a unified system. The report would have been stronger had it recognized the vital and crucial importance of a unified system, and had it shown how each of the transit needs is directly dependent upon the creation of such a system.

Development of water front owned by the city, for warehouse and factory purposes, is urged. This would be some aid in the distribution of factories if such development took place outside of Manhattan. The open territory in Richmond prompted the commission to recommend that a subway be built under the Narrows. Since this district can be reached much more cheaply by an elevated line via Bayonne, it would seem rather unwise for the city to sink its money in such a non-paying subway.

The chief value of the report, in so far as it deals with transit, lies in the fact that it has re-emphasized the need of extending lines into undeveloped territory. Its chief defect is that it does not suggest how lines to such territory can be built and supported, nor does it bring out the fact that some territory can be served only by lines whose income can be secured from the carrying of freight, express, and passengers.

LAND VALUES AND CONGESTION

FREDERIC C. HOWE
Author of The City the Hope of the Democracy

The first official recognition by any public authority in America, of the taxation of land values, which has made such rapid development in Germany, England, Australia, and western Canada, is to be found in this report of the New York City Commission on "Congestion." The commission recommends:

A. That the rate of taxation upon all buildings be half the rate of taxation of all the land, and that this reduction be secured by an equal charge in each of the five consecutive years.

B. The question of recommending an unearned increment tax has been strongly advocated before the commission. The principal argument advanced in support of the imposition of such a tax is that in nearly every instance where real estate values have increased such increases have been due wholly to public improvements and to the general development of the city, and in no way to action on the part of the property owner.

While the commission declined specifically to recommend an "unearned increment tax" in addition to its suggestion as to halving the rate upon improvements, it urged that the question be examined by the city government "and that public hearings be had in order to determine what action, if any, should be taken by the city with respect to this tax."

The rapidity with which the taxation of land values has moved in Germany, Australia, and Canada, once it was tried, suggests the results which may be expected from the official recognition of the possibility of solving the housing and congestion problem by taxing land into use. This is the simple, natural, automatic solution of overcrowding, high rents, the tenement, and the slum. Germany began to tax the unearned increment in 1904 in the city of Frankfort. In six years' time the Frankfort system was adopted by nearly every large city in Germany with the sanction not only of officials, but of economists as well. So successful was the new tax that the Reichstag has extended it to all communities not only as a source of local, but of imperial revenue as well. The testimony of officials is that it discourages speculation, forces land into use, and encourages building.

The taxation of land values has also become the most insistent reform of all the radical groups in England. As an official movement it is less than two years old; yet in this time it has become firmly imbedded in the public thought of the nation.

A few years ago one of the cities of western Australia tentatively reduced the appraisal of houses and improvements. The effect on land speculators was so immediate that it led to inquiry. Vancouver, British Columbia, a city of about 80,000 people, reduced its improvement assessments by fifty per cent, thus increasing the tax on land values. The building permits issued during the following year doubled. In 1910 a city government was elected, pledged to continue the experiment and exempt all improvements from taxation. Today all products of labor are tax free, while land values are assessed at about twenty mills on the dollar. The result of the exemption of improvements was immediate. Land speculators, like those who own the land surrounding New York city, immediately cut them up into building lots and placed them on the market. It became too expensive to hold land idle. Houses sprang up; labor was employed and wages increased rapidly. The growth of Vancouver has even affected the neighboring cities of Oregon, which lost office buildings, hotels, and apartment houses,

lured to Vancouver by the taxing laws which exempted capital from taxation. Now the cities of Washington and Oregon are being forced to consider this proposal as a means of protection from the cities of western Canada, which, one after another, are following the Vancouver experiment.

The logic of the followers of Henry George is being proven line by line by the experience of these western cities. Relieve improvements from taxation and improvements are encouraged. A stimulus is given to building operations, to the breaking up of large estates and the idle holding of land. Suburban land speculators are discouraged; the shack and the tenement are subjected to the competition of new homes, while city and country land calls upon labor to meet the burden of taxation imposed upon the idle landlord.

The housing question is a land question. It is the high price of land which explains the inordinately high rents of New York. The high price of land in turn is due largely to the fact that the speculative increase from year to year is greater than the tax burden. Increase this tax on land to the point where it is more costly to hold idle than it is to use, and the thousands of acres of undeveloped land in and about New York city will come into the market and be developed for residential purposes.

An ounce of land taxation will do more to cure the housing problem than a pound of regulation. Land taxation produces houses. Regulation merely continues the shack, somewhat improved in character, but still enjoying monopoly rent. Land value taxation is an automatic reform. It subjects the building of houses to the same laws of demand and supply that have perfected the automobile in a few years' time. The official recognition by New York of the possibility of curing the congestion problem by taxation will lead to the further study of this question by other cities and its probable early introduction by some one of them. Once the experiment has been tried it will spread to other cities by force of its success, just as it has in Canada, Australia, and Germany.

TAXATION AND CONGESTION

DELOS F. WILCOX
Author of Great Cities in American

The Congestion Commission makes only one substantive recommendation in regard to taxation, namely this: that the rate of taxation on personal property and improvements should be gradually reduced relatively to the rate on land values alone, until at the end of five years the rate on land would be twice the rate on buildings and personalty. It should be clearly understood that the discrimination proposed is not against vacant land as such, but against land values generally, whether the land is occupied or not. The commission believes, however, that the indirect effect of the discrimination would be to discourage the practice of holding unoccupied land for speculative purposes, because of the increase of the tax burdens laid on it; and on the other hand to encourage building operations on account of the decrease of the tax burden on improvements. It is obvious that the cheaper it is to build and the greater the area made available for building purposes at a given price, the less powerful will be the tendency toward congestion of population. The committee does not go so far as to recommend the entire abolition of the tax on improvements and personalty, but if the halfway measure suggested would tend to relieve congestion, then *a fortiori* the promise of relief by the full application of the land tax principle would be still greater. In fact there is some reason to believe that the effect of a reduction in the relative rate of taxation on improvements would be cumulative. If so, then full exemption would have more than twice as much effect as half-exemption. The committee was probably actuated by consideration of expediency and caution in not recommending the complete application of the principle, the soundness of which was recognized so far as its effect upon the distribution of population was concerned.

Moreover, the committee on taxation, of of which Professor Goodnow was chairman, was of the opinion "that the influence of the system of taxation on the problem of congestion is not great enough to justify reliance upon it as even an important means of remedying the evil." One of the members of the committee, John J. Flynn, dissented from this view, and the majority opinion seems to be somewhat illogical in view of the radical nature of its proposal to cut the tax rate on improvements in two. It is clear, therefore, that one of the commission's reasons for not being still more radical was the belief that congestion cannot be relieved by tax reform alone, and the recognition, on the other hand, that taxation has something to do besides relieving congestion.

The committee on taxation even recommended that an annual increment tax at a low rate, say five per cent, be levied on the increase in land values, and that the proceeds be devoted to the construction of transit lines, on the theory that transit facilities are more directly effective in relieving congestion than any system of taxation which the city might adopt. The commission, however, merely passed this suggestion on to the regular city officials for further investigation and consideration.

HOUSING REGULATION AND CONGESTION

EDWARD T. HARTMAN
Secretary Massachusetts Civic League

THE SURVEY'S request for an article on the report of the New York Congestion Commission, by return mail, is easy enough, but it precludes the possibility of reading the fifteen galleys of double-column, small-type proof upon which the article is to be based.

I shall base what I say upon the six paragraphs of the Recommendations — 5. Measures to Prevent Room and Apartment Overcrowding.

Paragraph (a) provides for a minimum area of ninety square feet for a room. This is surely proper. The present requirement of seventy square feet is absurd when taken in connection with the 400 cubic feet minimum for each adult in a bedroom. Only one adult, or one adult and one child, may now occupy such a room under present New York regulations. Of course these regulations are not enforced.

Paragraph (b) requiring each apartment (not room) to contain 400 cubic feet for each adult, and 300 cubic feet for each child occupying it, is also good. It is more sound than the room unit where boarders are not allowed, for doors may be kept open and then the apartment is the ventilation unit. The twenty-five dollars' penalty for violation is necessary. An inspector cannot constantly be on guard, and without a penalty many people will violate the regulation. A law is now before the Massachusetts Legislature for a penalty of twenty dollars for the same purpose, but its adoption seems not likely. *Laissez faire* gone mad rules here now. An effort to include three-family houses in the definition of a tenement house has been defeated. The Legislature cares nothing about such things, and that the people do not care is a natural inference. Only those care who are directly involved on the money-making side. Human interests are very little considered. If New York will adopt the suggestions of paragraph (b), under this head, it will have erected a monument to the progressiveness of New Yorkers, for when New York can do it no city in the world may claim that it cannot do it.

Paragraph (d), "that no lessee of any apartment in any tenement house shall be permitted to take lodgers without notifying the owner" who shall notify the department, and paragraph (e), providing that the owner shall notify the departments, both tenement house and health, when his tenants fail to comply with the regulations, also that lessees secure a license for keeping lodgers, would all prove most far-reaching. A tenement of four small rooms, two of them attic rooms, was in Boston recently found to contain a family of father, mother, and one child, and sixteen adult lodgers. This is not an isolated case. It may be duplicated many times in Boston and even in the cities and towns of greater Boston. Paragraphs (d) and (e) would enable New York to prevent such misuse of a tenement. I know of no city or town having laws that would measure up with the possibilities of these provisions.

Paragraph (f) provides for a bureau of occupancy in the Department of Health to guard against overcrowding in two-family houses. Two-family houses are tenement houses in Chicago. The enactment of this regulation would be novel, far-reaching, but surely proper. The doctrine of "unfair interference" would bar such a provision in most places. But the time is coming when all places will have to recognize as fair all regulations which will protect people from the results of their own cupidity and, more important still, protect the community from these results, which are wide and serious. The only logical argument, that these people have to take lodgers to make ends meet, does not apply as generally as some claim, and it will disappear entirely when the laborer receives a fair share of the product of his labor, when taxation places its burden in the right place, when the proper distribution of industries enables the people to spread over the land, and when the people get a square deal from the builders and owners.

There is a long way to travel to reach all these recommendations, but even to have recommended them puts the Congestion Commission in the class of constructive statesmen which we have for so long been getting along without. I congratulate it on this part of its work and on all of its work that is as good as this.

CITY PLANNING AND CONGESTION

GROSVENOR ATTERBURY
New York

Such a report as that of the Commission on Congestion of Population would require a second commission to study properly and criticise it. Its field is so prodigious in extent and complex in character that in the few moments at my disposal I am afraid I cannot even comment upon it intelligently. The lack of any practical knowledge and experience of such subjects in this country, together with the uncertainty of the human element in the equation—so different here from what it is abroad —render deductions from foreign experience and statements of the actual results of such recommendations as those made by the commission more than ordinarily unreliable.

The general impression one gets from the report is that of a vast amount of food for thought, most diligently compiled; much of it undoubtedly good and stimulating if properly digested. In general the restrictive elements appear to be those that should be adopted with the most caution. The removal of the causes of congestion, such, for example, as the proper distribution in the suburbs of factory centers—appears to be a fundamentally sound proposition. But the attempt to check the natural working out of such causes—the measures aiming to annihilate their power or to neutralize and restrict their present results, may very well produce other effects than those desired and expected. It seems a little like fastening down the lid of the teapot to prevent its boiling over.

For example, the report recommends measures to "keep land cheap." This, of course, can be done only by limiting its usefulness. Is it certain that we want that? Cheap land, like

cheap labor, may be the most expensive from the point of view of true economy. Would the effect of the restriction on the price of land (even if feasible) be true economy? What we want in this matter is the most economical use of land compatible with hygienic and social standards, a situation which is not necessarily synonymous with "cheap" or low priced land.

It would perhaps be more to the point if there were a recommendation aiming at the reduction in the cost of building construction, which represents from two-thirds to three-quarters of the cost of the poor man's home. Here is undoubtedly a field for true economy. A study of the effect on the rental paid by the laboring man produced by the "closed shop" and the city's antiquated building code would seem a very obvious and promising field for investigation and reform. How many millions are wasted by reason of the unscientific and unreasonable requirements of our building law it would be difficult to say; but the fact that it hampers good and economic housing construction is well enough known. That the same concrete, for example, should be a little over one-third as strong in New York as it is in St. Louis; and that it should gain thirty per cent in strength again by crossing the East river from Manhattan to Queens would be laughable if it did not spell a direct tax on the New York tenement and a corresponding increase in the laboring man's rental.

On the other hand, the preventive measures recommended by the commission, where they obviously reach the root of the trouble—those measures aiming to encourage the proper distribution of population by transit facilities, city planning, and above all by educational work, cannot be too heartily endorsed or too quickly made effective.

CITY PLANNING AND CONGESTION

GEORGE B. FORD

Member Committee on Congestion of Population in New York

In general, the thorough study of congestion as carried out by the commission is summarized in a number of pertinent recommendations for relief and prevention. In particular, the commission formulates two ordinances and twenty-seven acts pursuant of this idea. Of these twenty-nine bills only one, that which would amend the New York city charter to permit the Board of Aldermen to determine zones for different heights and areas of buildings, directly affects city planning. The passage of such an act would make it possible to prevent absolutely in the outlying districts of New York that congestion which now exists in Manhattan. All witnesses agree that the principle has proved of the greatest value in Germany where it is in general use. In America it has successfully stood the test of constitutionality in Boston and in Baltimore.

Of the remaining twenty-eight bills several relate to heights and percentages of lots covered by factories, office buildings, and habitations, and thus indirectly affect city planning. It is proposed that no building in Manhattan below One Hundred and Eighty-first street should exceed a cubage of 174 times the area of the lot, and in the rest of New York 120 times the area of the lot. It is proposed further that no factory or loft building should exceed a cubage of 132 times the area of its lot. These propositions do not preclude the erection of tower buildings, but they do require a man, in all justice to his neighbors, to confine such a building to a correspondingly small percentage of his lot. The seeming injustice to a very few is far more than compensated by the great gain to all the rest of the people.

Among the bills relating to tenements and dwellings several would restrict the height or the percentage of lot covered by the buildings to a considerably greater extent than the present law does. For example, it is proposed that except in Manhatan below One Hundred and Eighty-first street no tenement, according to the definition of tenement in the present tenement law, should exceed four stories in height; and that in Manhattan below One Hundred and Eighty-first street if it exceeds that height it should be fireproof; and in no case should it surpass in height the width of the widest street on which it faces. It is further suggested that in outlying districts of New York all tenements should be limited to three stories. In Chicago and other cities where such restrictions are in force they have been most efficacious in distributing population. Of course the proposal of such measures will call forth the opposition of certain property owners who sincerely believe that they have the Godgiven right to make as much money as they can from their property, utterly regardless of the everlasting damage they cause by so doing to their neighbors and to the people at large.

With regard to taxation city planning is affected by the bill proposing to tax land at a rate double that on improvements. The commission points out that this is not "single tax." They show that in Germany, Australia, New Zealand, and certain cities of Canada where this is in practice, it has proved of great value as an incentive to building up outlying land and thereby distributing population and reducing rents. The value of this method of taxation is attested by the fact that no city which has once adopted it has ever given it up.

Aside from these bills there are in the report a great many suggestions for relieving or preventing congestion, among which are the following:

The preparation by the city through the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of a plan for the entire city which shall include the following items:

The restriction of factories to certain districts.

The provision of transit lines and means of carrying freight upon the basis of such a districting of the city.

The determination of the main lines of streets and secondary streets as suggested by Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

Provision of sewers and methods of sewage disposal and substructures for pipes.

Provision of adequate sites for parks and playgrounds and recreation centers and municipal buildings of various sorts.

Acquisition of adequate land by the city for all public purposes.

That as a means of reducing rents, and with the sanction of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in each case, streets in outlying districts may be thirty feet wide, and houses be set back from fifteen to twenty feet from the curb line so as to permit the widening of street subsequently at a small expense.

That subways for passengers be provided at crowded street crossings.

Excess condemnation of land, through which the city may acquire more land than is required for a specific improvement, and resell or rent the surplus.

The adequate improvement of all water fronts with piers and docks for factory purposes and with warehouses.

The immediate construction of freight lines connecting all boroughs.

The removal of all charitable buildings except emergency hospitals from the congested districts.

The founding of city farm colonies in the outlying boroughs.

That there should be in every borough at least one large area for the public administration buildings in the borough and a series of sub-civic centers with groupings of administration buildings.

That there should be in each borough a grouping of public buildings, such as schoolhouses, libraries, etc., except fire stations, in a park with open grounds around them.

That the city provide recreational playhouses or at least sites for these in the civic centers.

That all transit franchises should be for a short or indeterminate term.

That a way be found to unite all present and future transit lines into one efficient comprehensive system with good and quick service for a single fare.

That lines should be run into all sections of the city, including Queens and Richmond, even though the outlying lines be run at a loss for the present.

These recommendations have all grown out of the evidence brought out at the numerous hearings. They are all based on the most tenable theory that the rights of the few should be sacrificed to the good of the many. Some of them call for the expenditure of a large amount of city money, but in every case the commission is prepared to prove that the ultimate benefit derived from these undertakings pays many times over, and pays not only in better citizenship and the vastly greater enjoyment of life, but in so many dollars and cents of the money spent annually by the city in curative and relief institutions, and of the money lost by individuals through sickness, decrease of efficiency, and time and energy wasted in transit and transportation.

Here, for the first time in the history of New York, we have a comprehensive program for the planning of the city. Here, for the first time, the many different sides of the problem are presented to the public. It remains now to analyze these ideas, to correlate them, determining the relative importance of each to work out of them a constructive program and then to push it with vigor.

CONGESTION A NATIONAL ILL

JOHN HAYNES HOLMES
Church of the Messiah, New York City

That the recent report of the New York Commission on Congestion of Population will receive that degree of public attention in New York city itself which its exhaustive survey of existing conditions, its careful study of causes, and its detailed suggestion of remedies deserve, goes without saying. That it will attract the interest of the country at large, however, and stimulate its citizens everywhere to decisive action is by no means so certain. Being the report of a New York commission, addressed to New York officials, surveying New York conditions, and suggesting remedies for New York ills, it will be all too easily dismissed as a document which is of exclusive concern to this one city. And yet nothing is more obvious, from even a superficial examination of the commission's work, than that the problem of congestion is not local but national, and that this study of its causes and effects in this one community is of immediate interest to every American community from Maine to California.

In the first place, it is a well-known fact that the drift of population in this country is all in the direction of the cities, and that the growth of these cities, especially within recent years, has been astounding. That this phenomenon is confined to no one section of the country, and is to be attributed to no merely local or temporary causes, has been clearly demonstrated by the figures of the 1910 census. When we discover that the average rate of increase of the 180 cities in this country of between 25,000 and 100,000 population, during the ten years from 1900 to 1910, was no less than 42.3 per cent—that one of these cities had an increase of 539.7 per cent, another of 494.2 per cent, two others an increase of over 200 per cent, and twelve others an increase of over 120 per cent—and that of all these communities only two registered a decrease; when we find that of the fifty-one cities of over 100,000 population, the average rate of increase, during this same decade, was 27.4 per cent—that the smallest rate of increase was 6.5 per cent—and that two of these cities increased over 200 per cent and four over 100 per cent; when we observe that no less than twenty-one cities enjoyed an increase of 90 per cent or more; and when we add to all these figures the fact that the rural sections of the country underwent little or no increase, and in one conspicuous instance, that of the state of Iowa, actually underwent a decrease, we begin to realize something of the significance of this problem of municipal development.

More important, however, than the obvious fact that the cities of the United States are growing, is the much less obvious fact that they are becoming congested. There is no absolute reason in the scheme of things why increased population should mean congestion; but investigations here and there are showing

that these two phenomena all too often go together. Now comes the report of Mayor Gaynor's Commission on Congestion to teach us why this is so frequently the case. Studying conditions of overcrowding as they actually exist in New York city, this commission defines fourteen main causes of congestion; and of these fourteen, only three, by any wildest stretch of the imagination, could be described as in any way peculiar to this one community. It is very evident that one of these causes of local congestion, "the recent consolidation of the five boroughs", could apply only to New York; it may well be argued that two others, "the failure of the city to adopt a policy to attract people to outlying boroughs", and "immigration and the failure to distribute and control immigrants", have a peculiarly local application; although the failure to get people out into the suburbs is a factor, I believe, in the congestion of many another city, and New York is surely not the only American city which is embarrassed by unrestricted immigration. But granted, for the sake of argument, that these conditions apply to New York with such especial cogency that they may be regarded as more local than general in character, nothing of the sort can be said of the remaining eleven causes of congestion. "Poverty", which stands first in the list, raises its ugly head in every community. "Concentration of factories and offices" is beautifully illustrated in every city in the land, although it is doubtful if this concentration is anywhere as acute as in Manhattan. "Intensive use of land", which is the next cause named, is a familiar feature of all social life in America! and the same thing is to be said of the next and closely analogous cause of congestion, namely, "the high price of land due to intensive use." The fifth cause, "lack of control over aliens and citizens", is a normal feature of a *laissez-faire* society, and not an abnormal feature of New York. "Long hours of work", which stands next in order, is a form of social injustice which is a disgrace, not to any one community, but to the entire industrial order. "The cost of transit and transit policy of the city, since transit has been regarded as a matter to be governed by commercial and not by social conditions", undoubtedly has some features peculiar to New York, due partly to its physical conformation, but more to the scandalous financial history of its public service corporations; but as a general rule it is safe to say that "the cost of transit and transit policy" has aggravated overcrowding wherever the private ownership and private operation of transportation lines have been permitted—and this means, everywhere! "Lack of a definite city plan" is a prevailing cause of congestion, to say nothing of other social ills, in every modern municipality. "The present system of taxation" is another gross injustice, characteristic not of New York, but of America. "Failure to prepare land for housing purposes" is a universal feature of municipal short-sightedness and indifference to the social needs of the people. And the "methods of public and private charities, but especially of private charities", the last of the eleven causes named, are of course as prevalent as human nature itself.

Finally, the problem of congestion belongs to no one city. Like tuberculosis and poverty it is a problem as wide as the borders of our material life and as deep as the foundations of our industrial system. Mayor Gaynor's commission has surveyed not merely New York, but the United States, and has defined causes and suggested remedies, not of a local, but of a national ill. Its report, therefore, is respectfully submitted, not to Mayor Gaynor and the Board of Aldermen, not merely to the citizens of New York, but to the American people in general. "He that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

PUBLIC HEALTH AND CONGESTION

FREDERICK L. HOFFMAN

The report of the Commission on Congestion of Population admirably emphasizes the health aspects of a question which is attracting universal attention throughout the civilized world. Perhaps the most important consideration is the necessity of accurate vital statistics, tabulated in sufficient detail by sanitary districts or blocks to bring out the local incidence of mortality or morbidity, with a due regard to age, sex, race, nativity, and occupation. If the method adopted by Dr. Billings in connection with the special census investigation of 1890, including the six years preceding, had been continued by the Board of Health or the Division of Vital Statistics of the Census, a mass of most valuable information would have been available and many important questions could have been answered upon the basis of trustworthy facts. The absence of an intercensal enumeration further complicates the accurate calculation of death rates according to age, sex, nativity, and race, all of which elements undergo more or less important changes during so long a period as a decade. Even under the present limitations the report of the commission presents some extremely suggestive facts, particularly the data relating to the Italian population, which emphasize the practical utility of statistical research in this field as a first step towards a better understanding of the true factors which underlie the whole problem of congestion or concentration as the case may be.

The report of the commission includes some rather elaborate calculations of morbidity, which at best, of course, are a mere matter of rational conjecture. We, unfortunately, have no information which enables us to calculate the morbidity of American cities, and the application of the factors of the German sickness experience may possibly lead to erroneous results. The report brings out the importance of co-ordinating all the hospital statistics of Greater New York, with a due

regard to the principles adopted by the London Metropolitan Asylums Board. As yet the statistics of our hospitals, which may yield practical results of far-reaching value, are almost entirely neglected.

The calculations of the commission as to the economic waste of disease are also open to criticism in that a clear distinction is not made between the saving of life and the saving of years of life. Obviously death must take place sooner or later—it is entirely a question of prolonging life by all rational measures and means which fall within the modern conception of community responsibility.

The occupation aspects of the problem of congestion in its relation to mortality and morbidity seem not to have been brought to the attention of the commission. It is practically certain, however, that if the subject of occupation mortality were thoroughly investigated, the results would throw much light upon the observed unfavorable consequences of human congestion, most of all in the more densely populated section of lower New York. The dust problem also may, in this connection, be referred to as one which unquestionably has an important bearing upon the high mortality from consumption.

The work of the commission within its serious limitations appears to have been admirably well done. A mass of new information has been brought to light, and upon many important questions a public expression of qualified opinion has been obtained. It is sincerely to be hoped that at least some of the more conservative recommendations of the commission will be carried into effect.

PUBLIC HEALTH AND CONGESTION

PAUL KENNADAY

Former Secretary, Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis, New York Charity Organization Society

Of the six closely printed pages of recommendations of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population not more than half a page is taken up with the seven specific "measures to promote health and safety." But these measures are only incidental in the commission's big scheme for a more thorough and radical treatment of the big health problem of New York. These ninety pages of the *City Record*, with their catalogue of about all the ills to which congested flesh is heir, are in effect but convincing proof that the problem of congestion is a problem of health, and that as a city becomes more congested, infectious disease and premature death become ever more surely the inheritance of its crowded millions. That there shall be a closer correlation between the Department of Health and the Tenement House Department; that the latter department may cause the vacation of apartments judged not sanitary or habitable because of lack of sufficient ventilation or because of infection from contagious disease, that tenement walls shall be whitewashed once a year and that manufacturing in tenements "shall be adequately regulated and, if possible, prohibited by law"; these are hardly more than minor details of an administrative character in a comprehensive scheme essaying to promote and conserve the community's health through sweeping reforms in factory and tenement building, transit, taxation, parks and playgrounds, charitable relief, distribution of immigrants. So that there come up for review here the whole field of modern philanthropy and more beside. And the whole matter sums up to this, that our present methods are not getting at the root of the evils which beset us—and never will; that, indeed, we can hardly hope to keep the ground gained if we do not soon set about to apply ourselves in a more courageous fashion to the eradication of the now very well known causes of disease. The commission's strict regulation of tenements will help, factory zones will help, labor exchanges and an industrial commission may accomplish something, the extension of properly controlled subways and good and cheap housing will help a great deal. Workers from all the corners of the world are herded here together, not because they want to live too many to a room, not even because they are careless of the certain penalty tuberculosis will enforce, but because those who profit from their distress want more profit, and because transit to the factory and all these cubic feet of air space required to maintain health in the home cost more money than the wage-earner can pay. The report bears testimony again, if we must have it, that as real wages go down death rate go up, and that tinker away as we may with the results of our present wage system, that system in the end must go if preventable disease is to go.

COMMUNICATIONS

No department more clearly emphasizes the cooperative nature of THE SURVEY than the communications. Letters from readers are welcome; appeals cannot be published. Because of limited space, each contributor is asked to be brief so that no contributor will have to be excluded. Communications from 10 to 300 words in length are the most satisfactory and in the long run most telling. Only when the editors are convinced that so much space is needed, will communications over one thousand words in length be handled and the editors reserve the privilege of returning communications over 500 words in length to be abbreviated.

OVERCROWDING MUST STOP

TO THE EDITOR:

In your editorial for March 18, Overcrowding Must Stop (pp. 989 and 990), you state: "We believe it to be a false start to attempt to create a special class in the community to be known officially as 'the dependent members of a family of a consumptive or consumptives,' and another class to be known as 'indigent widows with children,' to be dealt with in a special way by a special board of trustees." On page 1034 of the same issue you state: "Of the $200,000 [which you earlier note the Char-

ity Organization Society spent above the $80,000 for relief] about $50,000 in round numbers was the cost of conducting the New York School of Philanthropy." If this expenditure for teaching "philanthropy" is justified, it cannot be on the basis of your reasoning about "creating" a class of dependent members of consumptive families or of dependent widows with children. The Congestion Commission was not guilty in any large measure of "creating" either of the two classes above referred to. The responsibility for creating those classes rests upon the powerful vested interests of New York city and the country, and it would seem that the directorates of the charitable societies in this city must take chief responsibility for "creating" these classes. If you mean, however, that it is a "false start" for the government to recognize officially the existence and provide for the relief of certain exploited classes in a community who are dependent through no fault of their own, perhaps you will be willing to state what constitutes in your mind the line of demarcation between the functions of government and of charity organizations. You will, if you can take time to read the report of the commission and the tables it has submitted as a basis for its conclusions, note that the commission has studied the causes of poverty, as given in your book, Misery and Its Causes, and by other students of poverty. The commission has attempted to strike at the causes of poverty, but in the meantime it places the responsibility for the relief of poverty upon government, since government is responsible for the existence of poverty. The committee on charities also urges "the development of a system of public social insurance, and that such a system of public insurance be adopted, based upon cost, and incumbent upon all members of the community with an income of less than $1,200 a year and permissive up to $2,000." In the meantime the commission takes the point of view that government should pay the "weregeld" until it can collect it from the responsible parties and meet the cost of caring for victims of a governmental policy of *laissez faire*.

May we not hope, too, that you will comment upon the taxation proposals of the commission and the committee on taxation of which Prof. Frank J. Goodnow was chairman, and the social significance of these proposals. Important as is the $80,000 a year spent in relief by the Charity Organization Society and the $50,000 on the School of Philanthropy, the proposals of the commission and the taxation committee to recover by taxation of land values $50,000,000 for the people who create these values is a potential social force in the extermination of poverty. At least this amount is annually extorted in rent from the people of New York. We hope you feel that the plan suggested by the committee on taxation to save rent payers and home owners this $50,000,000 which they create is so important that you will devote another valuable article to the subject.

BENJAMIN C. MARSH.

[We share the opinion of the committee on taxation, of which Professor Goodnow was chairman, and to which Mr. Marsh refers, that "the influence of the system of taxation on the problem of congestion is not great enough to justify reliance upon it as even an important means of remedying the evil"; and we regret that other sub-committees of the commission did not reach similar conclusions in regard to the matters referred to them, *e. g.*, the committee on charities and the committee on labor and wages. It is our opinion that neither the expenditures of the Charity Organization Society for relief nor the cost of maintaining the School of Philanthropy have any such bearing on the subject of congestion of population as to warrant our following Mr. Marsh's example in discussing them editorially in this connection.—ED.]

THE NUMBER OF JUDGES

TO THE EDITOR:

Referring to the statement in your editorial on the People's Courts, that the Sullivan bill would legislate "out of office on a given date all of the fifty-five justices and magistrates," may I call your attention to the fact that the total number of present judges who would thus be displaced is forty-nine. The Sullivan bill would provide for six additional judges making in all fifty-five, the number which you give.

J. T. WILLIAMS.

New York.

MALE ADULT DEFECTIVES

TO THE EDITOR:

The useful and creditable work already done by Dr. Max G. Schlapp at the Children's Court with defective children, augurs happily what further and greater results in this direction, may be accomplished. I am credibly informed that such work is now contemplated for defective or delinquent women, before or after sentence, in our courts. We may therefore be hopeful that soon perhaps we shall know what is best to do with them, so far as practicable.

It may be that the "committee on defective delinquents" has in view the even broader field of work of male adult delinquents or defectives. If so, I wish to add my voice and influence in its earnest support. If not, I urge that it be brought to its consideration, and I am confident good and far-reaching results will soon follow. It is only necessary to note what is now going on in court, and as to inmates of prison or asylum for the insane, to appreciate the need of such work. To be well done it requires united conscientious efforts of judges, alienists, and probation officers.

BEVERLEY ROBINSON, M. D.

New York.

JOTTINGS

Resignation of Howard Bradstreet.—Howard Bradstreet who, because of his experience as secretary of the Parks and Playgrounds Association, was selected last year by Park Commissioner Stover to be supervisor of the park playgrounds in the Boroughs of Manhattan and Richmond, New York, has resigned his position. He intends, however, as a private citizen to continue his interest in playground work.

Pensions for Bank Clerks.—The First National Bank of New York has adopted a carefully worked out voluntary contributory insurance scheme for aged or invalided employes. The pension fund is to be made up of contributions from the bank and from individuals, together with a three per cent deduction from the salaries of those desiring to become beneficiaries. Eligibility on account of incapacity begins after fifteen years' service; on account of old age, after sixty-five years of age and fifteen years of service.

The amount of the pension is two per cent of the average salary for the preceding five years, the maximum amount being seventy per cent of the average salary during employment, or $5,000. If the beneficiary has not completed twenty-five years of employment before retirement, the pension is to continue for as many years as his term of service; if he has completed this number of years it is to continue for life. An employe's widow or orphan children are to receive one-half the pension, under the same regulations. In case a contributor leaves the bank before he is eligible to the pension he is to receive back the full amount of his contribution without interest. Special cases can be provided for at the discretion of the bank. Francis L. Hine is president of the First National; C. D. Backus, who is largely responsible for the pension plan, is cashier.

What the Italian Girl Needs.—One of the planks in the platform of Greenwich House, New York, for 1911, is to aid "the Italian girl to become conscious of her relation to other working girls. She must learn how to work in association. At present she is an economic menace to the American working girl." Of equal significance is a plank to "aid the forces at work to drive out from the home the manufacture of artificial flowers which makes the Italian tenement in the lower West Side a factory where the mother cannot give adequate attention to her children, and where the children work late at night. One of the kindergarten children at Greenwich House was found making flowers at 11 P. M."

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